THE SCHOOL LEVEL HUMAN FACTOR IN EDUCATION REFORMS

FELIX MWOMBEKI MULENGEKI

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

2011

CERTIFICATION

The undersigned certify that they have read and hereby recommend for acceptance by the Open University of Tanzania, a thesis titled: **The School Level Human Factor in Education Reforms**, in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

í í í í í í í í í í í í

Prof. E.B.N.K. Babyegeya

(Supervisor)

í í í í í í í í í í í í

Dr. H. Mushi

(Second Supervisor)

Date í í í í í í í í í í í í í

DECLARATION AND COPYRIGHT

I, **Felix Mwombeki Mulengeki,** declare that this thesis is my own original work and that it has not been and will not be presented to any other University for similar or any other degree award.

Signature í í í í í í í í í í í í í í í .

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I extend my thanks and appreciation to my supervisors, Prof. E.B.N.K. Babyegeya and Dr. H. Mushi, under whose combination of guidance, criticisms and encouragement this work has acquired its present form. The Open University of Tanzania is acknowledged for giving me the scholarship. Furthermore, I appreciate the friendly co-operation from the regional and district education officers, headteachers, school committee and board members and other respondents in the sample during collection of required data.

I also recognize the role and contributions of my wife Mukarugonzibwa and our children Bugingo, Aganyira, Bamwende, Aliberwa and Muttahaba. The significance of their contributions is in their acceptance to take additional family chores and responsibilities allowing me sufficient time to spend on studies, although they were also students in various institutions and different levels of schooling. They accepted reducing the time allocated for spending with either a husband or a father.

Finally, I owe much thanks to numerous colleagues and Faculty of Education staff at the Open University of Tanzania. Inputs and criticisms they provided during staff-seminar presentations were very constructive. However, I am solely responsible for any shortcomings that may emanate from this work.

ABSTRACT

The study has employed a case study design to examine, describe and appraise contributions of classroom teachers, heads of schools, members of school committees and boards and the regional and district education staffs in the conduct of educational reforms. The major findings were that active participation in conduct of reforms is a function of a Human Resource Strategy integrating performance improvement decisions to overall mission of reforms. Such integration was so weak in this case, that management and development of teachers were unsystematically executed; definition, specification, planning, appraisal and rewarding of the teaching role were peripheries; selection and induction of heads of schools and members of committees and boards were unsystematic and inefficient empowerments for taking-up managerial, leadership and linkage roles; and schools were not sufficiently furnished with clear indicators and supportive systems and structures reflective of desired improvements.

The study recommends: (i) Strategic planning of education that links the goals, purpose and scope on one hand, with knowledge, skills and competences required for achieving them on the other. (ii) Induction and recruitment procedures strengthening the school level managers to efficiently administer reforms that improve studentsø learning. (iii) Clear guides for committees and boardsø interactions with parents, other stakeholders, school programmes and regional and district education staffs. (iv) Regional and district support for occurrence of genuine school level change and improved studentsølearning.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ADB	African Development Bank
ADEM	Agency for Development of Educational Management
BEDC	Basic Education Development Committee
BEMP	Basic Education Master Plan
BPR	Book Pupils Ratio
CSEE	Certificate of Secondary Education Examination
CSO	Civil Society Organization
DCE	District College of Education
DEO	District Education Officer
ECA	Ethnographic Content Analysis
EFA	Education For All
ESDP	Education Sector Development Programme
ESR	Education for Self Reliance
ETP	Education and Training Policy
FDC	Folk Development College
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HR	Human Resource
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IMF	International Monetary Fund
KRAs	Key Result Areas
LGAs	Local Government Authorities
MANTEP	Management Training for Educational Personnel
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals

MoEVT	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
MUCHS	Muhimbili University College of Health Sciences (later MUHAS ó Muhimbili University of Health and Allied Sciences)
NAS	(United States) National Academy of Sciences
NBC	National Bank of Commerce
NCLB	No Child Left Behind
NER	Net Enrolment Ratio
NMB	National Microfinance Bank
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
NSSF	National Social Security Fund
OPRAS	Open Performance Review and Appraisal System
OUT	Open University of Tanzania
PEDP	Primary Education Development Plan
PM-RALG	Prime Ministerøs Office ó Regional Administration and Local Governments
PPF	Parastatalsø Pension Fund
PRP	Professional Recognition Programme
PSLE	Primary School Leaving Examination
PSPF	Public Service Pension Fund
RAS	Regional Administrative Secretary
REO	Regional Education Officer
SEDP	Secondary Education Development Programme
SLO	Statistics and Logistic Officer
SUA	Sokoine University of Agriculture
TANROADS	Tanzania National Roads Agency
TEHAMA	‒Teknolojia ya Habari na Mawasilianoøor Information and Communication Technology ó ICT.
TPDP	Teachersø Professional Development Programme

TPR	Teacher Pupils (or Students) Ratio
TRA	Tanzania Revenue Authority
TSC	Teachers' Service Commission
TTC	Teachers' Training College
TSM	=Takwimu za Shule za Msingi' or Primary School Statistics
TSS	=Takwimu za Shule za Sekondari' or Secondary School Statistics
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Education Science and Culture Organization
UPE	Universal Primary Education
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
USOPM	United States Office of Personnel Management
WEC	Ward Education Coordinator

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1   BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study was to examine, describe and appraise the effects of school level human factor in the management and conduct of Education Reforms. Humans were considered as indispensable resources needing to be adequately involved, developed and managed in reform processes. Acknowledging the argument that such processes were requiring to garner and consume several resources (Stringfield, 1994), humans take up a unique place and are the powerhouse over other resources for optimal performances (Grout and Perrin, 2002).

Education sector reforms in Tanzania had consistently featured on development agenda since independence. This was manifested in various laws, policies and programmes which were passed to redress various aspects in the sector. In 1962 for example, a law was passed to repeal the 1927 Education Ordinance. The new law abolished all forms of discrimination in the provision of education, and provided uniformity by streamlining the curriculum, examinations as well as administration and financing of education. In 1967, the ruling party, TANU, through its Arusha Declaration introduced the philosophy of Education for Self Reliance (ESR) to guide the planning and practice of education. The philosophy aimed to reform the curriculum by integrating theory and acquisition of practical skills. The 1978 Education Act No. 25 was enacted to legalize the changes made between 1967 and 1978 to meet the national needs. These were changes for expansion of teacher training, introduction of Folk Development Colleges (FDCs), abolition of foreign examinations and introduction of national examinations in formal school systems, nationalization of voluntary agency schools and so on. Additionally, this law introduced compulsory enrolment and attendance for primary school aged children, centralization of curricula and syllabi, establishment of school committees and boards, establishment of the Inspectorate Department in the Ministry of Education, and

mandatory registration and licensing of teachers among other things (URT, 1995:iv-v).

However, the sector did not improve significantly from these changes. As such, the Presidential Commission on Education was appointed in 1981 to review the system and propose necessary changes. In March 1982, this Commission gave recommendations which led to establishment of Teachersø Service Commission (TSC), introduction of new curricula at primary, secondary and teacher education levels, establishment of Sokoine University (SUA), Muhimbili University College (MUCHS) and the Open University of Tanzania (OUT), formulation of a National Policy for Science and Technology, introduction of pre-primary teacher education programme and expansion of secondary education. Nevertheless, the performance of the sector as assessed by scholars, independent educational planners and the general society (URT, 1993;1995) was still too low to address the perceived national needs.

The Task Force was formed by the Minister for Education in 1990 to assess the critical problems in the sector and propose an appropriate system as well as policy, planning and administration strategies for facilitating increased efficiency and effectiveness (URT, 1993). It found out that the system suffered from a number of contradictions. Among the contradictions was the curriculum which did not meet the needs of school leavers and general society. It was also found that teachers were demoralized, poorly remunerated, under-qualified and sometimes untrained. On management, it was found that the systems, structures and integration process among education and training providers were unclearly defined (URT, 1993). Consequently, the Task Force urged for policy reforms and appropriate measures consonant to preparation of school leavers and graduands capable of facilitating the achievement of envisioned national development goals and objectives.

The recommendations of the 1990 Task Force were instrumental in the formulation of 1995 Education and Training Policy (ETP). The broad policies of education and training

were now focused to enhancing partnerships, broadening the financial base through cost sharing and liberalization strategies, and streamlining education management structures by placing more authority and responsibilities to schools and local communities. Another area of policy focus was the intent to provide quality education, curriculum review, improved teacher management and use of appropriate performance and assessment strategies. The issue of access was given prominence in the policy with the intention to bring about equity with respect to women and other disadvantaged groups. Vocational education and training were recognized by the policy as necessary ingredients in the curriculum that would equip the youth with the culture-for-job-creation and self employment as learning outcomes (URT, 1995: xii-xiii).

The implementation of suggested policy changes began in 1997 when the Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) was launched. Inside this programme there were Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) and Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP) of 2002-2006 and 2004-2009 respectively. PEDP and SEDP sought to improve quality and expand access in the provision of education. In terms of access and equity, they aimed to expand enrolment to both girls and boys. In respect to quality, improvements aimed to provide more teaching and learning resources, classrooms and furniture. Upgrading of quality and access were to be considered along with capacity building components to improve school governance, management, institutional arrangements and selected cross-cutting issues like HIV/AIDS, environmental conservation etc. However, objectives for culture-for-job-creation, self employment and other learning outcomes set in ETP were only scantly reflected in PEDP and SEDP. Education quality was equated to school infrastructure, textbooks and furniture. The key achievements by the launching of the second phase of PEDP (2007-2011) were improvements in enrolment and pass rates in examinations (URT, 2006). Both the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) improved between 2001 and 2006, from 84% to 112.7% and 65.5 to 96.1% respectively. The Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) pass rate increased from 28.6% to

61.8%. Transition to secondary school rate increased from 22.4% to 49.3%. The number of primary schools increased from 11,873 to 14,700. A total of 50,813 teachers were professionally up-graded to attain the required minimum grade IIIA qualifications. The Book-Pupil Ratio (BPR) improved from 1:20 to 1:3 (URT 2005; 2006).

Reforms in this study were viewed in Kielø's (2007) conception; as universal phenomena through which societies attempt to redress their various systems. In relation to education generally and schools in particular, Caldwell and Hayward (1998) argue that permanent reforms presuppose six conditions at school level. These are public policy and school efforts which tightly focus on achievement of high standards for all students, achievement of high levels of professionalism among teachers and others working in schools, convergence of education and economy, higher levels of resources and formal recognition of private effort on the revenue side to energize and sustain the enterprise, and the recognition that such reforms are necessary but not sufficient condition in themselves. These authors identify people, resources, accountability and curriculum as four critical dimensions, none of which any effective educational reform can ignore. They argue that educational reforms are meaningful if students are enabled to learn differently for improved outcomes. However, the foregoing description of PEDP and SEDP performances provide scanty evidences about people, accountability and curriculum, hence scanty evidences for students improved learning. In relation to people and accountability, Fullan (1991) asserts that the effectiveness of any innovation depend on the extent the key players are transformed into õí right people, with right skills, in right positions.ö

It was also worth-noting that ETP was not the only factor behind the birth of ESDP in 1997. There were other internal and external influences which exerted pressure for these reforms. Internal influences on one hand included such initiatives as other national policies which in their totality aimed to redress the practice of education and training in the country. These were the National Science and Technology Policy of 1996, the

Technical Education and Training Policy of 1996, and the National Higher Education Policy of 1999 (URT, 2006). Apart from these policy statements, other internal initiatives which influenced the formulation and implementation of ESDP were the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) and Tanzania Development Vision 2025.

Vision 2025 is a long-term development strategy which identifies quality education and unrelenting learning as some of the attributes for the society which Tanzania desired. The strategy urged for Tanzania of well educated people with developmental mindsets. It constituted five attributes: High quality livelihood; peace, stability and unity; good governance; a well-educated and learning society; and competitive economy capable of producing sustainable growth and shared benefits. By this strategy, education had to provide Tanzanians with positive mindsets and a culture which cherish human development through hard work, professionalism, entrepreneurship, creativity, innovativeness and ingenuity. It had to make Tanzania a society of quantity and quality educated citizens sufficiently equipped with requisite knowledge for solving society's problems, meeting the challenges of development and attaining competitiveness at regional and global levels.

NSGRP on the other hand is a second generation poverty reduction strategy which is outcome oriented gauged on Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). It emphasizes sectoral linkages and synergies, and focuses on mainstreaming cross-cutting issues such as gender, HIV/AIDS, environment and disability. By design, NSGRP is linked to the government budgets as well as a comprehensive monitoring and communication system, complemented by macroeconomic and structural reforms that Tanzania embraced since mid-1980s, as well as sectoral policies and strategies in areas such as agriculture, rural development and education. Among other things, NSGRP intends to improve the human capabilities, survival and social well being, while acknowledging the role and importance of quality education.

The external factors which influenced the birth and implementation of ESDP were the various international convetions which Tanzania was a signatory. These included the 1990 Education for All (EFA) targets, the Dakar Framework of Action and the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). EFA was an international initiative first launched in Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990 to bring the benefits of education to õevery citizen in every societyö (World Bank, 2000). In order to realize this aim, a broad coalition of national governments, civil society groups, and development agencies such as UNESCO and the World Bank was committed to achieve six specific education goals. These were expansion and improvement of comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children; ensuring that all children, particularly girls, those in difficult circumstances, and those belonging to ethnic minorities had access to free, complete and compulsory primary education of good quality by 2015; ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults were met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life-skills programmes; achieving a 50 % improvement in adult literacy especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults by 2015; eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015; with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievements in basic education of good quality; and improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring the excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills. The Dakar Framework of Action reiterated the initiative and urged the national governments to take action.

The MDGs aimed to stimulate development by improving the social and economic conditions in the world's poorest countries, through eradication of extreme poverty and attainment of universal primary education by 2015. These goals represented a partnership between the developed and developing countries by creating an

environment - at national and global levels alike - which is conducive to development and elimination of poverty. Their Universal Primary Education (UPE) target is to ensure that children in the entire world were enabled to complete full courses of primary schooling. In terms of eradicating extreme poverty, they targeted full, productive employment and decent work for all, including women and young people (U.N., 2009). The initiative intended to monitor the extent countries strived towards the targets by indicators such as the growth rate of GDP per person employed, employment-to-population ratios, and the proportion of employed people living below $1 per day. The World Bank (2000) advocated a twofold requirement for these targets to be accomplished. On one hand, developing countries were to develop sound education sector programs through broad-based consultations, lead their development and implementation, coordinate donor supports, and demonstrate results on key performance indicators. Donors on the other hand were to support mobilization of additional resources needed, make (donor) education funding more predictable, align donor work with country development priorities, and coordinate donor support around one education plan, including harmonization of donor procedures.

The MDGs targets corresponded with the ETP objectives which urged for curriculum promoting the merge of theory and practice, growth of the culture-for-job-creation and self-employment within the Tanzania education system graduands. The targets aligned with ESDP and NSGRP objectives to improve the human capabilities, survival and social well being as well, in which basic education was the chief tool. However, quality of education in this initiative was defined quantitatively and aimed to ensure that children were simply enrolled in schools and able to complete the full courses. It did not consider variations in the curriculum contents and modes of delivery in the different countries. This was a shortfall which in the light of qualitative analysts, denied the MDGs the ability to efficiently assess education quality in ETP, ESDP, NSGRP or EFA standards where quality was related to culture-for-job-creation, merge of theory and practice in day to day lives, and access to appropriate learning and life-skill

programmes.

The implementation and performance of these educational reforms could therefore be assessed using any or combination of frameworks between ETP, ESDP, NSGRP, EFA or the MDGs. For example in terms of MDGs standards, it was reported in 2009 that progress towards reaching the goals was uneven between countries, and areas needing the most reduction of poverty such as Sub-Saharan Africa (including Tanzania) were ones which did not make any far-reaching changes in improving the quality of lives (U.N., 2009). In this performance assessment, they observed that the persistence of poverty in Sub-Saharan countries has a bearing to the extent to which quality health and education services were being provided, the solution of which requires additional injection of funds. The G-8 therefore committed more funds to IMF, World Bank and ADB as lending institutions so that they could in turn cancel additional $40-50 billion debt owed by poor countries. It was expected that poor countries would thereafter alleviate poverty by re-channeling the resources saved to improvement of their health and education programmes. In the context of the studied reforms, manifestation of these donor funds was more apparent in construction of classrooms, procurement of textbooks and laboratory equipments than human and other reform dimensions.

In terms of EFA framework, UNESCO (2000) reports that after about a decade of implementation a number of children in school had soared (from 599 million in 1990 to 681 million in 1998) and many countries were approaching full primary school enrolment for the first time. On the other hand, some 113 million children were still out of school, discrimination against girls was widespread and nearly a billion adults, mostly women, were illiterate. Lack of qualified teachers and learning materials was still a reality for too many schools and disparities in quality were widespread. Over-conservative systems were out of touch with young people's needs, in sharp contrast with the plethora of initiatives that attempted to adapt learning to local needs or reach out to marginalized populations. Some of the challenges which UNESCO identified

included the ways for helping teachers acquire new understandings of their role and how they would exploit the new technologies to benefit the poor, as well as the ways to help education overcome poverty and give millions of children a chance to realize their full potential. This was challenging the international community, including Tanzania, to redefine their education strategies so that they cope with the legacy of 21st century and help learning to keep up with the pace of change expected in terms of human capacity for schools.

In terms of ESDP as a framework aim to improve performances in access and equity, education quality, teaching and learning resources reported achievements which were mere quantitative in nature; ignoring the gap between desired and actual performances. The achievements did not consider the role and place of various critical actors in the reforms, for example teachers, school committee and board members and superintendents in the district and regional education offices. The achievements did not show if the participation of these actors actually worked toward improvement of quality of education. For example, the increase in PSLE pass rate did not reflect improvements in the type and specification of skills which were examined. These types and specifications would show the extent at which the graduands were becoming more competent to merge theory and practice. Additionally, the results did not show the extents to which culture-for-job-creation and self-employment capacities were being acquired, nor did they show if the acquired knowledge and skills were now relevant to them that they could be applied in daily courses of lives. It was also shown that 37.6% of 135,013 of teachers in the primary education sub-sector had attended in-service trainings (URT 2005; 2006), but without showing the areas of focus which these trainings addressed and if these had improved the recipientsøprofessional capacities, nor was any information provided relating to improvement of teachersø morale. The improvements in the supplies of learning resources, classrooms and furniture did not capture variations which existed across subjects, grades and geographical locations.

Ndoye (2007) observes that planning and implementation of education reforms in Sub-Saharan Africa, including Tanzania, were characterized by mismatches between the projected goals and allocations of resources. Allocations of resources tended to ignore important leverages which in turn resulted to failure of the whole thing. Rajan (2007) reduced the focus to Tanzania and argued that the performance was characterized by high repetition and drop outs. In some cases there were student attendance which was lower than enrolment, textbooks which were available but were locked in cupboards, and pedagogy which encouraged rote learning and heavy reliance on private tuition and cramming for examinations. The two writers concluded that the systems were characterized by lots of schooling which had very little learning. It was observed in a third year PEDP review that funds and majority of resources were availed but the quality targets were still unreachable (URT, 2007a). The reviewers noted that the desired achievement was inflicted among other things by absence of competent and knowledgeable heads of schools, appropriate teaching and learning materials, in-service training and continuous professional development to teachers and other non-teaching actors. This contradicted the ETP target calling upon the government to ensure better terms of service and working conditions, professional qualification and development for all teachers. The goal of ETP was to ensure that education becomes a tool for poverty alleviation by overhauling the system and improving the human capabilities towards envisaged prosperity. However, this has not been the case as indicated in the preceding narrative, hence the need for identification of ways such capabilities could better be enhanced and managed for studentsøimproved learning.

Data on conduct and achievements of education reforms in Tanzania revolved on resourcing of schools and the role of the government which seemed to ignore the human-related sets of issues. The argument by Armstrong (2006) that reforming organizations generally tended to neglect the human considerations contained in soft strategic human resource management concept was instructive. These reforms had concentrated on hard elements which according to Fullan (1991) was a reflection of the

interests of politicians at the expense of needy societies. Armstrong (op.cit) borrows the ideas of Mills (1983) to advise that when making their plans for changes, organizations should be with people in mind, taking into account the needs and aspirations of all the members. This is also noted by Grout and Perrin (2002) who underline the role of human resources (people) in conducting any reform, by arguing that they were the powerhouse for performances and as such, issues which surround them needed not to be ignored.

Such a gap in resource and implementation strategy implied a demand for more elaborate description of the way teachers and other actors working in schools were to be involved and managed in order to ensure that students would learn what society wanted them to learn, and that economy of the society was served by the education outcomes. This was based on the understanding that it was the humans who acted on other resources for any successful sectoral performances, and that the shortfalls in achievements depended on the level of contributions they made and the way they manipulated other resources. For example Ndoye (2007) suggests that the shortfalls in achievements of reforms would be minimized if schools (colleges and universities) maintained interactive relationships with their social and economic environments to enable the linking of skill development to the search for solutions to prevailing problems, both within communities and in the country. The pertinence and use of what was learned would be questioned in light of fundamental needs such as economic growth, fight against poverty and diseases, environmental protection, democratic citizenship and so on. He concurred with a theory that some of the problems which made most of educational reforms fail to achieve the desired ends include the shortage of various resources and equipments, but more importantly was the shortage of qualified teachers and other practitioners required in schools. He recommended the instigation of cost-efficiency reforms, fruitful innovations, development and strengthening of capacities to inform decisions and practices.

Caldwell and Hayward (1998) note that meaningful and sustainable educational reforms require resolution of complex and interrelated issues about teachers and teaching, learners and learning, relationships between education and economy, resourcing of the schools and the role of the government. This resolution would be possible if educational change at local level was perceived beyond innovations in physical resources and roles beyond mere teaching. According to Fullan (1991), sustainable reforms would involve re-examination of day-to-day situation the principals, parents, communities, and district administrators faced, and how the cherished changes were part of their lives and relationships to students learning. Therefore this study has utilized PEDP and SEDP to examine, appraise and describe the roles and position of these actors in the management of educational reforms for improved studentsølearning.

1.2   STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

There were remarkable evidence that substantial achievements were registered by PEDP and SEDP as reform strategies in their strive to improve the quality of education at the dawn of 21st century in Tanzania, but in a way which was not consonant with the problems identified and recommendations given at the advent of the process. If growth of the culture-for-job-creation, self-employment, and merger of theory and practice were maintained as education quality problems which the reforms were to address, and if the government was required to recognize the role and place of the involved human resources and the need to empower them for their maximum participation in the reforms, then a gap existed on the way the reform practice was planned in relation to management and development of the human resources intended to be involved in process. A more elaborate description of human resources related strategies and techniques was required to ensure that they were properly managed and developed for maximum participation and involvement

Implementation and performances of the reforms in both primary and secondary sub-sectors of the education system in Tanzania showed that the curricula were reformed

with assumptions that involved actors would simply participate, and increase in quantities of the educational in-puts would proportionately transform quality. Delineation of issues related to relevance of curriculum, teacher training, motivation, remuneration and management systems, structures and integration processes was not adequately testified in these reforms, although they are identified as necessary leverages for reforming the system and enabling students to learn differently for improved outcomes (URT 1993; 1995; 2006; 2007a and b; Mulengeki 2005; Rajan 2007; Sumra 2007). This raised some human resource related questions, particularly about the way they are involved, managed and developed through reforms if at all they are to resolve curriculum and teaching issues and propel the process to desired development destination. A careful examination of current practices was required to suggest the needed improvements. Thus a study to examine the consequences of school level human resources in the management and conduct of education reforms was considered necessary and timely.

1.3   CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In this study, the conceptual framework refered to a device for data collection, analysis and interpretation on basis of pre-defined aims and objectives (see Heaton, 2004). It was a type of intermediate theory with the potential to all aspects of inquiry, such as problem definition, purpose, literature review, methodology, data collection and analysis. This being a social research coherent to empirical inquiry, the conceptual framework played a role of a ±road-mapø and ±toolø for outlining the possible courses of action. Illuminated by Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K., (2000) who view empirical enquiries in a four-stage model, it played the role of managing complexities involved in planning of inquiries. The four stages included identification of the purposes of the research, identification and prioritization of constraints under which the research had to take place, planning the research within those constraints, and deciding about the research design.

This inquiry intended to examine, appraise and describe the effects of school level human factor in the conduct and management of education reforms. It was therefore premised on a conceptual framework of human variables which were considered important at the base of the reform process. In this reform process, these variables were leverages seeking to enable students learn so differently that self-employment and culture-for-job-creation were acquired as outcomes. Along the process, the framework mapped out the strategies for management and development of classroom teachers for enabling them teach differently towards desirable learning outcomes. It also attempted to map out the strategies for recruitment and inductions of heads of schools to enable them lead and manage the process toward the desired outcomes. Furthermore, the strategies for empowering the members of school committees and boards were studied to determine the extent at which they could enable these actors efficiently participate in reforms. By this framework, it was premised that classroom teachers, heads of schools and committee and board members could effectively participate in the reform process if the regional and district staff were also providing efficient HR related support in terms of policies, knowledge and skills for school level reform actors.

The framework therefore instructed a study process constituted of four levels. At the base was an identification of actors involved in educational reforms and their roles at school level. In this case and on basis of the related literature these were classroom teachers capable of teaching differently if by any rate students had to learn differently; the heads of schools capable of leading and managing schools differently if human and non-human resources available in schools were to enable students learn differently and acquire desirable outcomes; the members of school committees and boards capable of actively and skillfully participating in reforms and ensuring continued services between schools and their environments; and the support staff at the regional and district education offices sufficiently supportive in terms of policy formulation and interpretation at school level, as well as other HR related interventions for provision of knowledge, skills and competences for other school level actors carrying out reforms.

At the second level, the road-map instructed for studying the types of interventions required by various school level actors to enable them realize desired objectives. It is at this level that data were collected to assess the effectiveness of interventions made to different actors in the reform process and the extent this could lead to desired outputs and outcomes. The variables studied included the strategies for management and development of teachers, recruitment and induction of heads of schools, empowerment of school committees and boards, and support provided by district and regional levels to enable schools implement the reforms efficiently and effectively. In Caldwell and Hayward's (1998) view about reforms, this was an examination of one of the four school level dimensions of students' learning which include the frameworks for people, resources, accountability and curriculum.

Figure 1. 1: Educational Reforms' Interventions at School Level

	DESIRED LEARNING OUTCOMES
OUTCOMES	• Cultureóforójobócreation • Merge of theory and practice • Application of acquired knowledge and skills in the day to day lives.

OUTPUTS	Effective and meaningful teaching for studentsø improved learning	Improved school leadership and management for studentsøimproved learning	Skilful community involvements for studentsø improved learning	Improved plans and strategies to increase the systemsøcapacity for studentsøimproved learning

INTERVENTIONS FOR CHANGE	Strategic Management Process • Professional development • Shift in beliefs • New teaching styles	Strategic selection and induction of the Heads of schools	Strategic knowledge and skills for Community involvement in the education change process	Strategy and mechanism for improved school level capacity for change

SCHOOL LEVEL ACTORS	CLASSROOM TEACHERS	HEADS OF SCHOOLS	SCHOOL COMMITTEES AND BOARDS	DISTRICT AND REGIONAL EDUCATION SUPPORT STAFF

Following the framework presented above, this inquiry studied the human dimension partly because official progress reports indicated that the achievements were in terms of access and supply of non-human resources, suggesting that persistence of the gap between desired and actual performances was likely to emanate from other (human) dimensions. The study inquired the extent at which the critical actors were adequately managed, motivated and empowered to address the issues of instructions and education quality. Again, this was instructed by the literature on education reforms (Fullan, 1991) that teachers, heads of schools, committees and boards, and support staff at regional and district levels were principal elements of the human factor (people) at school level whose active participation and involvement were not dispensable in education change process.

Caldwell and Hayward (1998) and (Fullan 1991) observe that for education reformsø achievement of desired change and improved learning outcomes, teachers had to be able of teaching differently so that students also learnt differently. For teachers to teach differently, they required training processes which foster sustained professional development, shift in beliefs and teaching pedagogy. As such, the inquiry looked at the ways through which teachers were selected and recruited, the way teacher training and development programmes were managed, and the way teaching process was appraised and rewarded vis-à-vis desired studentsøoutcomes for self-employment, culture-for-job-creation and general application of acquired knowledge for the day to day lives of the recipients.

In relation to heads of schools in this study, they were viewed as the gate-keepers of change in their schools. This required them to assume a dual role of leading and managing change in their schools. The inquiry therefore looked into the ways heads of schools were selected, recruited and inducted to take up these roles. Specifically, it examined the leadership and management-related orientations which they were given, as well as different leadership dimensions which they demonstrated in order *±to do it differently for students' learning differentlyø*for improved outcomes.

Turning to members of school committees and boards, they were one of the key players on the education team, although they were often forgotten (Fullan, 1991). Their significance came from their potential to facilitate parentsø involvement in school activities for change. In order to do it successfully, they needed support in terms of skills for gathering accurate information about cherished changes, and capacity for skillful intervention in the process of change. As such, the study examined the way appointments and selection of members could ensure skilful interventions, as well as support and capacity building mechanisms which in place for them to take up their roles.

The education support staffs at district and regional levels were viewed as school level indispensable actors because they were to lead the development and execution of the whole system of education. These were technocrats who worked out plans to increase the capacity of the system to effectively manage change, as well as making clarifications at local level, even if the sources of change were elsewhere in the system. The ability of these staff to effectively take up these roles was assessed by looking at the ways school support was determined, strategies and mechanisms at disposal of district and regional education staff to increase capacities of schools to manage change, and mechanisms for organization of information communication and monitoring of change.

These purpose and objectives require a design capable of describing; analyzing and interpreting the uniqueness of these elements in these reforms - through accessible accounts (see Cohen *et al*). As such, a case study design was utilized for its interpretive tradition to enable ±seeing through the eyes of participantsø without researcherøs manipulation of desired behaviour. Data collection methods associated with interpretations of subjective meanings, and rules that could guide individual actions were employed to gather data from respondents. These were such methods as

interviews, documentary reviews and observations. Cohen *et al* (2000) posit that one way of validating interview measures was to compare it with another measure already shown to be valid, i.e. convergent validity. In this study, such validity was assured by piloting the instruments in order to minimize biases, and triangulating its data with those obtained by other instruments, for example documentation and observation. Likewise, data analysis approach in this study was determined from the need to efficiently describe, analyze and interpret responses about the uniqueness of the human factor in the reform process, particularly in respect of interventions for change and ensuing outputs and outcomes. This requirement therefore suggested the use of such approaches as pattern-matching and explanation-building in order to allow revision of theoretical positions, and re-examination of evidences for obtaining new perspectives.

The outputs of interventions made in the second level were assessed in the third level of this framework by aligning them with their influences in the behaviour and competences of actors to efficiently work for intended studentsø learning outcomes. Specifically, this was the data analysis and interpretation presented in chapters four and five. At the fourth and highest level of framework, the study assessed the delivered outputs and the extent they could lead to desired learning outcomes, therefore making conclusions about studied reforms as presented in chapter six.

1.4   RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this study was to examine, describe and appraise the effects of the human factor to the achievement of the goals of Education Reforms. Specifically the study had the following objectives:

  i. To examine and assess the strategies for development and management of teachers in relation to the objectives of the reforms.
  ii. To examine and assess the strategies used in recruitment and induction of heads of schools for adequate management of reforms at school level.

iii. To examine and assess the strategies used to constitute and empower the members of school committees and boards for active participation in reforms.

iv. To examine and assess the extent of support provided by district and regional levels for schoolsøefficient and effective implementation of reforms.

1.5 RESEARCH TASKS

Based on these objectives, the study sought:

i. Examining, describing and assessing the strategies for teachersødevelopment and management towards effective realization of reform goals and objectives.

ii. Examining, describing and assessing the strategies for training and recruitment of heads of schools to effectively manage reforms at school level.

iii. Examining, describing and assessing the strategies by which the school committees and boards were constituted and empowered to effectively monitor reforms.

iv. Examining, describing and assessing the extent to which the district and regional levels supported schools for effective implementation of reforms.

1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Under each task, answers to the following questions were sought for gathering responses to the study problem:

Task 1:   Examining, describing and assessing the strategies for teachersødevelopment and management towards   effective realization of reform goals and objectives;

a.   How were teachers recruited and selected?

b.   How were teacher training and development managed?

c.   How was the teaching process appraised and rewarded?

Task 2: Examining, describing and assessing the strategies for training and recruitment of heads of schools to effectively manage reforms at school level.

    a. How were the heads of schools selected, recruited and inducted to competently manage change at school level?

    b. How did heads of schools practically demonstrate the different leadership competences during implementation of change?

Task 3: Examining, describing and assessing the strategies by which the school committees and boards were constituted and empowered to effectively monitor reforms.

    a. How did member appointment ensure mastery of skillful intervention to the implementation of school programmes for change?

    b. How were information communication and monitoring of reforms organized?

Task 4: Examining, describing and assessing the extent to which the district and regional levels supported schools for effective implementation of reforms

    a. How were regional and district roles restructured for support of improved learning at school level?

    b. How did the regional and district administrations establish conditions for sustainable school level improvements?

1.7   SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Studies and literature on reforms underline the importance of what Kiel (2007) refers to as õsmall quick winsö which bring about the desired results. Arguably, reforms occur in small changes in a variable which is likely to have effects in other related variables, rather than investing in large scale efforts which are not well focused. Such variables in the process of reforms are also known as õ*leverages*ö (Senge, 1990) or õ*lever points*ö

(Holland, 1995), implying the integral aspects which may produce disproportionate effects in variables systematically connected to the changed variable. In the context of reforms and planning in education, this therefore requires careful and systematic analysis of the system to determine the role and importance of each over other variables in the system, far before the process takes off.

In this case, the study reveals and registers the role and importance of human over other resources in the reform processes. It provides a description which highlights on the place and role of classroom teachers, school heads, and committee and board members, by bringing to the surface the differences other resources could have made if educational planning and implementation had adequately aligned them with these actors. This further timely informs on the quality, quantity and timing required for each category of resourcesø efficient and effective contribution to the realization of reform objectives, for example in this case: studentsølearning outcomes which reflect improved quality of education, acquisition of culture-for-job-creation, merge of theory and practice and application of acquired knowledge and skills in day-to-day lives of graduands.

The study reveals the consequences of well formulated policies which are not strategically managed during implementation. It registers the importance of empowering the human resources by provision of adequate knowledge, skills and competences if at all the other resources are to benefit the conduct and outcome of reforms. In case of education, the study underlines the school level as the most important because that is where studentsø learning differently is planned and executed. This therefore further reveals why educational human and non-human resource allocations should focus to schools and grassroot levels rather than central and intermediary levels, particularly on studentsølearning.

The responses obtained in this study were timely because PEDP and SEDP were already

in their first and second phases of implementation respectively, on a timeline which as a process, was not giving appropriate consideration to the management and development of human resources. Revelations from these findings could not only bring planning and implementation back to rail, but also putting in place a reference case to planners in similar situations.

1.8   LIMITATIONS

The study observed that there were several factors influencing the effectiveness of educational reforms. However, it was limited to the human related factors as the most crucial among others. This was because the philosophy in which the research problem was conceived acknowledged the view by Armstrong (2006) that in reforms it was humans who manipulated the other resources, hence the engines of reforms. As such, the data and discussion are limited to and are reflections of the human factor in reforms rather than other tangible, hard elements of the processes.

Secondly, being a case study design, the findings are not for immediate generalizations in other reform situations. The study provides in-depth detailed lessons from PEDP and SEDP as particular cases. As Cohen *et al* (2000:182) observe, case studies are set in temporal, geographical, organizational, institutional and other contexts that enable boundaries to be drawn around them. They further postulate that case studies are defined with reference to characteristics defined by individuals and groups involved in them, at a point in time.

Thirdly, interview guides were the data collection dominant approach in this study. According to Cohen *et al* (2000:271) the approach is liable to inadvertent omission of important and salient topics if the researcher is inflexible. On the other hand, the approach can result in substantially different responses if the researcher is flexible in sequencing and wording the questions. As such, the data collection process was limited

to the extent that the researcher had to balance the interviewing between the two extremes of this flexibility-inflexibility continuum.

1.9   DELIMITATIONS

The study dealt with the human factor as major, but not the only factor in planning and execution of educational reforms at school level. This was informed by Kuleana (1999) and Murgatroyd and Morgan's (1993) argument that education reforms required bringing various resources together. Caldwell and Hayward's (1998) also argue that such garnering of resources; people, accountability, instructional materials and curriculum were the key considerations. Out of these, Grout and Perrin's (2002) single out humans (people) as the most important resources. In relation to this study, the sample human resources were drawn from primary and secondary schools. The analysis of the human resource strategy in this study involved the actors at primary and secondary school levels, notwithstanding the contributions and roles of other participants, resources and levels of education system. The Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) of 2001-2006 and Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP) of 2004-2009 were the reforms utilized in this analysis.

1.10   DEFINITION OF TERMS

Fraenkel and Wallen (2000:33) observe that often, there is a difficulty in ensuring that the massage communicated by the sender is perceived by the receiver in the intended meaning. In order to minimize ambiguities, they suggest the use of operational definitions specifying the actions or operations necessary to measure or identify the terms, which is a helpful way to clarify the meanings. As such, the terms ˗Human Factor˗and ˗Reforms˗in this study were defined operationally as follows:

1.10.1 HUMAN FACTOR

This was derived from the findings in the literature that an educational change is a process involving the interplay of different variables which could be summarized as

human variables on one hand and non-human variables on the other hand. At school level, the human variables constitute the human characteristics which include considerations about the effectiveness of school management, teacher knowledge and skills training, re-training and development. These lay emphasis on human continuous development, change management, communication, involvement, knowledge, skills, motivation, rewards and other aspects of general organization¢s social life usually expressed by their qualities, as opposed from non-human factors which are tangible, physical elements like classrooms, furniture and textbooks usually expressed by quantity and numbers. The conception borrows from Armstrong (2006) to conclude that the human factor refers to the soft elements of educational change process.

1.10.2 REFORMS

This is a process of effecting changes onto the system for its better performance and outputs. In relation to education and schools, the changes are normally effected on areas such as direct instructional resources like curriculum materials and technologies (teaching materials), teaching strategies or activities which facilitate the delivery of instructions (approaches), and pedagogical assumptions and theories which underlie the new policies or programmes (beliefs). The reform process is usually artificial because it seeks to abandon the traditional ways of doing things due to some pressures or internal contradictions. At school level, one of the reforms possible outcomes is the achievement of teachers teaching differently for students¢ learning differently in an improved way. This definition borrows from Fullan(1991) who sees this as occurring at two levels which are, one; *first-order changes* when only the efficiency and effectiveness of what is currently done is improved without disturbing basic features, and two; *second-order changes* when they involve fundamental ways in which organizations are constituted, including new goals, structures and roles. However, this partly rejects an interchangeable use of ±reforms¢with ±innovations¢which Senge (1990) distinguish by referring to the latter as new ideas which are invented and replicated reliably on a meaningful scale. Reforms in this matter refer to ensemble of innovations which

converge and complement one another for successful and efficient performances of a system, even if they do not emerge from same source, experiment or research work.

1.11 ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The study is organized in six chapters. The first chapter is an introduction which gives the background to the problem, the statement of the problem, the conceptual framework, and the purpose of the study, specific objectives, research tasks, and key research questions, significance of the study, limitations, delimitations, and definition of key terms.

In chapter two a review of related literature is given, with sections which address the concept of reform and the ways school level human factor is usually involved in this process. The review examines the reform process which began in the mid 1990s in Tanzania to identify the shortfalls in the involvement of school level human factor and their influences to the desired outcomes. It also examines the different theories which aid to portray the knowledge gap on which the study evolved. This is the gap which illuminated the research questions whose responses are presented and discussed later in chapters four and five.

Chapter three is about the methodology employed in the study. This is a case study design which attempts to portray, analyze and interpret the uniqueness of real situations through accessible accounts. The chapter also gives the population, sample and sampling techniques, data collection techniques, data analysis plan and the ethical dimensions for the study.

Chapter four is the presentation, analysis and discussion of the findings, based on the research tasks and questions about the classroom teachers and heads of schools. These were responses for the first task which was about the strategies employed for teachersø management and development towards effective realization of the goals and objectives

of reforms, and the second task which was on the strategies for training and recruitment of heads of schools to effectively manage reforms at school level.

Chapter five is the presentation, analysis and discussion of the findings for the research tasks about the school level human resources other than teachers. These were the responses from the members of school committees and boards gathered in task number three, and responses from superintendents in the district and regional offices responsible for facilitating reforms at school level under their jurisdictions, gathered in task number four.

Chapter six presents the summary of the study, conclusions and recommendations deriving from analysis and discussion in chapters four and five.

In the next chapter, various concepts and views about reforms and involvements of human resources are discussed in relation to the views of various selected authors. The picture this review paints is contrasted to the reform process in Tanzania to portray the knowledge gap which paved the way for conducting the study.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the literature relating to reforms and human resource management and development for effective participation. The concepts ‑Reformsø and ‑Educational Reformsø are defined and described by drawing examples from different perspectives across the globe and Tanzania in particular. Thereafter, it examines the reform process and significance of the human resources in such course of action. The review identifies teachers, heads of schools, the members of school committees and boards and superintendents at the district and regional levels as indispensable elements for reforms which must make students learn differently for improved outcomes. The gaps are presented in the last section suggesting the type of data and information which this study was required to seek.

2.2   THE CONCEPT 'REFORMS'

The concept ‑reformsø is looked upon differently by different authors depending on the contexts. However, most of them refer to changing of systems ‑for the betterø For example, Bana and Ngware (2006) view reforms as induced, systematic and permanent improvement in structures, processes and management of organizations, so as to attain efficiency and effectiveness in their delivery of services. According to them, reforms are resorted to when there are requirements for fundamental system changes. Fullan (1991) extends the discussion that such requirements for change can arise as a result of natural disasters like floods and famine, external pressures like imported technology, values or immigration, or internal contradictions, for example when changes leading to new social patterns and needs occur in indigenous technology. In such pressures, reforms are resorted to as means to an end (not ends in themselves). Reforms are on-going, dynamic, context-sensitive processes. In a way of responding to the causative pressures, context-sensitivity is considered a key aspect in the reform process, so that the questions

about value and capacity for implementation are carefully taken on board. A reform plan therefore focuses on who must benefits from the change (value), and how sound and feasible are the idea and approach for the change (capacity). Reforms therefore are not natural, but artificial inducements onto the social systems. He also sees change as occurring at two levels. The ='first-order changesø which seek to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of what is currently done without disturbing the basic features, and the ='second-order changesø which seek to alter the fundamental ways in which the organizations are constituted, including new goals, structures and roles.

At the level of organizations, Senge (1990) argues that changes are possible if an illusion that the world is created of separate, unrelated forces is destroyed. In its place, he argues for creation of learning organizations where people would continually expand their capacities to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspirations are set free and people continually learn how to learn together. In pursuit of such organizations and performances, he recommends a set of disciplines, each of which is thought of and conceived on three distinct levels of practices, principles and essences. He uses the term ='disciplinesø to refer to sets of components of innovations in human behaviour which in physical science counterparts would be referred to as technologies. At the level of practices these disciplines seek to understand the activities which practitioners do, and focus their time and energy. At the level of principles is the representation of the theory that lies behind the practices of the discipline, helping the practitioner to understand the rationale for practices of that given set. At the level of essences are the state of being that comes to be experienced naturally by individuals or groups with high levels of mastery in those sets, enabling them to fully grasp the meaning and purpose of each discipline.

The five disciplines which according to Senge (op.cit) are vital for creation of ='learning organizationsø include, one; ='Personal Masteryø which refers to ability to consistently realize the results which matter most, by continually clarifying and deepening own

vision, focusing the energies, developing the patience and seeing the reality objectively. The second discipline is about the ―Mental Modelsø which he defines as deeply ingrained assumptions, generalizations, pictures or images which influence the way we perceive the world and take action about it. He argues that working with mental models starts with turning the mirror inward, learn to unearth our internal pictures of the world, bring them to the surface and hold them to scrutiny. This would also involve conversations which enhance learning with people exposing their own thinking open to influence others. The third discipline is about ―Building Shared Visionø which refers to goals, values and missions that are deeply shared throughout the organization, thus unearthing the shared pictures of the future that foster genuine commitment and enrollment rather than compliance. ―Team Learningø is the fourth discipline in the set which requires the member capacity to suspend assumptions and enter into genuine ―thinking togetherø by recognizing the patterns of interaction in teams which would otherwise undermine learning. Lastly, is the ―Systemsø thinkingø which integrates the other disciplines, fusing them into a coherent body of theory and practice, with the assumption that the whole exceeds the sum of its parts. According to Senge, this enables the understanding of the subtlest aspect of the learning organization, at the heart of which there is a shift of mind, and where individuals must see themselves connected to the world rather separated from it. Individuals will as well perceive themselves as creators of the problems they experience rather than blaming someone or something ―out there.ø People will continually discover how they create their reality and as such reform processes will never ignore changing people involved in these processes.

Notwithstanding Sengeøs learning organizations and individual connectedness to them during the reform process, Armstrong (2006) identifies two main types of changes: strategic and operational. He defines strategic change as that which is concerned with organizational transformation, and which deals with broad, long-term and organization-wide issues, as contrasted from operational changes which are about new systems, procedures and structures or technology which will have immediate effect on working

arrangements within a part of the organization. He further argues that strategic change is about a future state generally defined in terms of strategic vision and scope. Strategic change covers the purpose and mission of organization. It also covers the corporate philosophy of the organization on such matters as growth, quality, and innovation and values concerning people, the customer needs served and technologies employed. However, he cautions that in either case, change must not be taken as simply a linear process of moving from one to another point, planned and executed as a logical sequence of events! There are a number of hurdles which must be anticipated, and which therefore must be analyzed and planned for to minimize resistance. In that effect, he lists some reasons which can make people resist change. These include threats to individual status or skill, in the sense that changes are sometimes perceived as likely to reduce the status of individuals or de-skill them. Competence fears are another reason, in cases of individuals being worried about their abilities to cope with new demands or acquisition of new skills. Other reasons may include the threat to interpersonal relationships, meaning that changes may disrupt the customary social relationships and group standards, and symbolic fears which refer to small changes that can affect the treasured individual symbols, for example separate offices, allowances etc. Whether the change is strategic or operational, these factors must be accorded due consideration from the planning stage, if such a change must register any effective and efficient involvement of the required individuals during implementation.

Like Armstrong (op.cit), Oyugi (2006) and Caiden (1969) also view reforms as entailing some resistance. They postulate that reforms need to be deliberately planned and implemented if they are to achieve desired changes. This agrees with Marrisøargument (in Fullan, 1991) that all real changes involve loss, anxiety and struggle. In this argument, losses, anxieties and struggles in the change process are recognized as natural and inevitable. It is held that such recognitions enable the reformers to deal with the tenacity of conservatism and ambivalence of transitional institutions. However, anticipation of losses, anxiety and struggle on the other hand may make individuals

resist changes (total conservativeness) or opt for minor changes. For example, Fullan says schools are more likely to implement superficial changes in content, objectives and structures, than changes in role behaviour and conceptions of teaching which involve more struggle and loss of some values. Similarly, Cuban (1998) notes that first-order changes in content are more likely than second-order changes in roles and culture. Marris concludes that such ‑conservative impulseø is compatible because it seeks to consolidate skills and attachments, provided it is securely possessed to warrant the assurance for mastering something new. Similarly, Fullan (1991) shows that reforms (real changes) are characterized by ambivalence and uncertainty which, if works out, can result in a sense of mastery, accomplishment and professional growth.

Fullan (op.cit) further argues that reforms represent personal and collective experiences of change. He introduces and distinguish subjective from objective views to elaborate the concept. Whereas the former refers to individual views about change, the latter refers to that which is defined as a result of interaction of individuals and groups, producing the social phenomena such as constitutions, laws, policies or programs. He cautions that subjective views about change may so often act as powerful protection or constraint against change, particularly in situations where changes are perceived to be too deep, striking or creating doubt to individuals. He summarizes that a reform process must realize, one; not all change proposals are authentic: some of them cannot be implemented due to various reasons. Two; subjective and objective dimensions should be carefully observed to understand the occurrences of changes. Three; the feasibility of desired changes must be analyzed in terms of coherence of the various elements (e.g. goals, means or beliefs) of the objective dimensions. Four; the existing realities of the major participants in relation to feasibility of the change must be understood in order to understand the sum total of subjective meanings and comprehensive picture of the change. Five; superficial or total rejection of change may occur if reforms are very deep, striking or creating doubts about purposes, sense of competence and self-concepts, all of which must not to be ignored. Six; a change is good or bad depending

on one¢s values which consequently influences his support and participation in the reform process. In a simplified view, he paints a picture of a reform process as constituted of four phases. These are the -initiationø phase which refers to initial determination of the direction of change, the -implementationøphase which refers to the attempted use of the change, the -continuationøphase which refers to an extension and sustenance of implementation beyond the trial stage, and outcome phase which refers to the different types of results.

In the context of education, Fullan (op.cit) looks at the objective reality of reforms as a multidimensional phenomenon. He outlines three components (or dimensions) involved in educational innovations, especially at classroom or teacher levels. These components are materials; meaning the direct instructional resources like curriculum materials and technologies, teaching approaches; meaning the teaching strategies or activities which facilitate the delivery of instructions, and beliefs; referring to pedagogical assumptions and theories that underlie the new policies or programmes. He argues that the change has to occur in practice along the three dimensions in order for it to have a chance of affecting the outcome. According to him, innovations that do not include changes on these dimensions are not significant changes at all. For example, the use of a new textbook requires some alterations of teaching strategies for either of the two to be effective. This is what Caldwell and Hayward (1998) analyze further to four dimensions that educational reforms revolve around changes in curriculum, people, accountability and resources. Alignment of Caldwell and Hayward¢s model to Fullan¢s would indicate that what Fullan referred to as teaching approaches and beliefs were split into curriculum, people and accountability in Caldwell and Hayward¢s model. Both models emphasized that change in actual practice along all dimensions was imperative for any intended reform outcome to be achieved. In relation to the reforms in this study, this argument holds that the process was requiring a multidimensional perspective involving changes in instructional materials, physical and human resources relative to the quality objectives which were set. The review of literature now turns to education reforms in

Tanzania to assess the way the reform concept was formed: the reasons for deciding to have changes in the educational practice, the level, focus and areas of change, the actors involved in this process and strategies employed in relation to the set goals.

2.3   OVERVIEW OF EDUCATION REFORMS IN TANZANIA

The Education Sector Reforms in Tanzania intended to overhaul the whole system. They aimed to ensure growing and equitable access to high quality formal education and adult literacy, through facilities expansion, efficiency gains and quality improvement, as well as efficient supply and use of resources (URT, 2007). If we could borrow Armstrong's (2006) expressions, it was designed to be an organizational transformation. It was a process of ensuring that the sector developed and implemented major change programmes that ensured strategic response to new demands, while effectively functioning in dynamic environment which it operated and served. In reference to Fullan's (1991) outline of the sources of change discussed above, it could be deduced that these reforms were results of internal contradictions between education contents and methods on one hand, and the needs and aspirations of society on the other hand. The Task Force which was formed to assess the critical problems in the system found out that it suffered from a number of contradictions including the curriculum which was failing to meet the needs of school leavers and general society. Teachers were demoralized, poorly remunerated, under-qualified and sometimes untrained, and the management systems, structures and integration process among education and training providers were not clearly defined (URT, 1993). From these findings and ensuing recommendations, the new education policy was formed, and the reforms of the education sector began in 1997 to ensure growing and equitable access to high quality formal education and adult literacy, through facilities expansion, efficiency gains and quality improvement, as well as efficient supply and use of resources (URT, 2002).

The reforms began by the development of Basic Education Master Plan (BEMP). This was piloted in 37 districts considered less developed in the country (URT, 2007). PEDP

was launched later in 2001 (Rajan, 2007) with a specific focus to address the shortfalls in access, funding and quality of primary education. Some of its earliest steps were abolition of user fees and introduction of capitation and development grants. The plan also aimed to recruit 50% more teachers and building of more than 40,000 new classrooms. At the secondary education sub-sector, SEDP was launched in July 2004 with almost the same objectives which PEDP had to the primary education sub-sector. Both programmes were generally geared to improving performance in access and equity; particularly in the improvement of enrolment to both girls and boys, improving quality; particularly in the areas of teaching and learning resources, classrooms and furniture, capacity building of the school governance and management, institutional arrangements and cross-cutting issues. The private sector and Civil Society Organizations (CSOs) were also invited to participate in these reforms.

Some of the key achievements by the launching of the second phase of PEDP (2007-2011) were improvements in enrolment and pass rates in examinations (URT, 2006). Both the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) improved between 2001 and 2006, from 84% to 112.7% and 65.5 to 96.1% respectively. The Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) pass rate increased from 28.6% to 61.8%. Transition to secondary school rate increased from 22.4% to 49.3%. The number of primary schools increased from 11,873 to 14,700. A total of 50,813 teachers were up-graded professionally to attain the required minimum grade IIIA qualifications. The Book-Pupil Ratio (BPR) improved from 1:20 to 1:3.

In Fullan's (1991) categorization of the first-order versus second-order changes, it could be deduced that the system had registered significant improvements only on the former level. The changes attempted to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of what was currently done without disturbing any basic features of the system. The changes did not alter fundamental ways in which the sector was constituted, nor were the goals, structures or roles. Although the ultimate reform goal in terms of MDGs was poverty

alleviation UNDP (2008) reports that progress in its reduction was very slow compared to the efforts invested in improving the macro economy. The House Hold Budget Survey of 2000/01 reveals that there was a small fall in income poverty (basic needs) from 38.6% of 1991/92 to 35.7% which was a 7.5% change. The GDP grew from 1.6% in 1992 to 4.9% in 2000 which although was a 206% change, was not significant in real terms. The figures further revealed the persistence of urban-rural dichotomy because progress in poverty reduction was relatively faster in urban compared to rural areas. For example, between 1991/92 and 2000/01, while food poverty declined by 6.1 percent or 44.9 percent change in Dar es Salaam, in rural areas it declined by only 2.7% or 11.7 percent change. By this trend, the MDGsø Goal 1 targets to halve the proportion of people whose income was less than one dollar a day were not likely to be achieved. Achievement of full, productive employment and decent work for all including women and young people by 2015(UN, 2009) was also not likely. ETP objectives to facilitate the growth of culture-for-job-creation, self-employment and merge of theory and practice (URT, 1995) were also not likely to be achieved. PEDP and SEDP targets to attain gender and location equity in the provision of education at primary and secondary school sub-sectors were also likely to fail; implying shortfalls in the ways education and economy were serving one another.

Furthermore, the critical components (or dimensions) involved in educational innovations as identified by Fullan (op.cit) were not sufficiently discussed in the presented achievements. He identified the curriculum-related components as including materials; in the sense of changes which occur on direct instructional resources like curriculum materials and technologies. Teaching approaches were referring to changes which occur on teaching strategies and activities which facilitate the delivery of instructions. Beliefs were about changes which involve pedagogical assumptions and theories that underlie the new policies or programmes. The achievements reflected in the statistics presented, did not supply sufficient evidences for significant changes in pedagogical assumptions and theories, the teaching strategies or studentsø learning

activities. As such, they did not show there were changes for improved quality as one of objectives of the reforms, but only some evidences for expanded access. Efficiency of use and supply of resources as well was not confirmed by the data. The UNDP (2008) argues that Tanzania could achieve the MDGs by 2015, if concerted efforts were directed towards, *inter-aria*, strengthening institutional, structural, policy and infrastructural capacity, improving efficiency in resource mobilization, and strengthening the Poverty Reduction Strategy focus on MDGs as a strategic tool for meeting the 2015 target. However, the issues of meeting institutional and more importantly human requirements for the achievement of desired targets were not addressed.

In his distinction between subjective and objective views of reality about change, Fullan (op.cit) cautions that the former view may so often act as a powerful protection or constraint, if the changes are perceived to be too deep, striking or creating doubt to individuals. He advocates for initiation and implementation of change by considering both subjective and objective dimensions of the occurrences of changes. Such a consideration enables the reformers to register the existing realities of the major participants in relation to feasibility of the change, which must be understood in order to understand the sum total of subjective meanings and comprehensive picture of that change. In turn, such examination of views was somewhat posing some questions as to the extent the reform process in this case had sufficiently registered subjective and objective views of reformers. Official records only showed the top-down injection of ideas where a team of consultants (the Task Force) was hired by the government to study the system and suggest solutions, without evidence for incorporation of grass-root and other practitioners and actors (URT, 1993 & 1995). In Armstrong's (2006) conception of organizational transformation, mapping out the process is essential so as to decide on new processes, systems, procedures, structures, products and markets, with provisions for involving people and communicating to them what is happening, why it is happening and how it will affect them. By so doing, Fullan's (1991) both subjective

and objective views of change would be registered for consideration at different phases of the process, thus promoting participation, involvement and contributions from all actors and stakeholders.

The existing literature also showed some variations between the government and different stakeholdersøperspectives of education quality, which testify there could also be various approaches for education quality reforms. For example, whereas in the view of the government of Tanzania education quality would improve by just increasing the number of resources and supplies into the system (URT 1995, 1997, 2002, 2004, 2005, 2007a&b), Lwaitama (2004) conceives it from utility and indigenization of its curriculum which should be decentralized. These could further be contrasted from another perspective in the US where quality is assessed by looking at the ratio of college educated adults entering the workforce to general population, the rate of participation of the labour force in continuing education, and the proportion of adults qualifying as scientifically literate (Wikipedia Encyclopedia, 2008). In relation to the idea included in Armstrongøs (2006) conception is that in such varied perspectives, there is likelihood that they can enrich one another to form an improved one if the reform process involves actors and stakeholders to discuss what type of change, why that one, and how it is likely to affect each of them (subjective views) as well as the ways it would affect their society (objective views).

In the section below, the review turns to the reform process to see what the literature instructs it should constitute, as well as the conditions which prevailed in the process of the studied reforms. The literature on initiation and implementation as the earliest of the phases in the process is presented and discussed in relation to objectives of these reforms, to enlighten the discussion about the extent at which the hard and soft change variables were given or denied prominence.

2.4 THE REFORM PROCESS

In this section of the review, five important elements of the reform process are discussed.

It begins by discussing the aspects of relevance of reforms, the readiness of the different actors involved in reform process and various resources required to carry out the process. This followed by a discussion on strategies for leverages and elements of change before a strategy for the human resource in reforms is explored.

2.4.1 RELEVANCE, READINESS AND RESOURCES

Mobilization and planning for change (initiation) as a phase in the reform process demands a careful consideration of necessary conditions. It is about deciding to adopt or abandon a change. For efficient startup, Fullan (op.cit) suggests the combination of relevance, readiness and resources. He refers to relevance as interaction of need, clarity and the practitionerøs understanding of the innovation, as well as utility judged from what it is likely to offer, for example to teachers and students. According to him, this calls for as many potential reform participants as possible, to participate in assessing the feasibility of decision to adopt a change in order to register their subjective dimensions. The needs which the reforms of this study were attempting to address were clearly spelt out in the 1995 education and training policy document (URT, 1995). This document reveals that improved quality of education was one of the requirements which pressurized for these changes, so that self-employment and culture-for-job-creation outcomes were brought about *inter-aria*. The document also shows that the outcomes demanded a review of the curricula, improvements in the management of teachers, and introduction of the use of appropriate performance and assessment strategies. It further reveals that these were curriculum issues and suggested addressing them, among other things, by inclusion of vocational skills and training in the school curricula, as well as changes in learning materials, teaching approaches and beliefs about education

provision. However, the official documents related to formulation of these objectives and ensuing reviews show none of the forums and mechanisms for communicating the same to involved practitioners at school level for their clear understanding of the agenda (URT 1993, 1995, 1997, 2002, 2004, 2005, 2007). As such, the relevance of these reforms in the practitionersø perspective at the initiation of the process could not be immediately established.

Readiness in this context refers to the schoolø practical and conceptual capacity to initiate, develop, or adopt a given innovation (Fullan, 1991). It is the schoolø capacity to use reforms, in terms of requisite individual and organizational factors. On the part of individuals, readiness seeks to understand if the change addresses their perceived needs, if it is a reasonable change, if individuals have the requisite knowledge to administer it, if they have time and the like. The literature about the situation of teaching at the advent of reforms for example, reveals that it was dominated by lecture method at all levels, due to inadequate training of teachers (URT, 1993). Curriculum changes for merge of theory and practice, culture-for-job-creation and self-employment learning outcomes were practice-oriented which were not favored by transmittal lecture methods (URT 1993 & 1995, Caldwell & Hayward 1998). The readiness of individual teachers and other practitioners participating in reforms would therefore require providing them with adequate knowledge, skills and competences for implementing and managing the change. On the part of the organization, readiness refers to assessing if the change is compatible with organizational culture, if the facilities, equipment, materials and supplies are available, and if there are other crises or change efforts in progress in which the organization is involved. Fullan (op.cit) argues that the more the answers to these questions are negative, the more reasons for taking another look at readiness of that organization as a condition for initiating related changes. PEDP and SEDP documents (URT, 2001 & 2004) reveal that the programmes introduced capitation and development grants, partly for addressing the problems of inadequate and dilapidated facilities, equipment, materials and supplies in schools. Although this provides some evidences

that the readiness of schools as organizations was considered before they embarked on reforms, the programme reviews coming at later stages still showed the failure to achieve the intended objectives to the full (URT, 2002 & 2004). As it is later shown by Senge (1990) in situations where it is argued that such related considerations are made, the process in which the leverages and system archetypes are determined must also be thoroughly examined to identify the causes of shortcomings.

He presents resources as a necessary initiation condition, in a view that they are accumulations and provision of support to the change process. These are usually required during implementation but they must be considered and provided for during initiation as well (Fullan, op.cit). In its appraisal of the Tanzania education system in the early 1990s (URT, 1993), the task force underlined resources as a necessary aspect for planning of educational change. According to them, planning for resources involves determining the demand for education as viewed in terms of enrolment numbers vis-a-vis corresponding requisite teaching materials, teachers, buildings and finance. In their appraisal, they realized that there was a contradiction between the provision of all types of school resources and the growing number of students which these resources served. Whereas there was a consistent decrease in education budget depriving schools of books, teaching resources and equipment, the population was growing between 2.7% and 3% implying increased demand for these resources. There was also a scarcity of qualified teachers which among other things emanated from limited resources allocated for teacher training and retraining. Dilapidated buildings, high class sizes and heavy workloads to teachers were some of the causes for un-conducive school environments. In their view, increased enrolments had to take into consideration the demand for qualified and motivated personnel. Similarly, the US National Academy of Sciences (NAS) design of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) reforms of 2006, observed the significance of qualified school teachers and principals, that since 2004 the US Federal Government had to help more than 200,000 teachers learn effective strategies for raising students achievement through free online digital workshops, e-Learning websites, and

teacher-to-teacher workshops held in cities across the country (NAS, 2007).

2.4.2   STRATEGIZING FOR LEVERAGES AND ELEMENTS OF CHANGE

It could therefore be concluded that the necessary initiation considerations as per Fullanøs (1991) analysis were given due importance by the Task Force during the conception of educational changes in Tanzania. However, according to Armstrong (2006) adequate resources must operate in well thought strategy for giving out desired results. He laments that most reforms tend to place greater emphases on hard elements of change instead of striking balances between hard and soft ones. In this perspective, the hard elements entail the physical and tangible requirements for mounting the change, while the soft ones entail those which stress on continuous development, change management, communication, involvement, knowledge, skills, motivation, rewards and other aspects of general organizationøs social life. He further argues that an organization needs to have a strategy for change in order for the two sets of elements to be adequately balanced. He defines a strategy for change as the direction and scope of the organization which matches its resources to its changing environment. To him, this is useful for determination of direction in which the organization is going relative to its environment, therefore sorting out the required resources in both categories of elements for change. The strategy is necessary for determination and sorting out of what Senge (1990) refers to as ÷leveragesø or ÷lever pointsø These are variables in the change process which may produce disproportionate effects in other variables systematically connected to them.

Senge (op.cit) associates the identification of leverages and the understanding of several archetypes ideal for creation of learning organizations. For example, in ÷growth and underinvestmentø archetype, he underscores the role of adequate investment for achievement of key organizational goals. In this model, underinvestment refers to building less capacity than is really needed to serve consumer demand. Investment on

the other hand therefore, is about adding or improving physical capacity, training personnel, improving work processes or organizational structures geared towards consumer quality satisfaction. In this context, quality refers to all things that matter to a customer e.g. product quality, service quality and delivery reliability, ensemble of which explains the growth of organization. He postulates that growth approaches a limit which can be eliminated or pushed into the future if there is investment in additional capacity. This investment must be aggressive and sufficiently rapid to forestall reduced growth. He argues that in many cases key goals or performance standards are lowered to justify underinvestment. Eventually this culminates to a vicious circle of lower goals, lower expectations and poor performances caused by underinvestment. The archetype therefore advocates for identification of a variable and strategy which balances growth and investment in the organization.

Specifically, a strategy defines the intentions and allocates or matches the resources to opportunities and needs. The U.S. Office of Personnel Management- USOPM (1999) elaborates such matching as alignments which integrate decisions about critical resources and the results an innovation tries to obtain. They postulate that such matching is usually expressed in strategic goals, developed and implemented in strategic plans, through strategic management. It is about the implementation of change, which includes its planning and management. The analyses of both Armstrong and USOPM suggest that the efficiency of strategic goals, plans and management depend on the capacities of involved human resources who are vital contributors to the organizational mission accomplishments. In Senge's (op.cit) view, they are the most important leverages. This is because human resources are the ones from whom both hard and soft elements of change originate and intend to serve. As such the required alignments should integrate decisions about human resources with decisions about the cherished results throughout the planning and implementation of change (USOPM 1999, Grout and Perrin 2002, Armstrong 2006).

2.4.3 HUMAN RESOURCE (HR) STRATEGY IN REFORMS

This refers to mechanisms which integrate decisions about human resources to the overall mission and goals of an organization (USOPM, 1999). Such mechanisms identify and define practical, meaningful measures for human resources participation in accomplishment of organizational mission. The HR strategy for the reforms in this study is traced from the 1990 Task Force report on appropriate Education System for the 21st century Tanzania (URT, 1993). In their situational analysis of the system, the members realized that knowledge and skills acquisition suffered from number of contradictions. The critical areas of contradictions highlighted include the resources which did not match with demand, the curriculum process and implementation which did not adequately meet society's aspirations and the system and structure which relied on inefficient and ineffective planning and management. Their analysis further aligned the measures required in relation to education human resources in order to arrest the problems, and the goals which the changes had to cherish. For example in relation to educational resources, it was observed that there was a need to strengthen the training of teachers (as human resources) and improve the actual teaching skills, extend the knowledge of appropriate classroom methodologies, and in turn address the problem of school leavers; 85% of whom were failing to proceed with formal training or managing to undertake successful self-employment in the informal sector. In relation to curriculum process and implementation, it was observed that there was a need to give some prominence to the development and acquisition of innovative teaching methods which would enable students to link learnt knowledge with immediate environments. Regarding the process of planning and management of education, they recommended clear definition of educational managers' roles and empowerment at regional and district levels to effectively perform their tasks in education administration.

This HR strategy is echoed in the 1995 Education and Training Policy (ETP) which was formulated on the basis of the afore mentioned task force recommendations (URT, 1995). However, the ETP addresses the highlighted critical problems with emphases on

hard variables of change at the expense of balance between the two. On the aspect of resources for example, the policy simply urges the government to ensure adequate provision of resources for enhancing access and equity in education by merely increasing the quantities of the human resources (teachers). Issues of HR continuous development, involvement, knowledge, skills, motivation, rewards and other such aspects as related to equity and expanded access are not clearly addressed by the policy. The policy urges the formal school curriculum to focus on teaching of languages, science and technology, humanities and life skills, but without emphases on how involved practitioners were to be professionally equipped with knowledge and skills toward this goal. It also urges for inclusion of mental, personal health, job creation, social and family life skills in the curriculum, manifested by subjects such as carpentry, crop and livestock husbandry, pottery making, smithing, masonry, painting, home economics and technical skills, without clear evidence for ways to make teachers handle the new inclusions. The policy document echoes the intent of elevating the posts of the REOs and DEOs for efficiency and effectiveness in their planning and management roles as recommended by the task force, but this elevation is not qualified by requisite capacities in terms of knowledge, skills and competences which these officers currently lacked. From this literature therefore, one could deduce that the alignment of decisions about the human resources and the results which the reforms attempted to obtain was unclear since early at the policy formulation stage, which could also bring about the likelihood of faulty strategic plans, implementation and management of reforms.

2.5 THE HUMAN ASPECT IN EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

In his work about what leadership have for schools, Sergiovanni (2001) notes that countries tend to approach educational changes through a controlling, rational and technical framework which concentrate on content and delivery at the expense of human resource perspective. He therefore recommends a perspective which is attentive to complexities of how human beings work and interact to support or subvert a change. Fullan (1991) reveals that an educational change is a process which involves a number

of stages and interplay of different variables. These variables are grouped and analyzed differently by different authors, although they all underline the humans as occupying a special place. Caldwell and Hayward (1998) for example see the process as constituting of the people, resources, accountability, and curriculum dimensions. Kuleana (1999) draws from the educational changes in Tanzania to conclude that the process is constituted of human and non-human variables. According to them, the non-human category include variables like classrooms, furniture and textbooks, while the human category is about such variables as the effectiveness of school management, teacher knowledge and skills training, re-training and development, motivation and remuneration. In the Tanzanian context, the Task Force (URT, 1993) revealed that the shortcomings in the provision and interplay of both of these reform variables were some of the handicaps which impeded the performance of the system. For example, it was argued that the teachersø morale was adversely impeded by low investments in schools, large class sizes, the fall in status of the profession, decline in training and professional development, lack of sound review of salaries, school inspection system which was not based on support and advice, and reform programmes which were not adequately addressing the backlogs of building repairs and maintenance. As Armstrong (2006) advised earlier, a sound strategy for change requires a balance of emphases between the tangible, physical elements (non-human/hard), and those which stress on continuous development, change management, communication, involvement, knowledge, skills, motivation, rewards and other aspects of general organizationø social life(human/soft). However, the importance of the human (soft) over non-human (hard) variables in the change process is brought to surface by USOPM (1999) who describe humans as the organizationsø most important assets, because it is them who manipulate the other resources to bring about changes. As such, they advocate for retaining the right people, in the right jobs, with the right skills and training. Senge (1990) also indirectly elevates human over other variables in his advocacy for ±learning organizationsø when he argues that the organizations which will truly excel will be those which discover how to tap peopleø commitment and capacity to learn at all levels.

Fullan (1991) provides a notion that it was the interplay of the human variables which influenced the achievement of change depending on three critical dimensions; the teaching materials, the teaching approaches and the beliefs. According to him, the effectiveness of change depended, firstly, on the way the human variables interacted to decide on the possible use of new or revised materials. In this argument, materials referred to direct instructional resources such as curriculum content, curriculum materials and instructional technologies. In relation to studied reforms, the educational stakeholders observed that PEDP pace of enrolment for example, was supposed to correlate with construction of classrooms, recruitment of teachers and availability of teaching and learning materials although the actual situation on the ground was providing little or no evidence for this correlation (URT, 2002:7-11). They recommended increased transparency and democratic decision making to enhance participation of school level human resources in the change process and provision of materials, who they argued were to participate while ‑informed‑

Secondly; the interaction of human variables influences the decisions about the possible use of new or revised teaching approaches in relation to the direction of change. For example, both the Task Force (URT,1993) and ETP (URT,1995) observed that aiming for self-employment and culture-for-job-creation outcomes required the inputs of vocational knowledge and skills in the curricula, which in turn were requiring some changes in the teaching approaches. The changes would require the teaching-learning environment where student active participation, reflection and purposefulness were encouraged, unlike the dominant practice where lecture was the central teaching method, inhibiting the promotion of inquiring mind (URT, 1993:27). Therefore, these reforms were to show evidences that concerns for active student learning techniques were properly addressed. In Rajani‑s (2007) view, the effectiveness of changes in teaching methodology which had dominated for that long would depend on the extent decisions about teacher knowledge and skills training, retraining and development were

made an integral part of the change process. In this regard, Caldwell and Hayward (1998) conclusively advocate for improved teacher training and retraining as one of the crucial issues for consideration in education reforms, for dealing with contemporary demands of curriculum. The Tanzania educational stakeholders (URT, 2002:9) concur with the view and urge the government to improve the actual teaching and learning processes for the reforms quality objectives to be achieved, particularly by development of relevant in-service programmes.

Thirdly, the interaction of human variables influences the decisions about the possible alteration of beliefs about education and training, such as the pedagogical assumptions, theories underlying the changes, and core values of education and training. The 1990 Task Force report (URT, 1993) testifies this in its observations that Tanzania society had to have another look on its beliefs about teaching and learning for self-employment and culture-for-job-creation. They advocated for inclusion of vocational education and training at primary and secondary education levels for enhancing the learnersøend use value. At the level of teacher training, the prominence of innovative teaching methods is advocated in order to promote professional excellence as well. Adult learning is urged to expose the learners to the existing local and external technologies which would enhance their personal advancements (URT, 1993:25).

According to Fullan (1991:37-42) all the three aspects, that is materials, approaches and beliefs, are crucial for the educational change to be meaningful at all. It is their togetherness which represents the means of achieving a particular educational goal or set of goals. He cautions that they all require careful considerations of the human variables in a given reform process.

The Basic Education Statistics 1995-2005 (URT, 2005) report the number of teachers recruited during reforms. However, there are no data for the ways the new recruits were inducted, managed and developed to cope and carry out the changes (Mulengeki 2005,

Rajan 2007, and Sumra 2007). The statistics also ignore reporting on several other school level actors, like committees and boards. However, as earlier pointed out, there are sufficient evidences in the literature that the human resources are the prime movers of reforms, carrying out all other activities as well as acting upon other resources for successful accomplishment of organizational objectives and missions (Bana 2007, USOPM 1999). As such, successful reform processes need to plan for adequate management and development of human resources involved in its carrying out, so that they can actively participate for desired results. In his analysis of educational system changes at local level, Fullan (1991) lists the actors and institutions involved, and highlights on the roles and considerations related to each. These could include such elements of school level human resources as the teachers, heads of schools, members of committees and boards, and the regional and district staff. We now look at the role and place of each actor in turn, in the context of the studied reforms.

2.6   TEACHERS AND TEACHING

Caldwell and Hayward (1998) cite the reform programs in the Education systems of United Kingdom and Australia to conclude that the role of teachers is central to the success of any educational reform. They argue that reforms which involve the establishment of curriculum and standard frameworks will make no difference if teachers do not teach differently or if students do not learn differently with improved outcomes. In order to be effective on that central position, they identify a number of concerns about teachers which a reform process must observe and these include the issues of morale, attractiveness of teaching as a career, levels of entry requirements to teacher training, the need for improved training and the decaying fabric of schools, all of which affect the participation of teachers to facilitate effective teaching and learning. This was also observed by the Task Force in Tanzania that the effectiveness of teachers was undermined by poor remunerations, poor training and inadequate teaching qualifications (URT, 1993:6). It also revealed that the teaching profession was one of last professional choices; it did not attract highest achievers. The system of teacher

training was lacking the component of training of trainers to take up up-grading of teaching resources, demonstration facilities and staff development. Little of up-grading courses which were given were crammed and taught in half the recommended time. Teaching aids were no longer a necessity in views of most teachers due to falling levels of education budget. Low budget did not only cut down supplies of teaching materials but also impeded the effectiveness of methodology courses offered in colleges, by making them unrelated to actual classroom practices (URT, 1993:13). The two observations from Tanzania on one hand, and United Kingdom and Australia on the other hand suggest a shift and inclusion of human resource management and development components in education reforms to enable teachers teach differently for students to learn differently. To that end, Sergiovanni (1994) recommends a process which treats teachers as active participants and part of the solution to whatever problem that the change is for.

2.6.1 HUMAN RESOURCE PLANNING (HRP) FOR THE TEACHING CADRE

Caldwell and Hayward (1998:144) recommend the establishment of frameworks and standards, provision of infrastructure and other resources, as well as supporting schools and monitoring the outcomes as some of the measures for establishment of lasting school reforms. This in turn suggests the use of strategic planning in conducting school reforms. To Armstrong (2006:363-366), strategic planning process needs to define projected changes in the scale and types of activities carried out by organization. He argues that such planning should identify the core competences the organization needed for achieving its goals, hence its skill requirements. The human resource needs therefore required addressing in both quantity and quality. However, the consultants who studied and advised on education in Tanzania reported the existence of weaknesses in educational planning which emanated from low number of trained educational planners (URT, 1993:119). They showed that education planning focused on quantity rather than quality aspects of human resources needs. Their report for example, recommended the

policy measures for re-deployment of teachers from over-staffed urban schools in favor of under-staffed rural schools, on bases of teacher-student ratios. The report also suggested the government to commit some resources obtained from external support for human resource development and facilities. However, this did not elaborate types of skills which they considered were more demanding. A look in PEDP and SEDP documents (URT, 2001 & 2004) also showed quantitative projections for training of teachers, school committees and boards which did not explicitly show skills and competences to be offered.

Armstrong (op.cit) quotes Quinn Mills (1983) looking at human resource planning as a process which combines three activities. These are identification and acquisition of the right number of people with proper skills, motivating them to achieve high performance, and creating interactive links between corporate objectives and people-planning objectives. Here, there is made a distinction between ‑hard‑ and ‑soft‑ human resource planning through quantitative and qualitative analyses of the requirements. Whereas the former ensures the right number of the right sort of people is availed to the organization, the latter is made to ensure the availability of people with right type of attitudes, behaviour and motivation, as well as commitment to the organization and engagement in its work. He summarizes the human resource planning process by presenting a seven stage model which he argues is not necessarily linear, in the sense that it can start at any stage depending on the context. The stages include business strategic plans which seek to define future activity levels and initiatives demanding new skills. Secondly is the resourcing strategy which is about development of intellectual capital, i.e. employing people with specific knowledge and skills. Thirdly is the scenario planning stage for assessing the direction the organization goes in the environment and its implications for human resource requirements. Fourth is a stage of demand/supply forecast which refers to estimating the demand of human resources in terms of both numbers and skills, as well as how many of these can be obtained from within and how many should come from outside the organization. Fifth is the labour turnover analysis

stage which examines the number of people that leave the organization. This informs the forecast of demand and supply. Sixth is the work environment analysis stage which examines the environment in which people work, in terms of the scope it provides for them to use and develop their skills to achieve job satisfactions. Last is the operational effectiveness analysis which examines productivity, utilization of people and the scope for increasing flexibility to respond to new and changing demands. In the context of studied reforms the model suggests planning for teachers and teaching on bases of cherished outcomes, skills and competences required for obtaining such outcomes as well as other factors beneficial to teaching and learning environment.

2.6.2   RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION OF TEACHERS

According to Armstrong (2006) high quality employees for satisfying the human resource needs of an organization, are obtained through adequate recruitment and selection processes. He looks at recruitment and selection as involving three stages of defining the requirements, attracting and selecting the candidates. This further suggests that since there were intentions to introduce new subjects, and therefore new teaching posts in the system (URT, 1995), the reform process would define the new requirements, clarify descriptions and specifications of roles, and revise the terms and conditions of service for agreement with revised requirements, e.g. teaching by specializations at all levels. In a reform process where transmittal approach had dominated for that long and participatory approaches and merge of theory and practice sought as alternatives in delivery of instructions (URT, 1993 & 1995), the role of the teacher required a different description to enable his jurisdiction transcend beyond the normal classroom. According to Katz and Kahnøs (1966) Role Theory, reform processes would then need to enable teachers observe that the roles they occupied existed in relation with others in the larger environment which they served, and from which they got services for effective teaching.

Attraction of candidates as a phase in recruitment and selection involves a review and

evaluation of alternative sources of applicants (Armstrong, op.cit). This is a matter of identifying, evaluating and using the most appropriate sources of applicants. In the light of observations by the Task Force that teaching did not attract highest achievers in Tanzania (URT, 1993:13), Armstrong's (op.cit) idea that reform processes require to carry out preliminary studies of the factors that were likely to repel or attract candidates from joining the organizations (or the profession) is instructive. According to him, this would inform on strengths and weaknesses of the organizations as an employer. He further posits that such analysis of strengths and weaknesses would cover such matters as the national or local reputation of the organization (the school system), pay, employee benefits and working conditions, the intrinsic interest of the job, security of employment, opportunities for education and training, career prospects and location of the office (schools). The analysis would then enable some comparisons with other professions to suggest the necessary adjustments in terms of its image to applicants and general society, for attraction and retention of competent candidates.

Recruitment and selection process finishes by selection phase which refers to sifting applications, interviewing, testing and assessing candidates, as well as offering employment and preparing the contracts of employments. According to Armstrong (op.cit) this is a phase that would ensure competent, motivated and 'fit-into-the-organization' individuals were recruited and retained in the profession and schools. Fullan (op.cit) concludes that teacher selection (and learning) is a critical feature of effective schools.

2.6.3   TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS

Teachers' improved training is another human resource management and development issue identified by the system reformers of Tanzania and Victoria-Australia (URT 1993, Caldwell and Hayward 1998). In the view of teachers in Victoria, teaching would be improved if teacher training was also improved. For teacher training to improve, there were a number of issues to be addressed. These include the levels of entry qualifications

to the training programmes, and a lag which existed in teacher training and development in the adoption of relevant skills (Caldwell and Hayward, 1998:122). This is similar to what the Task Force (URT, 1993) describes in relation to Tanzania, that teacher training was confronted by inadequate resources and time, as well as knowledge, skills and competences which were insufficiently provided.

Reynolds (2004) is quoted by Armstrong (op.cit) arguing that training has a complementary role to play in learning especially when different skills are required quickly to meet new demands, like it was the case in the studied reforms. Formal training is underlined as necessary if the tasks to be carried out are so specialized that employees are unlikely to master them on their own at a reasonable speed. He argues that it is effective if it follows a systematic approach with an emphasis on skills analysis. The purpose of training should also be clearly defined in terms of ±criterionø and ±terminaløbehaviours. According to him, criterion behaviour is what is required as a result of training, and terminal behaviour is what is expected. He argues that a clear definition of the two types of behaviour is important due to the aid it provides as a basis for evaluation of employee training. In terms of the content of training, he argues that it should be related to the work contexts of the participants, which in turn require thorough needs assessment. In the light of studied reform objectives according to Rajan (2007), training and retraining of teachers could also entail shifts in teaching approaches so that participants get rid of transmittal methods which had dominated their career, and new subjects which the reforms were introducing.

Kearns and Miller (1977) argue that the business objectives should form the basis of training and development in any organization. According to them, any proposed learning and training interventions should specify how they would contribute to the achievement of strategic goals of an organization. Armstrong (op.cit) urges for observation of strategic goals of an organization to enable the identification of its learning needs, the groups and individuals within it. He challenges a definition of

learning needs from ±deficiencyø model of training which looks at them as ±the differences between what people know and can do and what they should know and be able to do.øAccording to him, this way of looking at needs is limited because it only puts things right which have gone wrong. He therefore urges for a more positive perspective which identifies and satisfies the development needs by fitting people for taking up extra responsibilities, increasing all-round competences, equipping them to deal with new work demands, multi-skills and preparing them to take on higher levels of responsibilities in the future. In the light of the shift of emphasis presented in ETP document (URT, 1995: xii-xiii) the learning and training needs for teachers would therefore be analyzed to accommodate all changes and inclusions suggested in both the curricula and methodologies. Fullan (op.cit) advocates for teacher training and development by describing the behaviour of superintendents in successful reforming organizations that they seek out and satisfy teachersøprofessional needs.

2.6.4   MANAGEMENT OF TEACHERS' REWARDS

It was argued that the apparent shortage of primary school teachers in Tanzania was caused by unwillingness of some of them to accept assignments in remote rural areas where the teaching loads were heavier than those in urban counterparts, and un-proportional to remunerations (URT, 1993:14). For example, teachers were not paid any special hardship allowances for working in such remote and difficult areas. Quite a number of teachers worked beyond their prescribed hours without extra payments. Salaries were so low especially at lower levels of the system, that they did not attract academically qualified people to join the profession.

Similar observations are advanced in Caldwell and Haywardøs (1998) work in Victoria Australia, which advocate for tying teachersøremunerations to performance and annual reviews (performance appraisal) among other things. This was following observations that teachers were underpaid and so they required pay increase which at the same time would help them achieve improvements in the quality of teaching. The teachersø

professional recognition programmes were therefore launched to provide for the annual reviews by respective principals on bases of previously agreed objectives. This was a sort of self-assessment by the teacher, with the principal auditing the process. This allowed for highly skilled teachers to receive substantial recognition for their skills and contributions to students learning but at the same time remaining in class-rooms; by making their salaries at the top levels (of performances) to overlap those of their principals and others in the management positions.

Armstrong (op.cit) defines reward management as formulation and implementation of strategies and policies which compensate people fairly, equitably and consistently in accordance with their value to the organization, and thus help the organization to achieve its strategic goals. According to him, such management deals with the design, implementation and maintenance of reward systems, i.e. processes, practices and procedures that aim to meet the needs of both the organization and its stakeholders. As such, its philosophy is based on a set of beliefs and guiding principles that are consistent with the values of organization and which help to enact them. These include beliefs in need to achieve fairness, equity, consistency and transparency in operating the reward system. It also recognizes that HRM is about investing in human capital from which a reasonable return is required, therefore rewarding people fairly but differently depending on contributions. He further postulates that a reward management system consists of four elements. These are policies that provide guidelines on approaches to managing rewards, *practices* that provide financial and non-financial rewards, processes that evaluate the relative sizes of jobs (job evaluation) as well as assessing individual performances (performance management), and procedures that maintain the system, ensure it operates efficiently and flexibly at the same time providing the value for money.

Rewards are accorded a variety of expressions depending on what the packages constitute and intend to satisfy. According to Armstrong (op.cit) these could be total

reward, total remuneration, basic or contingent payments, employment benefits or non-financial rewards. He defines a total reward as that which combines financial and non-financial rewards available to employees. Total remuneration on the other hand refers to the value of cash payments and benefits received by employees. He contrasts the two from a basic pay which he defines as referring to the amount of annual, monthly, weekly or even hourly pay, i.e. a fixed salary or wage that constitutes the rate of the job. To him, a basic pay is influenced by internal relativities which are measured by some form of job evaluation, and external relativities which are assessed by tracking the market rates. Job evaluation in this matter is looked upon as a systematic process for defining the relative worth or size of jobs by analyzing involved roles, eventually leading to production of job descriptions or role profiles. It is done as a basis for designing an equitable grade structure, grading jobs in the structure and managing relativities. Market rates analysis on the other hand is about identification of pay rates in the labour market for comparable jobs which informs the decisions on levels of pay across different jobs. Other considerations in designing a graded pay structure include the pay ranges which show the pay progression based on performance, competence, contribution or service. In relation to teachers and teaching in Babyegeya's (2007) view, this would depend on results of performance appraisal, levels of training and experience. Contingent pays refer to additional financial payments provided to employees in relation to performances, contributions, skills or experiences. They are also described as variable payments when they are not consolidated to base pays. The type of payments which education consultants proposed for teaching which exceeded the prescribed teacher-student ratios in Tanzania exemplify a contingent payment (URT, 1993:103). Employment benefits include rewards such as pensions, sick pays, insurance covers, company cars and several other perquisites which vary between organizations.

Total reward is often considered the most equitable to employees, including teachers, because it maximizes motivation to employees and increases their commitment to the job (O'Neal 1998, Thompson 2002, Manus and Graham 2003, Armstrong 2006). This is

because it includes all types of rewards, i.e. direct as well as indirect, intrinsic as well as extrinsic. In total reward, all aspects of reward like base pay, contingent pay, employee benefits and non-financial rewards are linked and treated as an integrated and coherent whole. Total reward combines the impact of transactional rewards which refer to tangible rewards arising from transactions between the employer and employees concerning pay and benefits, and relational rewards which are intangible, referring to outcomes of learning, development and work experience. It is holistic in the sense that its reliance is not placed on one or two reward mechanisms, and account is taken of every way in which employees can be rewarded and obtain satisfaction through work. Its aim is to maximize the impact of reward initiatives on motivation, commitment and job engagement.

2.6.5   MANAGEMENT OF TEACHERS' PERFORMANCES

The way a reform sets to manage the performance of individuals determines the likelihood of its achievement of organizational objectives. Performance management is defined by Armstrong (2006:495) as a systematic process for improving organizational performance by developing the performances of individuals and teams. Unlike traditional performance appraisal which was about assessment and rating of individuals by their managers, performance management seeks to coach, guide, motivate and reward individuals, and therefore unleash their potentials to improve the organizational performance. Babyegeya (2007) contrasts the two approaches in the context of Tanzania and advocates for performance management which is a transparent forward-looking approach. The assumption behind such approach is to get better results by understanding and managing performance within agreed framework of goals, standards and competence requirements. The US-OPM (1999) links performance management to accomplishment of organizational goals if it is made an integral component of the strategic plan. They posit that this requires formulation of systematic approaches to align performance management to the organization's strategic goals. They identify some of these approaches as including bench-marking which refers to systematic process of

measuring an organization's products, services, and/or practices against those of a like organization that is a recognized leader in the studied area.

Caldwell and Hayward (1998) have noted that educational reforms are meaningful if they enable students to learn differently and this can be possible if teachers also teach differently. Teaching among Tanzania teachers was previously carried out without meaningful experiences, and the methodologies used were not suitable for accomplishment of teaching objectives (URT, 1993:27). This was one of the factors for recommending a shift in teaching approaches, and adoption of child-centered methodologies which would also favor the merging of theory and practice, and realization of culture-for-job-creation as learning outcomes (URT, 1993 & 1995). Reforms therefore required addressing the issue of performance of teachers so that it is managed in a way ensuring that they were coached, guided and motivated to unleash their potentials for achievement of desired goals and objectives. Armstrong (2006) reminds that the aim of such management of performance is to develop the capacity of people for meeting and exceeding expectations, as well as realizing full potentials for own and organizational benefits. He therefore sees this process occurring in a continuous self-renewing cycle involving rigorous planning, acting and reviewing.

At the level of planning, the cycle concludes performance and development agreements. According to Armstrong (op.cit), these agreements form the basis for development, assessment and feedback in the management process. They define the expectations in form of role profiles which set out requirements in terms of key result areas and competences required for effective performances. In this case, the role profile would describe what the teacher was expected to do and what support he or she would receive from the management for the key result areas to be realized. As such, it would later be the basis for methods of measuring the performance and level of competency reached by the teacher.

At the level of acting, the cycle manages performances throughout the year. Here, the approach is contrasted once more from conventional performance appraisal which was built around annual, formal reviews carried out without any further reference to their outcomes (Armstrong, 2006:508). At this level, performance management culture is built and maintained through active support and encouragement of school management which ensures that it is regarded a vital means for achievement of school goals and objectives. Prominence is given to the extent teachers teach in reference to performance agreements between them and the school managements, in a continuous process of performance management all the year round.

At the level of review, the cycle assesses progress and achievements, prepares and agrees on action plans, while rating the performances as well. It is a formal review conducted once or twice in a year which provides a focal point for consideration of key performance and development issues. The school management and teachers take a positive look together to identify the ways performance can be improved in the future, and the ways problems undermining performance standards can be resolved. Teachers are encouraged to assess their own performances and become active agents of change in improving their results. Teachers and school managements look forward to what needs to be done to achieve the purpose of teaching, to meet new challenges, make better use of their knowledge, skills and abilities, establish a self-managed learning agenda to develop their capabilities, and reach agreement on any areas requiring performance improvement.

2.7   SELECTION AND INDUCTION OF THE HEADS OF SCHOOL

Fullan (1991) writes about heads of schools as gate-keepers of change in their schools. He views them as middle managers performing both leadership and managerial functions at school level. According to him, as leaders they are to articulate the mission, direction and inspiration to the participants. As managers, they need to design and carry out plans, get things done, and work effectively with people. Notwithstanding, he cites

the observations by Duke (1988) that significant number of heads of schools sometimes thought of quitting the career due to fatigue, and awareness of personal and career choice limitations. He further cites Crowson and Porter-Gehrie (1980) elaborating that fatigue to the heads of schools is in-built in their daily work which is oriented toward maintenance, involving student disciplinary control, keeping outside influences (central office, parents, etc) under control, keeping staff conflicts at the possible minimum, and keeping the school supplied with adequate materials, staffing and so on. He concludes by referring to Lortie (1987) who realizes that the roles of the heads of schools need to be stabilized, particularly in the areas of recruitment and induction, role constraints and psychic rewards, system standardization and career contingencies, all of which are human resource management and development issues for them to carry out their duties well.

2.7.1   RECRUITMENT AND INDUCTIONS

The major Armstrong's (2006) recruitment considerations discussed in previous sub-section about teachers and teaching apply to heads of schools as well. There are the three stages of recruitment which involve definition of requirements, attracting candidates and selecting candidates. In the case of heads of schools, this further suggests that the reform process had to define the new requirements for heads of schools, clarify descriptions and specifications of their roles, and revise the terms and conditions of service for agreement with revised school headship. According to Armstrong (2006), for this revision to be effective it required coupling with induction of new appointees to the job. Induction is defined as a process of receiving and welcoming employees when they first join an organization (or job), by giving them basic information they need, so that they settle down quickly and happily take up work. According to him, this smoothen the preliminary stages when everything is likely to be strange and unfamiliar to the starter. He posits that induction quickly establishes a favourable attitude of the new employee about the organization (or job), making him or her likely to stay. It increases employee commitments and make him prepared to work

hard for the organization. It should therefore present respective organization as worth working for and ensure that such first impression would be reinforced. This would then enable the organization to obtain effective outputs from new employees in shortest possible time. This is because inductions clarify the psychological contracts between the employees and their employers. Psychological contracts in this context are implicit, unwritten beliefs and assumptions about the ways employees are expected to behave and the responses they can expect from employers. Such beliefs and assumptions are important because they provide the basis for the employment relationships and *the way things are done around here*. The more this can be clarified from the outset, the better to the heads of schools as both managers and leaders.

In Senge¢s (1990) view that system structures tend to cause their own crises; people, including heads of schools, need to realize their potential as important leverages in making decisions and formulating policies, as systems¢ integral elements for whatever outcomes. According to him, system structures influence behaviour. The heads of schools in this matter, and related to managing and leading change, require knowledge, understanding and competences about change. These include such skills and competences as planning, research, mobilization, change-management and human relations. Heads of schools appointed to the post with deficiency in such competences require to be inducted in the same from the outset, which Fullan (op.cit) rationalizes by two major arguments.

First, he argues that for them to cope with changes in a social system, it requires either changing their behaviours by teaching desirable ones, or replacing them with new members who have desirable characteristics. Since *change* is a constant characteristic of social systems that we cannot replace staff every time there is change, the first alternative becomes a viable option. Second, he argues from a view point that heads of schools were usually promoted from classroom teaching. Along this he agrees with Sarason (1982) that being a classroom teacher by itself is not a very good preparation

for effective headship of schools. In their view, from classroom teaching teachers obtain only a very narrow slice of what it means being a head of school. This narrowness of preparation makes them less effective in maintenance or restoration of stability at later stages of their appointments, if they are not given inductions.

2.7.2   LEADERSHIP ROLES

Fullan (op.cit) writes that as leaders, the heads of schools have got to facilitate changes at school level by articulation of missions, inspiration and direction to the rest of the members. Similarly, Owen (1998) sees leadership as concerned about initiating changes in the organizational goals or the ways through which organizational goals should be achieved. These views of leadership concede with Armstrong's (2006) who defines it as the ability of persuading others in a group, so that they willingly behave differently. Owen (op.cit) further establishes a connection between leadership and group by argument that the former is an interactive process found in the latter, and that the leader functions necessarily in relationship to his followers (group). Whereas Fullan sees heads of schools as both leaders and managers of schools, Owen looks at them as administrators and leaders. To him, management is a component of administration. In leadership, emphasis of the head's role is upon change as contrasted from administration which emphasizes maintenance. He refers to Halpin's (1954) initiating structure and consideration dimensions to discuss the factors which account for the differences between leader behaviour. He elaborates initiating structure as including the behaviour in which the leader organizes and defines group activities and his relations to the group, i.e. definition of the roles he expects each member to assume, assigning tasks, planning ahead and establishing ways for getting things done. Consideration dimension is about the behaviour indicative of mutual trust, respect and rapport between the leader and his group, which emphasize a deeper concern of group members' needs. He argues that superintendents whose behaviour is perceived as being above average in both dimensions tend to be evaluated high in overall effectiveness as leaders.

A leadership style is viewed by Armstrong (2006) as a term similar to ‑management styleøwhich denotes an approach used by managers to deal with people in their teams. To him, leadership refers to the ability of persuading others so that they willingly behave differently. Fullan (1991) on the other hand shows that leadership responsibilities partly constitute the centre in the roles of the heads of schools. As leaders and facilitators of change at that level, they are to articulate missions, inspirations and directions to the members of school. He refers to the study findings by Hall and Hord (1987) to identify three styles through which the heads of schools usually executed their leadership obligations. He names these types as responders, managers and initiators. In these findings, schools with initiator style of leaderships were the most successful compared with the other two. These were schools whose leaderships were working more closely with their staff to set the course, clarify and support the use of innovations. Schools with manager styles of leadership were the next in the rating; attributed to relatively lower average number of interventions which the leaderships made in support of changes. In Fullanøs (op.cit) words, these were schools whose leaders emphasized on doing things right rather than doing the right things. Schools with responder styles of leadership were rated the least successful, again due to the lowest number of leadership interventions in the change under implementation. Conclusion was therefore drawn that the success of schools was influenced by the extent their heads worked together with other change facilitators as change facilitating teams in those schools.

Furthermore, Armstrong (2006) enlightens the understanding of leadership styles by classifying them in a dynamic pattern, notwithstanding Fullanøs (1991) static view. He argues that most managers deal with people in their groups by operating somewhere between the extremes, depending on situations and environment of a given time. In this conception, he identifies four pairs of extremes between which leadership was usually exercised. First, he argues that leaders operated somewhere between charismatic and non-charismatic characteristics to deal with people, i.e. relying on their personalities,

inspirational qualities and calculated risk-taking on one hand, or personal know-how, confidence and analytical approach to dealing with problems on the other hand. Second, they operated between autocratic and democratic characteristics, i.e. leaders who impose their decisions, using their positions to force others do as they are told on one hand, or those who encourage others to participate and involve themselves in decision making on the other hand. Three, they operated as enablers on one hand, or controllers on the other, i.e. those who inspire others with their vision of the future and empower them to accomplish team goals on one hand, or those who manipulate people to obtain their compliance. Last are the leaders who operated between transactional and transformational extremes, i.e. those who trade money, jobs and security for compliance on one hand, and those who motivate others to strive for higher goals on the other hand.

In the context of social settings like schools, this underlines the role of organizational culture. Armstrong (op.cit) posits that it is possible for heads of schools to adopt own style between any extremes, but the organizational culture will produce a style that represents the behavioural norm which is generally expected and adopted in an organization. Emphasis is that any element from any pair of extremes can be more useful in one than in another situation, which makes the related knowledge imperative to the heads of schools. Another implication deriving from these views therefore is that heads of schools usually work with school members as any between responders, managers and initiators for articulation of missions, inspiration or direction of othersø work towards achievement of organizational objectives (Fullan, op.cit). In the process, they are required to be inspiring but self-confident, calculated risk-takers but analytical, able to impose decisions but encouraging participation, stimulating others with a vision of desired future and empowering them to achieve the goals but able to manipulate them for compliance if necessary (Armstrong, op.cit). The situation and environment of the time determines the specific leadership style and behaviour.

Owen (1970) suggests a set of three variables that heads of schools need to consider in

exercise of their leadership roles. First is a strategy which refers to the reserve efforts for major, significant changes which would make an important difference in the school goals. Second is timing, referring to planning that the leadership acts so frequently enough for the school not to stagnate, but not so frequently to cause undue confusion or disintegration of the school. Third is tactics which refer to planning and carrying out leadership acts thoughtfully and carefully in order to secure the intended results for making change.

Sergiovanni (2001) suggests seven competencies which heads of schools need to possess as leaders in their schools. According to him, these include, one; management of attention which refers to ability to focus others on ideas, goals and purposes that bring people together and that provide a rationale and source of authority for whatever goes on in a school. According to him, management of attention in leaderships is manifested by what they say, what they reward, how they spend time, behaviours they emphasize and reasons they give for decisions. Second is management of meaning which he refers as the ability to connect teachers, parents and students to the school in such a way that they find their lives useful, sensible and valued. This is what defines the position and status of people in the school, why they are in school, why the school needs them, and why their participation in school is worthwhile. According to him, the combination of managements of attention and meaning enables the head of school to answer questions such as: What are our priorities? What are our commitments to each other? Why are they important? How do they link to the ordinary things?

The third competence is management of trust which is about leader's ability to be viewed as credible, legitimate and honest. This emphasizes that for each decision they make, leaders should explain and show how it is linked to the heart and soul of the school. Next is management of paradox competence which brings together ideas that seem to be at odds with each other and which heads of schools as leaders need to demonstrate without imposing standardization or compromise of local discretion.

Management of paradox as a competence requires heads of schools to expect a great deal from subordinates while empowering them to take control of their professional lives. According to Sergiovanni (op.cit) this is easier if heads of schools look to ideas, values and visions of the common good as a moral source of authority for whatever they do.

Fifth is management of self which refers to the heads of schoolsøability to know who they are what they believe and why they do things they do. The assumption is for headsø behaviour to be explicitly understood and defended by one, for others to also understand and respect it. Next is management of effectiveness which refers to the ability on the development of capacity in a school that allows it to improve performance over time. Key to this competence is how school success is understood and measured. Learning should build the capacity of teachers to know more about their work, to figure out how to create better pathways to success and improve their practices as a result. Last is management of commitment which refers to overall framework for leadership practices as the other six competences are implemented, by moving leadership practices away from bureaucratic and personal factors towards cognitive factors, i.e. ideas. With this competence in the leadership, moral authority replaces bureaucratic and personal authorities in a school.

2.7.3   MANAGERIAL ROLES

Like Fullan, Owen (1970) also looks at heads of schools as expected to be both leaders and managers. To Owen, the heads of schoolsø managerial roles are constituted in administrative leadership whose administrative-hat makes them responsible for scheduling, programming, supplying, managing, and monitoring the activities of others. As such, what Fullan (op.cit) refers to as managerial roles of designing, carrying out plans and getting things done through people, Owen (op.cit) refers to them as included in the heads of schoolsøadministrative roles. According to him, administrative roles are concerned with smooth operation of the school, by facilitating the use of established

procedures and structures to achieve the goals. He further clarifies that as administrators the heads of schools operate as executive-managers who coordinate and regulate the small, specialized tasks making up total operations of school, to see that it functioned according to its plans and objectives. Unlike in leadership where they must initiate changes, as executive-managers they operate the school mechanisms by clarifying the goals and helping others to play their roles effectively towards achievement of those goals. It is about maintenance of changes initiated by the leadership. In order to distinguish between leadership and managerial behaviours of the heads of schools, he refers to the model suggested by Harris who introduces a continuum with õ*tractive*ö behaviour falling on one side and õ*dynamic*ö behaviour on the other. Tractive behaviour represents managerial roles and tends to resist, enforce or codify whereas dynamic behavior represents leadership which tends to up-grade, restructure or innovate. In a reform situation according to this expression, heads of schools would therefore be more effective if they would work as leaders rather than managers. However, he cautions that a good school administrator he or she is one who balances between leading and managing depending on outcomes which were desired. This was in the sense that too frequent efforts to initiate changes could result in confusion and disorganization, and too infrequent efforts could cause the school to become static, rigid and unmoving.

Figure 2. 1: **Administrative Behaviour on a Tractive-Dynamic Continuum**

Tractive   **Dynamic**

CHARACTERISTIC	Resisting	Enforcing	Codifying	Up-grading	Restructuring	Innovating
AIM	Actively preventing changes by resisting forces for change	Seeking substantial uniformity in practices	Formalizing practices	Minor changes in practices	Major changes in practices employing known elements	Radical departures from existing practice with unknown elements
BEHAVIOUR	Lobbying Petitioning	Rating Inspecting	Writing regulations	Study groups, Orientation, Policy statements	Pilot programmes Action research	Experimentation

Adopted from: Owen, (1998)

Sergiovanni (1994) summarizes the managerial and leadership roles of heads of schools in five dimensions. First is the technical dimension where the head of school is required to demonstrate sound management skills and knowledge. Under this dimension, the head of school effectively manages the school resources, takes responsibility for and applies policies, procedures and practices to minimize all risks to a reasonable level, and manages the implementation and evaluation of school curriculum. Second is the human dimension where the head of school harnesses the school social and interpersonal potential to maximize school capability. This requires him to lead the school community by clarifying the school vision in terms of its practical implication for programmes and structures, takes action to effectively manage relationships with parents, shares leadership and builds teams. The head of school also ensures accountability by providing effective and comprehensive professional development programmes that support individuals towards realization of school goals. This dimension also requires the heads of schools to maximize the school capability by ensuring staff are allocated on the bases of their capabilities and potential for growth, providing them with opportunities to fully utilize these capabilities as a means to achieve the school vision, and recruitments which promote the most effective group dynamic and results for students, school and community.

The third dimension is educational leadership in which the heads of schools are required to demonstrate expert-knowledge about learning and teaching. This is manifested in the ways heads of schools use personal systems and professional networks to obtain information about emerging educational issues that may affect the schools, and the ways they access research bases and introduce relevant findings on teaching and learning at school level. Education leadership requires ‒big picture thinkingøon the part of heads of schools in that they should provide a unified vision of the school through proper use of words and actions, clear vision for the future of education within the school which the community must clearly understand and relate to the day-to-day activities at that school.

Symbolic leadership is the fourth dimension which is about the extent the head of school models important goals and behaviour to the school network and community. This requires a contextual know-how which assesses the way he uses the understanding of school and local community politics for creating benefits for the school. This is a function of number of factors. It depends on the way he makes explicit references to school goals when decisions are being made about changes in the school. It also depends on the ability to anticipate and prepare for own and others reactions in change situations. It requires the heads of schools to be self-managing in the sense of restraining initial reaction and ensuring they always respond appropriately in situations which are likely to arouse emotions, seek constructive criticism about own performances, and regularly review personal practice and take responsibility for personal development. Finally, this dimension requires the head of school to be influential to the others by use of well thought out actions and to create events that communicate meaning, value and focus, as well as using the language that identifies and reinforces the school image.

Last is the cultural leadership dimension which is about heads of schools leading the school community by defining, strengthening and articulating values and beliefs that give the school its unique identity over time. According to Sergiovanni (op.cit) the head of school models a zeal for teaching and learning by high levels of eagerness and direct involvement in this dimension. He is required to demonstrate a strong professional belief about the school, teaching and learning, and promote a shared language for effective school, teaching and learning. Furthermore, the head of school should demonstrate an achievement focus by making specific improvements in systems or methods which increase the quality of teaching, student learning and staff and student morale. He must be able to take calculated risks based on cost-benefit analysis for enabling him to obtain adequate resources to enhance school effectiveness. In relation to staff, this requires the head of school to challenge them to improve the quality of the schools teaching and learning. Finally, the cultural leadership dimension requires the

heads of schools to take initiatives by anticipating potential problems and opportunities that may not be obvious to others, proactively maximize long term opportunities and underlying needs of the school community, and use that understanding to attain maximum studentsølearning outcomes.

2.8   PARTICIPATION OF SCHOOL COMMITTEES AND BOARDS

School committees and boards are mentioned directly or indirectly by many authors in relation to education and schooling, albeit with some variations in emphasis. Fullan (op.cit) looks at these organs as useful forms of parent involvement in schools, provided they were carefully selected and strengthened. The organs also come by implication in Sergiovanniøs (2001) discussion when he urges the heads of schools to possess the *management of meaning'* competence. According to him, this is a competence which enables the heads of schools to define the position and status of people in the school, why they are in school, how the school needs them, and the extent to which their participation in school is worthwhile. In Owensø (1998) view about open systems, the school board is a link in a relationship between a school and community. In this relationship, the community is viewed as a supra-system whose full participation and involvement are required for effective attainment of school goals. Bond (2006) has a view that effective school boards would offer attributes such as districtsø vision, structure, accountability, and advocacy which promote continuous improvement of systems and increased student achievements. These and other works summarize the fact that schools are effective if they work in cooperation with communities, and committees and boards are the joints in this cooperation.

Fullan (op.cit) posited that parent involvement in schools was either instructional or non-instructional. He referred to the findings of studies conducted in American schools to support the arguments that direct parent involvement in instruction in relation to oneøs own childøs education, developed the parentøs sense of programmes for improving learning at school. He further categorized community and parentsø non-instructional

involvements in two forms; participation in school governance and advisory councils, boards and committees on one hand, and broader forms of community-school relations and communication on the other hand. Indeed, he argued that there existed no evidence to support that involvement of parents in school governance affected students learning in school, but later caution they cannot be dismissed. This was confirmed by citing a case in which the committee minutes were examined to find out that pedagogical issues were infrequently discussed and that whatever was discussed was informational in nature, initiated by administrators or teachers.

In the context of Tanzania and the studied reforms, the need to rectify the education management and administration system was spelt out in the policy (URT, 1995:28) so that the required community-school relationship was enhanced. However, it was involvement through committees and boards on one hand, and teacher-parent associations on the other hand which the policy advocated, although these were presented in other works as ineffective forms of community involvements if improvement of classroom instructions was the objective (Fullan, 1991:237-242).

Mulengeki (2005) reported the prevalence of insufficient exposure and participation-related knowledge and skills among local communities in Tanzania, including the school committee and board members. Specifically, his study singled out knowledge of the education law, the education business, rights and obligations of committee members as the critical requirements for the membersøcompetent participation in pursuit of issues related to access, quality and relevance of school programmes. Community members failed to analyze the reform plans, and strategize for classroom constructions, community obligations and contributions in legal contexts. The members also failed to align the reform plans in their day to day responsibilities as players in school development. Similarly, Fullan (op.cit) adopts a study by Danzberger et al (1987) to conclude that trustees in more successful boards were those considerably more knowledgeable about district programmes and practice, with clear sense of what they

wanted to accomplish based on sets of firmly held values and beliefs, and who engaged in activities which provided them with opportunities to articulate these values and beliefs.

This therefore suggested a conclusion that committees and boards would be effectively involved in managing changes at school level if; first, the members were assisted with skills to gather accurate information about the system they were trying to change. The ESDP document (URT 2006) expressed the government intent for capacity building, sensitization and dissemination of educational information to stakeholders and the general public as a whole. However, the programme review reports do not address the issue, nor clarify if these requisite skills were provided to committee and board members (URT 2003). Second, if school committee and board members were given the mastery of various techniques for intervening skillfully in school programmes, and capacity to ensure they functioned effectively as groups. It was noted in a PEDP review report (URT 2003), that after three years participation in the programme, some district councils were yet to bring school committees on board to effectively ensure accountability of funds sent to schools. Third, if the organs were proactive rather than reactive in their analysis of problems and solutions, and active and interactive with superintendents at regional and district administration. Here, the regional and district superintendents were considered by Moore, Weitzman, Steinberg and Manar (in Fullan, 1991) as critical sources for initiation of innovations at school level.

2.9 REGIONAL AND DISTRICT SUPPORT TO SCHOOLS

Fullan (op.cit) cites Cuban (1988) and Blumberg (1985) to support a conclusion about superintendentsø behaviour in the regional and district offices that it is dominated by managerial and political rather than instructional roles. He suggests that it is the task of the district administration to lead the development and execution of the whole system that explicitly addresses and takes into account all the causes of change at district, school down to the classroom levels, whether the motive is managerial, political or

instructional. Superintendents must increase the basic capacity of the system to effectively manage change. The district and central administration (regional) staff are the ones to introduce change at local and school levels, even when the source of change is elsewhere in the system. These staff must lead the process that tests out the need and priority of change, determine the potential appropriateness of the innovation, and clarify, support and insist on the role of the heads of schools and other administrators as central to implementation.

As leaders and managers of transformation, superintendents in the regional and district offices were, in Armstrong's (op.cit) view, requiring going beyond dealing with day-to-day managerial problems in the schools. This would enable them to commit people to action while focusing on development of new levels of awareness where the future lies. In order to ensure that as many people as possible are committed to achievement of change, Armstrong quotes Kotter (1995) summing up eight steps required by leaderships of transforming organizations. These include, first; establishing a sense of urgency by identifying and discussing crises, potential crises or major opportunities. Secondly, formation of powerful guiding coalitions by assembly of groups with enough power to the change effort and encouraging them to work together as teams. Thirdly, creating a vision which directs the change efforts, and developing strategies for achieving that vision. Fourthly, communicating the vision and strategies to participants and stakeholders using every means possible, and teaching new behaviours by examples of guiding coalitions. Fifth; to empower others to act on the new vision by getting rid of obstacles to change, changing the systems and structures that seriously undermine the vision and encouraging risk taking and non-traditional ideas, activities and actions. Sixth; to plan for and create short-term wins demonstrated by visible performance improvements, recognition and rewarding the employees involved in those improvements. Seventh; consolidating improvements and producing still more change, and eighth; institutionalizing new approaches by articulating the new behaviour and corporate success as well as developing the means to ensure leadership development

and succession.

As an entity, staff at district and regional levels must provide specific implementation pressure and support in order to facilitate change (Huberman and Miles, 1984). Here, in the context of Tanzania, the regional and district level support to schools comes in as appointees and agents of the central level management of the system. It is their duty to ensure that the process they lead tests out the need and priority of the change, and determines the potential appropriateness of particular innovations as conceived by the central level, but allowing some redefinition and adaptation at local level. They must also ensure that the change process clarifies supports and insists on the active role of heads of schools and other school level actors. Other elements for consideration over these staff include the provision of direct implementation support in form of quality materials, in-service training, one-to-one technical help and opportunities for peer interactions. They must also ensure that the process communicates with and maintains the support of parents and the school boards, and sets up an information gathering system to monitor and correct implementation problems.

Fullan (op.cit) summarizes the desirable characteristics of the regional and district staff in education reforms as requiring focus on instructions, teaching and learning. According to him this further insists on creation of conditions at classroom level for collaborative teacher professionalism, mobilization of parents and communities, and using the regional and district resources to hire, promote and support the right people and pressure for continuous classroom and school improvement which entail not only managerial and political roles, but also instructional responsibilities.

Fullan (op.cit) draws two broad conclusions related to sustainable school improvement. First; schools, districts and regions can manage innovations if they radically redesign their approach to learning and sustained improvements, and two; if it is noted that schools can stay innovative through regional and district action to establish the

conditions for continuous and long term improvement. These conditions include setting goals and expectations, supervising and supporting professional development, focusing on instruction and curriculum, ensuring consistency and monitoring of instructional progress.

2.10 CONCLUSION AND LITERATURE GAP

The reflections which derive from surveyed literature paint a picture indicating gaps in terms of management and development of involved human resources for their optimal participation. Effective education reform process according to surveyed literature requires people to repeatedly expand their capacities for creating the results they truly desire, nurturing new and expansive patterns of thinking, setting free their collective aspirations, and learning how to learn together. This in turn requires the possession of some competences which would enable individuals to be able to consistently realize the results which matter most; by continually clarifying and deepening own vision, focusing the energies, developing the patience and seeing the reality objectively, i.e. personal mastery. They should also perceive the world in some way, hold it to scrutiny and be able to take action about it towards a destination they desire - mental models; for example school learning outcomes relevant to social life. They should be clearly aware of the goals, values and mission which the changing organization or system share with them - shared vision providing objective view of change. In order to be efficient, they should suspend assumptions and enter into genuine ‑thinking togetherø by recognizing the patterns of interaction in teams which would otherwise undermine team learning. These competences should lastly be integrated and fused into coherent body of theory and practice ó a system which enables them seeing themselves connected to the change realities rather separated from it. This system also enables participant understanding of subtlest aspects of the changing organization, and perceiving themselves as creators of the problems they experience, taking responsibilities and shifting their mind to desired change destination.

Reforms of the education sector in Tanzania which began in 1997 were aiming to ensure growing and equitable access to high quality formal education and adult literacy. This growth and equity was cherished through facilities expansion, efficiency gains and quality improvement, as well as efficient supply and use of resources. However, the changes did not alter fundamental ways in which the sector was constituted, nor were the changes in goals, structures or roles. There was little or no evidence if some of the critical dimensions involved in educational innovations particularly people and accountability were fully addressed. The literature showed no testimony for adequately addressing some curriculum-related dimensions like changes in teaching approaches and beliefs. The achievements reported did not provide sufficient evidences for changes in quality, teaching strategies or studentsø learning activities. Efficiency of use and supply of resources as well were not evident in the surveyed literature. This suggested further gaps in the way available and procured resources were managed to realize desired objectives. Related to the ±peopleødimension, the literature suggested some gaps on the way they were sorted out and committed to action (accountability) for matching with reform goals and objectives, especially at school level where actual student-learning-differently was required to occur.

The ±peopleødimension at school level in the context of these reforms was identified to include classroom teachers, the heads of schools, members of school committees and boards, and education support staff in the district and regional offices. The role of teachers for example, was observed to be central to the success of any educational reform. The literature underscored teachers to teach differently for enabling students learn differently with improved outcomes, depending on how the reform process observes the issues of morale, attractiveness of teaching as a career, levels of entry requirements to teacher training, the need for improved training and the decaying fabric of schools. To that end, various pieces of literature advocated for a reform process which would manage and develop teachers as active participants and part of the solution to whatever problem the change is for. However, the literature did not show the ways

classroom teachers were empowered in studied reforms, in terms training and development programmes to be able to smoothly embark on reforms. Thus, the study appraised the strategies for teachersø management and development to determine their effectiveness for realizing the goals and objectives of reforms.

In regard of the heads of schools, it was observed in the literature that they were middle managers performing both leadership and managerial functions at school level. As leaders they were to articulate the mission, direction and inspiration to the participants, while designing and carrying out plans, getting things done, and working effectively with people as managers. The heads of schools needed to be stabilized in the two categories of roles, particularly in the areas of recruitment and induction, role constraints and psychic rewards, system standardization and career contingencies. However, surveyed literature was silent on the way the reform process had defined the new requirements for heads of schools, the way it clarified the descriptions and specifications of their roles, and revised the terms and conditions of their services for agreement with revised school headship. Thus, this study attempted to examine the strategies for training and recruitment of heads of schools to effectively manage reforms at school level. It specifically examined selection, recruitment and induction programmes as well as the extent at which they could demonstrate various management and leadership competences after reforms.

The school committees and boards were identified by majority of writers as useful forms of parent involvement in schools, provided they were carefully selected and strengthened. They were fulcrums which linked schools and communities in a relationship where the community was a supra-system required to fully participate and get involved for the schoolø effective attainment of goals. The literature revealed the prevalence of insufficient exposure and participation-related knowledge and skills among local communities in Tanzania, including the school committee and board members. Knowledge of the education law, the education business, and rights and

obligations of committee members were the critical requirements for the membersø competent participation in implementation of school programmes. It was also revealed that trustees in more successful boards were those considerably more knowledgeable about district programmes and practice, with clear sense of what they wanted to accomplish based on sets of firmly held values and beliefs which they could articulate by engaging in related activities. Therefore committee and board members required assistance in terms of skills for gathering accurate information about the system they were trying to change. Secondly, they required the mastery of various techniques for skillful intervention, and capacity to ensure that they functioned effectively as groups. Thirdly, they required being proactive rather than reactive in analysis of problems and solutions, and worked more actively and interactively with education support staff at the regional and district levels, as critical sources for initiating innovations at school level. Thus, the study examined the strategies by which the school committees and boards were constituted and empowered to effectively monitor reforms. Specifically, it sought to fill the knowledge gap on member appointment for skillful interventions in reform process, and organization of information communication and monitoring of reforms.

Various pieces of literature also observed that the district and regional levels education support staffs were charged with the task of introducing change at local and school levels, even when the source of change was elsewhere in the system. These staff had to lead the development and execution of the whole system by increasing its capacity to effectively execute change, and provide specific implementation pressure and support whether the motive was managerial, political or instructional. This required their participation in identification and discussion of crises, potential crises or major opportunities, formation of powerful guiding coalitions, creation of a vision to direct the change efforts, and develop the strategies for achieving that vision, communicate and teach the vision and related strategies to participants by examples of guiding coalitions, get rid of obstacles to change for allowing participants to smoothly act on new vision and behaviours, plan and create short-term wins that demonstrate desirable performance

improvements, and institutionalize new approaches by articulating the new behaviour and corporate success as well as developing the means to ensure leadership and its succession. It was also observed that for change effectiveness, all this was to be done while the focus was on instructions, teaching and learning, and creation of conditions at classroom level for collaborative teacher professionalism, and mobilization of parents and communities. Thus, the study appraised the extent to which the district and regional levels were able to support the schools for effective implementation of reforms. Specifically, it attempted to bridge the knowledge gap on reconstruction of regional and district roles after reforms, and the conditions which they established for school level sustainable improvements.

The next chapter turns to the research design and methodology. It attempts to justify the choices of population, methods and instruments which were employed to generate data later presented and analyzed in chapters four and five. It also shows that both the data which were generated, and the design and methods which were employed emanate and relate to the questions presented in chapter one and the knowledge gap existing in the reviewed literature. Measures for ensuring reliability and validity of the study are also presented.

CHAPTER THREE:RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the research design and methodology. It begins by showing the area, population and the sample of the study, before it turns to design and approach, data collection techniques, data analysis, issues of reliability and validity and finally the ethical considerations in this study. Each of these elements is discussed in relation to the purpose and objectives presented in chapter one and the literature gaps identified in chapter two.

3.2   AREA OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted in four primary schools, four secondary schools and four district education offices of Dar es Salaam and Morogoro regions. The regions were purposefully selected due to their likelihood to reduce the costs in terms of time, funds and accessibility. Most documents which were considered relevant to this study were more readily available in Dar es Salaam because it housed almost all head offices related to studied reforms. Morogoro was a region adjacent to Dar es Salaam which could also depict well the situation in the rest of the country. In each of the two regions, two districts were randomly selected, and in each district one primary school and one secondary school were purposefully selected, such that a relatively balanced set of variables such as the high and low sides of implementation, and rural and urban dichotomies as were revealed by the district records was obtained.

3.3   POPULATION AND THE SAMPLE

The tasks which this study intended to embark on therefore were about the roles and place of teachers, heads of schools, the committee and board members, and the regional and district support staff in the implementation of education reforms, as reflected in PEDP and SEDP programmes in Tanzania. This suggested the population of the study to include teachers, the heads of schools, members of school committees and boards, and

the regional and district level support staff in Tanzania. As such, the sample was constituted of the heads of primary and secondary schools, classroom teachers of selected primary and secondary schools, and the members of school committees and boards of four primary and four secondary schools picked from Dar es Salaam and Morogoro regions. It included the support staff from four districts and two regional offices as well.

According to Bouma (1996) and Cohen *et al* (2000), researchers often selected samples for research because it was difficult to study the whole population. The arguments given in association to this and applying to this study was that a carefully drawn sample made the task possible, and produced more accurate results because the researchers would then be able to overcome factors such as the expenses, time and accessibility which frequently prevented them from gaining information from the whole population. However, the study also borrowed their caution that such samples needed to be representative of the whole population in question, if they were to be valid at all; clearly and correctly setting the parameter characteristics of the wider population.

Literature on sample sizes tends to favour large samples in heterogeneous populations (Cohen et al 2000, Bouma 1996). Heterogeneity in this matter refer to the different variables and sub-groups in the population, that as much as possible, they all are to be represented in the sample. Cohen *et a*l (2000) further posit that in qualitative researches the sample sizes are small because they are homogeneous or with small heterogeneity. Merriam (2002) has shown that qualitative inquiries usually studies single units in single instances. According to Cohen *et al* (op.cit) sample sizes should be large where populations are heterogeneous and demanding break-down into sub-groups, there are many variables, small differences or relationships are predicted and/or reliable measures of dependent variables are unavailable. Merriam (op.cit) further posits that in qualitative researches the samples are basically purported to yield the most information about a phenomenon of interest. In relation to schools in Tanzania, data on teachersø

management and development strategies, recruitment, selection and training of the heads of schools, constitution and empowerment of the school committee and board members, and the support which district and regional staff accord to schools in their areas of jurisdictions showed a relatively homogeneous treatment (URT 2002, 2004, 2005 and 2007-b), therefore discarding the necessity for large samples, but insisting on the identification of critical occurrences in the participation of these actors.

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND APPROACH

Yin (1994) defines a research design as the logical sequence which connects the empirical data to a study's initial research questions, and ultimately to its conclusions. It is an action plan for moving from initial set of questions to some sets of conclusions about these questions. The major steps between the two destinations include the collection, analysis and interpretation of relevant data allowing the researcher to draw inferences concerning causal relations among the variables under investigation. Heaton (2004) identifies a –grounded theory and a –framework approach as dominant types of designs through which data is collected, analyzed and interpreted. She posits that in a grounded theory design data collection is a repetitive process shaped by emerging analytical frameworks. In a framework approach data collection is designed to address a particular set of predefined aims and objectives, for example in this study the descriptions and understanding of the ways classroom teachers were managed and developed in the reforms, training and recruitment of heads of schools, constitution and empowerment of school committees and boards and support from districts and regions for schools effective realization of reform objectives.

According to Cohen *et al* (2000) the selection and employment of a particular data collection, analysis and interpretation method depends on the way reality is perceived in a given study. If on one hand an objectivist (or positivist) view is adopted by looking at the world as natural, hard, real and external to the individual, the methods will be from

a range of options in the traditional approach (quantitative) which include surveys and experiments. If on the other hand the view stresses the importance of subjective experience of individuals in the creation of social world, Cohen *et al* posit that the approach may take on aspects from qualitative as well as quantitative methodologies. This is clarified further by Silverman (1993) in his ‑six rules for qualitative research, that we should avoid choosing between all polar oppositions because the purely ‑rational cannot be filtered out from the ‑social. In this light, this study problem had a perception of planning and implementation of educational reforms as natural and primarily based on manipulation of hard non-human resources. However, data from various reviews and assessments signaled it was unlikely to meet the set targets. It was likely that the view of reality about reforms required considerations of soft, subjective experiences of individuals to yield the desired results. This assumption therefore instructed the choice of qualitative inquiry (dominant approach) without total disregard of quantitative methods. Thus, it captured the subjective experiences of individuals in the conduct of educational reforms, and generalizations in certain isolated human resource management aspects, for example the rating scales employed to record the measurements in evaluation and comparison of selected jobs, school committee and board members competences and so on.

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. This study was interested in the ways education reforms were planned and implemented, and the perceptions classroom teachers, heads of schools, school committee and board members, and the support staff at regional and district levels had on their places and roles in meaningful educational reforms.

Cohen *et al* (2000) write that there are several blueprints (designs) for planning researches, and like Merriam (2002), that the purpose of research determines its

methodology and design. They identify a number of designs which include one; surveys which attempt to gather large scale data in order to make generalizations. Two; experiments which compare variables under controlled conditions, make generalizations about efficacy and/or objective measurement of treatments. Three; ethnography designs which attempt to portray some events in the subjectsø terms by describing, understanding and explaining specific situations. Four; action research design that plans, implements, review and evaluates an intervention for improving practice or solving a local problem. Five; case study designs which attempt to portray, analyze and interpret the uniqueness of real situations through accessible accounts.

In its attempt to learn the way PEDP and SEDP were being executed as strategies for educational changes in Tanzania, this study interpreted the perceptions, roles and uniqueness of the school level human factor. This required an in-depth understanding of PEDP and SEDP as reform strategies, the problems they sought to resolve, the targets indicative of their effectiveness, and critical resources at their disposal. This partly suggested a case study was an ideal design. According to Yin (1994), a case study allowed an investigation to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real life events. Similarly, Merriam (2002) defines a case study from the view point of a ÷caseø which she calls ÷a specific, complex, functioning thingø In the view of both writers, the design is less of a methodological choice than what is to be studied, with a finite quality about it. By finite quality Merriam referred to time, e.g. the education reforms which began in the late 1990s in Tanzania, or space, e.g. coverage of the primary and secondary education sub-sectors, and the components comprising the case, e.g. educational quality, access, capacity building and institutional arrangements. These finite qualities were what gave boundaries, meaning and coverage in case study design. The selection of a case was usually done purposefully rather than randomly, due to its characteristics of interest to the researcher, e.g. in this case the interest was a quest for in-depth understanding of involvement of human resources in educational change as a strategy for alleviation of poverty. It was also noted that case studies usually study

single units in single instances which sometimes make it difficult to accept generalizations from their findings, but something could still be learned from the vivid images created by their narrative descriptions. Merriam (op.cit) quotes Erickson (1986) as arguing that the general lies in the particular such that what we learn in particular cases can be transferred to other similar situations. This usually made the reader rather than the researcher, free to determine what to pick from case studies for application in other similar situations.

Cases are intrinsically bounded entities, within which data are collected and analyzed (Merriam, 2002). A bounded case is sometimes referred to as a unit of analysis. This can be a person (teacher, student, parent, administrator etc), a class or school, a school program, policy or an articulated practice. In this study, the case is a reform programme (PEDP and SEDP) at primary and or secondary school level. Since the study conceived reforms as garnering a number of resources where human are the power-house for generation of other resources, observations and descriptions focused at the management and development of human resources for optimal achievement of the desired objectives. Participation of the school level human resources in PEDP and SEDP reform programmes were the boundaries within which data were collected, analyzed and discussed. In this case, the design employed its interpretive tradition to understand the strategies for management and development of classroom teachers, recruitment and induction of heads of schools, empowerment of school committee and board members and support which district and regional levels provided to schools for efficient and effective implementation of the reforms. In total, eight schools, four district and two regional offices were studied independently. Multiple schools, districts and regional offices were undertaken in this case so as to attain undeniable interpretations and allowing trade-offs and comparisons between lengthy in-depth inquiries.

Furthermore, the strengths behind the choice of case study design were numerous. Cohen et al (op.cit) categorized the design in the interpretive tradition of researches

because of its ability which allowed ‑seeing through the eyes of participantsø Yin (op.cit) recommended the design for examining contemporary events in situations where relevant behaviours were difficult to manipulate, and when ‑howøand ‑whyøwere the questions which the study tried to answer about the given set of contemporary events. Cohen et al (op.cit) qualified this further by pointing out that case studies were particularly valuable when the researcher had little control over events as was the case in this study. In this case the study attempted to examine the ways the participation of educational human resources would be improved for better outcomes.

3.5   DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

Cohen *et al* (2000) advocates the dynamic view of the methods for gathering research data extending beyond the traditional positivistic model. They argued that the positivistic model was limited to objectives such as eliciting responses to predetermined questions, recording measurements, description of phenomena and performing experiments. The dynamic view (qualitative inquiries) extends the meaning to also include the methods associated with interpretation of the subjective meanings which individuals place upon their actions, and discovery of subjective rules for such actions. According to Merriam (op.cit) the three primary sources of data in such qualitative studies were interviews, observation and documents. Yin (op.cit) scales down qualitative studies as an approach, to look at the case study design which he presents as usually drawing its evidences from documents, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant observations and physical artifacts, all of which belong to the interpretive practice. In his view, these sources were complementary and a good case study was to use as many of them as possible.

This case study employed interviews and documentation as its principal data collection techniques, and direct observation as a secondary triangulation strategy. Bouma (1996) defines an interview from a point of view of a questionnaire, which he refers to as a data recording form for the respondent to fill on his or her own away from the researcher as

a way of responding to research questions. When the questions on such a form are administered verbally in a discussion between the researcher and the respondent, the instrument becomes an interview schedule (Bouma 1996, Cohen et al 2000). According to Yin (op.cit), case study interview questions need to be open-ended in nature so that the respondent could be asked for the facts about the matter as well as his or her own opinion; making him or her to assume an ‑informantø rather than a ‑respondentø role. Bryman (2004) furthers this point to recommend unstructured and semi-structured interview schedules for qualitative researches. A semi-structured interview according to him referred to a method of research which was flexible, allowing new questions to be brought up during the interview as a result of what the interviewee said. It was such extent of flexibility, that interviewees at school level sometimes transformed into Focus Discussion Groups (FDGs) for lengthy and focused discussions about some issues, for example evaluation and comparison of selected jobs to rationalize the reward mechanisms. The interviewer in such interview on the other hand, needs to have a framework of themes to be explored. This is opposed to structured interview schedules usually employed in quantitative researches which emphasize the maximization of reliability and validity of measurement of key concepts. Semi-structured interviews are acceptable in qualitative researches on the bases that the emphases are on greater generality in the information of initial research ideas, and on intervieweesø own perspectives, for example in this case; the role of the school level human factor in realization of desired educational reform objectives in the perspectives of the school level actors themselves.

The construction and administration of semi-structured interview schedules in this study were guided by Lindlof and Taylor (2002) and Bryman (2004) that the specific topic or topics that the interviewer wanted to explore during the interview had to be thought about well in advance. Specific concerns in this case were about the reform management and development of teachers, recruitment and induction of heads of schools, constitution and empowerment of school committees and boards, and provision

of support from district and regional levels. It was considered generally beneficial for the interviewer to have interview guides prepared in the form of informal groupings of topics and questions that he could ask in different ways for different participants, in order to focus interviews on the topics at hand without constraining them to particular formats. This freedom according to Lindlof and Taylor (2002), helped the interviewers to tailor their questions to interview situations, and to the people they were interviewing. In this effect, Bryman (2004) insisted for qualitative interviewing to take much greater interest in the interviewee¢s point of view, while encouraging ÷rambling¢ or going off at tangents in order to give insight into what the interviewee saw as relevant and important. A qualitative interviewer according to him, was also free to depart significantly from any schedule or guide that was being used, for example asking new questions that follow up interviewee¢s replies, therefore varying the order and even the wording of the questions, because standardization of the process was not as much an issue as were the interviewees¢perspectives which the process had to bring to surface.

In this light, six salient considerations were concluded to guide the construction and administration of semi-structured interview guides. First; they required to be conducted in fairly open frameworks allowing for focused, conversational, two-way communication with an objective to understand the respondents¢points of view rather than make generalizations about behaviour. Secondly; interviewing started with more general questions or themes, by initially identifying the relevant topics and the possible relationships between them and the issues such as availability, expense, effectiveness which became the basis for more specific questions not needing to be prepared in advance. Bryman (op.cit) on this one advocates for a creation of a certain amount of order on the topic areas for the questions about them to flow reasonably. Thirdly; not all questions were designed and phrased ahead of time. The majority of questions were created in the process to allow both the interviewer and interviewees the flexibility of probing for details or discussion of issues. Again, Bryman (op.cit) advises the researcher to be ready to alter the order of questions during the actual interview

whenever it so requires provided it was in a way helping him to easily grasp answers to the research questions. . In some instances, interview panels were transformed into Focus Discussion Groups (FDGs) to acquire richer, focused and collective responses from interviewees. Four; effective interviewing required the use of a language which was comprehensible and relevant to the people involved, for example in this case the interview schedules were available in both English and Kiswahili and respondents were free to use both or any of the two. Five; effective semi-structured interviews avoid asking leading questions, or making the questions too specific. Six; effective semi-structured interviewers ensure that they ask ꞊face-sheetøinformation of a general kind, e.g. name, gender, age etc. and specify the kind, e.g. position in an organization, number of years employed, number of years at a station and in a given position etc, because such information was useful for putting the answers in context.

Data from interviews and FDGs were recorded on audio cassettes before they were classified, categorized and ordered, structured and finally interpreted on basis of conceptual coherences. Semi-structured interviews were employed in this study with awareness of its strengths and limitations as a technique. One of its strengths was the positive rapport which it established between the interviewer and interviewee. They were very simple, efficient and practical way of getting data about things that were difficult to observe if the study had used other techniques, for example feelings and emotions. Another of its strengths was the high validity of the data it generated which accrued from people being able to talk about something in detail and depth. The meanings behind an action were revealed as the interviewees were enabled to speak for themselves with little direction from interviewer. Third of its strengths was the ability of the technique to facilitate the discussion and clarification of complex questions and issues. It allowed the interviewer to probe areas suggested by the interviewee's answers, picking-up information that had either not occurred to the interviewer or of which he had no prior knowledge. The fourth strength came from its ability to resolve the researcher pre-judgemental tendencies, i.e. predetermining what will or will not be

discussed in the interview. With few "pre-set questions" the interviewer could not "pre-judge" what was or was not important information. The fifth strength was its easiness to record, for example using audio tapes.

However, the technique had a number of limitations although they did not outweigh the strengths outlined above. The tendency of the technique to consume so much time was resolved by the study restricting itself to small manageable sample, but which was at the same time able to generate data required by the research questions. Secondly, the technique was at times not very reliable in the sense that it was difficult to exactly repeat a focused interview to different groups of the sample, because the majority of questions were not predetermined. Non-standardized interview questions and the smallness of the sample were in-built mechanisms that resolved this problem. Thirdly, the depth of qualitative information, for example deciding what was and was not relevant, were sometimes difficult to analyze because respondents were effectively answering the questions differently. Lastly was the question of validity in situations where the researcher had no real way of knowing if the respondent was or was not lying. However, this was resolved by triangulating the generated information with that obtained through other techniques.

Another technique was documentation which was utilized to collect the information about the criteria and frameworks for provision of support, recruitment, selection and training programmes from the schools, districts, regional and other offices. Again, this drew its guide from Yin (op.cit) that the relevant documentation involved a variety of specific sources such as letters and memoranda, as well as administrative documents like proposals, progress reports and other internal documents. The relevant documents could also include service records which showed the clients served by the programme over given period, organizational records like charts and budgets over given period of time and so on. Bryman (2004) sees these as constituting heterogeneous set of sources of data. To him they included the personal documents, official documents from both the

state and private sources, and the mass media which could be in print, visual, digital or any other retrievable format. However, these were employed only if they had not been produced specifically for the purpose of this research, but rather were naturally preserved and availed as support evidence to what had occurred. In the context of this study, documents basically referred to in state category of documents mainly involved such materials as the Acts of Parliament, official reports, programme reviews and other materials. These produced a great deal of information about various reform actors and communities, therefore with great significance to this study. Four criteria presented by Bryman (op.cit) were used to assess the quality of documents. These were: First; assessment of authenticity which was about trying to answer the question if the evidence in the document was genuine and of unquestionable origin. Secondly, the assessment of credibility was to ensure the evidence was free of error and distortions. Thirdly, the assessment of representativeness which weighed the evidence was to see if it was typical of its kind and, if not, to find out if the extent of its untypicality was known. However, this being a qualitative research, the insights by Bryman (op.cit) that the issue of representativeness was not a meaningful question inspired the process. Fourth; the documents were assessed of their meanings to see if the evidences they provided were clear and comprehensible.

Yin (op.cit) presented direct and participant observations as techniques enabling a researcher to gather live data from the actual environment. He postulated that direct observation occurs if the researcher makes a field visit and participant observation if the researcher actively assumes a variety of roles in that visit. It was only direct observation technique which was employed as much as circumstances allowed, gathering data from all sites involved in this study, to triangulate the information obtained through other techniques.

3.6   DATA ANALYSIS PLAN

Cohen *et al* (2000) discuss the analysis of qualitative data in a variety of versions from

various authors which they finally summarize in four stages. According to them, the stages for analyzing qualitative data were one; generation of natural units of meanings, two; classification, categorization and ordering of these units of meanings, three; structuring the narratives to describe the interview contents, and four; interpreting the interview data, similar to what Miles and Huberman (1994) referred to as making conceptual coherence, meaning to move from metaphors to constructs, and finally to theories which explain the phenomena.

Yin (op.cit) presents the general strategies for analyzing case study data which play the role of helping investigators to choose among different analytic techniques. The two general strategies were one; relying on theoretical propositions that led to the case study, and two; developing a case description, usually when theoretical propositions were absent. Pursuant to these strategies, he identifies the dominant modes for analyzing case study data as pattern-matching, explanation-building, time-series analysis and program logic models. Pattern-matching was defined as a logic which compares empirically based patterns with predicted patterns of specific variables defined prior to data collection. If the two patterns coincided, the results could help a case study strengthen its internal validity, which was a causal relationship explaining the way certain conditions lead to other conditions.

Explanation-building according to him, referred to a special type of pattern-matching which intended to develop ideas for further studies by stipulating some sets of causal links about a phenomenon. Usually, explanation-building occurred in narrative form reflecting some theoretically significant propositions deriving from examination of the case study evidences, revision of theoretical positions, and re-examination of the evidences for obtaining new perspectives.

Time-series analysis is explained as a logic which entails a match between a trend of data points compared with a theoretically significant trend specified before the onset of

study, versus the rival trend also specified beforehand, versus any trend based on some artefacts or threat to internal validity. The mode could be useful if the objective of the study was to examine the ―how‖ and ―why‖ questions about the relationship of events over time, which in this study were not the case.

Program logic models as a strategy was a combination of pattern-matching and time-series analysis in which the pattern being matched was the key cause-effect pattern between independent and dependent variables. Such analysis stipulated a complex chain of events (pattern) over time (time-series) covering associated independent and dependent variables. Again, the ―how‖ questions which this study attempted to answer did not entail association of any variable with any time-series as such the strategy was discarded. Therefore pattern-matching and explanation-building were the dominant modes for data analysis. In this strategy, discussion and analysis of data uncovered some patterns of issues considered pertinent in the conduct of educational reforms at school level. These patterns were then matched with others deriving from actual practice and conducts observed in schools and other levels in this analysis, to inform conclusions about the effectiveness of the reform process.

Data obtained from documents were analyzed by what Altheide (1996) referred to as ethnographic content analysis (ECA). This was selected from a number of approaches which Bryman (op.cit) recommends for interpretation of documentary data. His work showed these approaches as including semiotics, hermeneutics and qualitative content analysis. He referred to semiotics as a ―science of signs‖ in the sense that it was particularly used to analyze symbols in every day life. Hermeneutics was originally devised to the interpretation of theological texts with the central idea that the analyst sought to bring out the meaning of the text from the perspective of its author. Qualitative content analysis comprised a searching-out of underlying themes in the materials being analyzed. Although the process through which the themes were extracted often remained implicit, the qualitative content analysis in this study gave

clear illustrations of themes by, for example, brief quotation from the text being analyzed.

In his attempt to distinguish it from quantitative content analysis, Altheide (1996) outlined ECA which represents a codification of certain procedures typical of the kind of qualitative content analysis. In this approach, the researcher constantly revises the themes or categories of data that are distilled from examination of documents, such that there is much more back and forth a movement between conceptualization, data collection, analysis and interpretation than is the case in quantitative content analysis. The back and forth movements in ECA increases the potential for refinement of categories of data and generation of new ones, as opposed to quantitative content analysis where the researcher is usually bound by initial predeterminations. Altheide (op.cit) outlines six steps which constitute the movements in ECA. The steps are, first; generation of the research question. Second; familiarizing with the context within which the documents are generated. Three; familiarizing with a small number of documents ó between six and ten. Four; generating some categories for guiding the collection of data, that is drafting a schedule for collection of data which corresponds to the generated categories. Apart from ̳face-sheetø information indicating locations and dates on which relevant documents are availed, the schedule also indicates the category of data being analyzed, title of document availed, data obtained and remarks. Five; testing the schedule for collection of data from a number of documents. Lastly is revision of the schedule and selection of other cases for sharpening it.

Therefore, pattern-matching and explanation-building were employed to analyze data obtained by interviews, and ethnographic content analysis (ECA) was used for analyzing data from documents. In isolated circumstances, rating scales were employed to analyze quantitative data obtained in FDGs measuring and comparing selected types of jobs.

3.7 RELIABILITY, INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL VALIDITY

Issues of validity and reliability in this study were inspired by Merriam (2002) that the quality of qualitative research depends on the extent its findings are to be believed and trusted. According to her, the study is believed and trusted if its conduct observes some strategies and conditions congruent with the philosophical assumptions underlying the interpretive perspective.

Reliability in this study was taken to be synonymous and or replicability over time, instruments or groups of respondents. Like what Cohen *et al* (2000) submits, the concerns of reliability were precision and accuracy. Being a qualitative research, this depended on the fit between what was recorded as data and what actually was occuring in the natural setting being studied. Again, it was similar to what Merriam (op.cit) refered to as a question about whether the results were consistent with the data collected. At disposal, were strategies such as triangulation, peer examination, investigator's position (reflexivity) and audit trials to ensure such consistency and or replication. Triangulation was employed by consulting the multiplicity of data sources through interviews, documents and direct observations which were later compared for congruency. Peer examination was also employed from time to time with the faculty members of staff, usually in informal presentations and discussions. Moreover, the researcher was conversant with some information about these reforms because of the administrative positions he was holding in a regional education office during the take-off stage of these reforms. The researcher also maintained the memos throughout the process with records of personal reflections, problems and issues encountered during data collection. These memos were useful references during data analysis and interpretations.

In this study, internal validity was about existence of congruency between the findings and the reality. Again, this was inspired by Merriam (op.cit) who looked at this as a question of ensuring that we observe or measure what we think we are observing or

measuring. Considerations for internal validity sought to demonstrate that the explanation of a particular event, issue or set of data which the research provides can actually be sustained by the data (see Cohen *et al*, op.cit). As such, it was about the accuracy of findings in describing the phenomenon being researched, i.e. the school level human factor in education reforms. At disposal, were same strategies employed for reliability that were also used to check for the extent the findings were examining, describing and appraising the school level human factor in education reforms, i.e. by triangulation, peer reviews, researcher's position and member checks. By member checks, the researcher took back the tentative findings to the participants and asked them for comments, endorsing them as true or not. However, this was infrequently done as circumstances allowed.

External validity in this study was considered in terms of the extent to which the findings could be applied in other situations. This was also inspired by Merriam (op.cit) that this cannot be done statistically because qualitative researches employ small, non-random samples which are purposefully selected. The sample in this study was selected for in-depth understanding of the school level human factor (particular) rather than finding out what is generally true of the many (other factors and or levels). As such, external validity in in this study could occur when knowledge learnt from in-depth analysis of this particular phenomenon (school level human factor in education reforms) could be transferred to another situation (concrete universals), rather than simply generalizing to all other situations thought to be similar (abstract universals). External validity was thus conceptualized as user generalizability. The users of the knowledge generated from this study would determine the extent to which the findings could be applied to their contexts. Since PEDP and SEDP implementations were covering all twenty one regions of Tanzania mainland, potential beneficiaries of these findings were the policy makers, education planners, administrators and many others in the programme implementation, especially at regional, district down to school and classroom levels. This is because what the programmes were doing in the eight schools

selected from two regions of the sample; they were also doing to other regions and schools in the rest of the country. In order to generate the likelihood of this transfer, the study employed two strategies. First, the analyses were constituted by rich, thick descriptions to enable the users easily determine how close or distant their situations match with the characteristics in the sample. In turn, this would help users decide to take or leave the findings for application in their situations. Secondly, the study employed a multi-site design in selection of the sample. A multi-site selection of the sample brings diversity in the nature of locations selected for conducting a study, or the participants interviewed, so as to increase the range of situations for the consumers to compare from. The schools from which the respondents were sought were selected from primary and secondary education sub-sectors, as well as from urban and rural settings. The participants were classroom teachers, heads of schools, members of school committees and boards and superintendents at district and regional levels.

3.8   THE ETHICAL DIMENSION

Cohen *et al* (2000) argue that for studies which take interview as a major data collection technique, the ethical dimension concerns the interpersonal interactions which may produce information about the human conditions. They postulate that these would surround ethical issues such as the consent of participants, confidentiality and the consequences of interview. The ethical concerns are defined as an awareness of complex and subtle issues likely to place the researchers in moral predicaments which require striking a balance between the demands placed on them as professionals in pursuit of truth, and subjectsø rights and values potentially threatened by the research. According to them, the ethical dimension depends on the extent the consent and co-operation of the participants are guaranteed, confidentiality is promised and the potential consequences of their involvement in a particular study are thoroughly discussed.

The process of data collection was preceded by seeking the consent of the Regional

Administrative Secretaries (RAS) for Dar es Salaam and Morogoro to allow the researcher collect data from schools and district education offices in their regions. The copies of semi structured interview schedules designed for that purpose were attached to the letter requesting for this permission, so that the nature of data required from these respondents could be thoroughly assessed and consequences established if any. The purpose of conducting this study was made open that it was a fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) ó Education, at the Open University of Tanzania. Next to the regional level, the consent was also sought from authorities in the relevant districts, education offices and schools before the researcher discussed his intentions with specific individuals, clarifying the magnitude of their involvements. Other key issues in these discussions included those of ‑beneficenceøand ‑non-maleficenceøto ensure the individuals that they were also likely to benefit from the study as actors of education, and that the study could not be harmful to them in any way. Individuals were encouraged to demand for clarifications where necessary before they embarked on this exercise, in which case most would-be controversial issues were resolved at the on-set of data collection stage.

Mutual trust between the researcher on one hand and the respondents on the other hand was a guide to confidentiality! The district/ municipal councils and schools from which data were collected were all assigned code names for confidentiality and disguise of information which they gave, which in opinions of some respondents were likely to jeopardize their positions especially in cases of contradictions to responses from their seniors. Moreover, the interview schedules for all respondents did not ask for their names and could therefore not be easily tracked except by the researcher. The gathered responses were accessible only to the researcher and others involved in assessment of the work for academic purposes, as such confidentiality of responses from individual respondents was also guaranteed in that end. However, respondents could avail the conclusions drawn from the work if they wanted, by requesting the same from the University after the researcherøs official submission and presentation.

Next are chapters four and five which present the collected data, analysis and discussion. The respondents in this study were divided into broad categories of Teaching and Non-Teaching sub-groups. Chapter four presents data, analysis and discussion from the classroom teachers and heads of schools that constituted the teaching respondentsøcategory. The responses from committee and board members, and the support staff at regional and district offices that constituted non-teaching respondentsøcategory are presented, analyzed and discussed later in chapter five.

CHAPTER FOUR: RECRUITMENT, MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF SCHOOL LEVEL PROFESSIONALS

4.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents, analyzes and discusses data from school level teaching professionals. It deals with the first task which was about the strategies employed to manage and develop teachers towards   effective realization of desired reform goals and objectives, and the second task on the strategies for recruitment and induction of heads of schools to effectively manage reforms at school level. Collection of data on management and development of teachers was guided by questions examining school level human resource planning, teacher selection and deployment, training and development, as well as appraisal and reward of the teaching process. Data on recruitment and induction of heads of schools were guided by questions relating to their selection and orientation for taking management and leadership roles at school level. Each of these issues and questions is presented, analyzed and discussed in turn. Comparison is made between the patterns of field-based findings on one hand, and specific issues predetermined prior to data collection on the other hand as a way of assessing the effectiveness of involved innovations.

4.2   MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

Content analysis of related documents at school, district and regional levels on one hand, and interviews with classroom teachers on the other hand were employed to collect data about management and development of teachers during implementation of PEDP and SEDP. The PEDP and SEDP were on-going education reforms in Tanzania geared to improve access, equity and quality in the provision of primary and secondary education.

4.2.1   SCHOOL LEVEL HUMAN RESOURCE STRATEGIC PLANNING

It was learnt from the related literature (Armstrong, 2006: 369-370) that organizational human resource planning (HRP) involves a number of considerations and issues such as strategic plans, resourcing strategies, scenario planning, demand and supply forecasts,

labour turnover and work environment analyses. Like general planning, it consists of determining the goals, delineating the needs, formulating objectives, and identification of resources, restraints and alternative courses of action from which the best is chosen (Babyegeya, 2002). Data from documents and interviews with teachers instructed on the extent PEDP and SEDP facilitated the placement of competent and motivated teachers in schools, training of teachers for students learning differently and development of positive industrial relations for improved productivity in schools.

PEDP (URT, 2006) and SEDP documents (URT, 2007b) show the goals which human resource planning was required to serve. For example PEDP II document (URT, 2006:6) states that õThe government embarked on PEDP to ensure every eligible child gets the best quality education í translate ETP í and ESDP goals into feasible strategies and actions for the development of primary education.ö It was further revealed that improved quality of education would entail among other things, õí training and upgrading of teachers, adequate numbers and quality of human resources (URT, 2006:18). Strategies such as utilization of cost-effective pre-service and in-service teacher training programmes, and school-based teacher resource centres were listed as ideal for teachersø and educational supervisorsø acquisition and development of appropriate competences.

Actual human resource planning and implementation at district and school levels were not as strategic as shown in national plans. For example, the quarterly PEDP report of October-December 2006 in district D2 revealed the aspects of human resource related considerations pursuant to educational quality improvement. Strategic activities were identified as follows:

  i.   *Exposure of PEDP specific issues to 5 senior officers in a national level seminar.*
  ii.   *District seminar exposing all district education officers to PEDP specific activities.*
  iii. *District financial and stores management seminar for ward education coordinators, headteachers and teacher resource centre coordinators.*
  iv.   *PEDP activities' orientation seminar to members of school committees.*
  v.   *One day seminar to district policy makers, i.e. DC, Division Secretaries and Ward Councilors.*

     vi.   *One day seminar to Ward Education Coordinators on management of PEDP activities*.

Preparatory activities in the list above and others obtained from schools and other levels of implementation did not show considerations of classroom teachers as necessary reform actors requiring being empowered for delivering quality education that ETP, ESDP and PEDP sought to achieve.

These findings were assessed along with observations by Coombs (in Babyegeya, 2002) that educational planning would improve internal and external efficiencies if among other things it defines the future activity levels and initiatives demanding new skills. Such planning would also seek out ways for preserving and enhancing quality, by making students attend, remain in schools and complete the educational cycles per reform objectives. In the interviews, teachers indicated that there was a discrepancy between the policy demands and actual plans and preparations of teachers as facilitators of studentsø learning. Majority of teachers noted that while the policy required for schoolsøprovision of instructions that merge theory and practice, and enhance culture-for-job-creation and self employment, such ideals were not accorded much importance in PEDP (and SEDP). For example, interviewee No.3 at school P1 viewed PEDP as a programme which did not consider the role of teachersøimproved knowledge, skills, time and commitment as were the objectives for both the policy and the programmes:

> Our Education and Training policy instructs encouraging pupilsø transformation of the theories they learn inside the classrooms into day-to-day practices outside the classes. ...PEDP does not clarify further what should the teacherøs role be in this transformation despite its requirement for specific knowledge, skills, time and commitment on our part. ...we probably need to extend the teachersø responsibilities beyond the normal classrooms, so that they supervise practical demonstrations in day-to-day lives! ...pupils donøt live in classrooms! The philosophy, purpose and mission look broader in ETP than what PEDP narrows them to.

These observations suggested that the PEDP and SEDP were operational in practice, although related documents described them as strategic. These insights dictated analyzing the observations in relation to Armstrongøs (2006), Fullanøs (1991) and Sengeøs (1990) views about change and reforms. According to Armstrong (op.cit), strategic changes would

redefine the future state, mission, vision and scope, purpose and philosophy of education and training for practitioners' benefits and smooth participation. Fullan's (op.cit) view of reform initiation phase dictates consideration of relevance, readiness and resources which in this case were not taken on board. By Fullan's view, the plans would provide for practitioners' understanding of innovations and subjective dimensions, as well as appraisal of capacities to initiate, develop and adopt them. The plan would also address the issues of teachers' participation and merging of instructional theory and practice, facilitation of culture-for-job-creation and self-employment. Likewise, Senge's (op.cit) view of efficiency in the learning organizations and reform processes which required individuals being provided with abilities to realize results which matter most, assumptions and generalizations of desired goals, values and the mission was not considered.

Absence of a link between reform practice and desired goals, values and the mission implied the commencement of reforms with absence of a strategic plan to enable teachers participate with clear understanding of objectives that education was about to pursue. According to USOPM (1999) managing change by strategic plans allows mapping out the current status, the target and the means of reaching the desired target. Such planning could align the reform goals and objectives (access, equity and quality) with the means through which teachers would participate to achieve those goals and objectives (perceived needs, knowledge, skills and competences). In this view, strategic planning is optimized by collaborative process involving the majority of potential participants. Such collaboration according to Fullan (op.cit) allows the inclusion of participants' objective and subjective opinions into the plan. As such, the teachers' views about changes in the teaching career, its scope and extent of partnerships would be resolved from the onset. If teaching was to extend beyond the walls of a normal classroom, involve parents' partnerships and assess practicals in the students' homes, it had to be clarified to all participants including classroom teachers. Teachers were to be clear of avenues for aligning required human and non-human resources to desired goals and objectives. To the contrary, the findings revealed that human resource requirements in these reforms were not aligned to reform objectives.

The responses also showed that teachers were aware of the reform goals the sector was

intending to cherish but not the roles they were to assume for realizing the goals. This was interpreted as a shortcoming in HR scenario planning for establishing a view of adjustments in terms of types and scale of school activities, and the external environment that were likely to affect these changes. PEDP and SEDP documents (plans, reviews and reports) which were availed in schools and education offices for analysis were ignoring the setting of teaching scenario which the policy urged to be participatory and practice-oriented. According to Armstrong (op.cit) such scenario required thinking about the future, practical changes bringing that future, and issues and examination of possible consequences. As such, the teacherøs responses from school P1 above revealed four critical scenario issues which the reform human resource planning had failed to resolve for smooth implementation. First were the modalities for assessment of studentsø transformation of theory into practice. Secondly were the different weighting for each domain of performances (theory and or practice). Thirdly were the skills, knowledge and competences that teachers and other participants were requiring in order to smoothly carry out reforms. Fourth was the approach for identification and acquisition of the number and types of teachers consonant with expanded enrolment and access projections.

The teachersø insights about self-employment and culture-for-job-creation outcomes were translated as requiring specific knowledge and skills. In Armstrongøs (op.cit) view, acquisition of such specific knowledge and skills requires human resource planning which strategize for intellectual capital development. It requires planning which aligns the projections about teaching manpower with results that the sector must obtain. It would therefore seek to employ teachers with wider and deeper ranges of skills, and behaving in ways which maximize their contributions towards achievement of reform objectives. In the effect that ETP (URT, 1995:51-56) had identified science and technology, humanities and life skills as essential components which were to permeate the whole education and training system and enhance the production of job-creating rather than job-seeking graduands, planning would seek to achieve the same. At primary school level the policy recommends the teaching of Kiswahili, English, Mathematics, Social Studies, Science, Life Skills and

Religious Instructions. At secondary school level the policy does not specify the subjects but recommends a curriculum which merges theory and practice and allows students to master both vocational and cognitive skills at the end of the cycle. At the level of policy, this was considered instrumental as a teacher resourcing strategy because it was cognizant of ranges of skills required at both levels of the system.

It was found that TSM (Primary School Statistics Form) and TSS (Secondary School Statistics Form) were the planning tools through which manpower planning data were collected from schools. By design, they collected information about students, employees, infrastructure and resources. On students, the information was about enrolment which was analyzed by age and level, handicaps by types, orphans and drop-outs by causes. On employees the information was about the number of teachers by qualifications and sex, and non-teaching staff by roles. TSS data further analyzed secondary school teachers by subjects of teaching specializations. Shortage and or excess of teachers in a school were computed on basis of studentsøand teachersødata. On resources and infrastructure, the tools captured information about the numbers of desks, tables, chairs, cupboards and shelves on one hand, and classrooms, toilets and staff houses on the other hand. From numbers of students and classrooms, decisions about access could be made; on the basis that each classroom accommodates 45 students. The tools were therefore comprehensive and capable of gathering all data which manpower planning would require, particularly for issues related to knowledge, skills and competences, and number and types of teachers required in these reforms. Apparently, the use of information on teaching specializations to project the number and types of required teachers was not evident in the findings. School and district plans were simply the grand numbers of teachers required for deployment. For example district D4 plan was the number and deficit of teachers without specifications relating to internal teaching and learning conditions and requirements as indicated in table 4.1 below:

Table 4. 1: Typical District Projections for the demand of Teachers

GRADE	Males	Females	Total
III B/C	417	270	687
III A	620	395	1015
DIPLOMA	20	10	30
TOTAL	1057	675	1732

Adopted from: District D4, Quarterly PEDP Performance Report - December 2006

By these data, it was difficult to specifically identify the teaching areas with deficit. Information in table 4.1 was typical of the plans availed in all schools of the sample that described the situation and requirements for the teaching human resources. Other features whose information was collected but unused by PEDP and SEDP were those on students with special needs, particularly in the mainstream classes. The findings showed that the teachers failed to teach such classes effectively because of the buildings, furniture and other school resources which did not observe the different specifications for teaching and learning of students with special needs. One teacher at school P4 expressed his concern regarding the performance of blind students in the school, that õí they fail to effectively follow instructions from teachers who are not adequately trained to handle such students, and mainstream classes where necessary resources like Braille are not provided.ö This implied that although school level prevalence of students with various impairments was documented during data collection, planning ignored it as an issue for enhancing equity. For students with various impairments therefore, it was difficult to register the required improvements and teach them differently for improved outcomes.

Given that schools, districts and regions were not accorded planning responsibilities in these reforms, national PEDP and SEDP projections were examined to assess the extent they could address actual school level requirements. It was found that like the records found in districts and schools, the national projections were too general to adequately address specific school level teaching and learning issues as shown in tables 4.2 and 4.3:

Table4. 2: PEDP Teacher Deployment Projections

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Number of (40 min) periods to be taught	120,113	138,836	158,343	164,916	171,339
% of teaching by 2 shifts per school day	10	15	20	20	20
% of actual teaching by 2 shifts	11	18	25	25	25
PTR	50.00	52.94	56.25	56.25	56.25
Teacher Requirements	108,101	118,011	126,674	131,933	137,071
Attrition 1.60%	1,611	1,730	1,888	2,027	2,111
New recruits required	9,047	11,651	10,563	7,286	7,249

Source: **URT (2003) Mpango wa Maendeleo ya Elimu ya Msingi (MMEM) Marekebisho ya April 2003, p.30**

Table 4. 3: SEDP Teacher Deployment Projections

		2007/8	2008/9	2009/10
PTR Form I – IV		20	20	20
Total Teacher Requirements		**50,139**	**70,463**	**96,521**
Diploma holders	75%	37,604	52,847	72,391
University graduates	25%	12,535	17,616	24,130
Teachers on post:				
Diploma holders		19,259	n.a.	n.a.
University graduates		4,891	n.a.	n.a.
Grade A		268	n.a.	n.a.
Licensee and others		5,440	n.a.	n.a.
Total Teachers on post		**29,858**	**38,239**	**43,327**
Teachers graduating from Colleges:				
Diploma holders		9,374	6,000	6,000
University graduates		500	1,000	1,000
Total		**9,874**	**7,000**	**7,500**
Aggregate Teacher Attrition	5%	1,493	1,912	2,166
Shortage		**21,774**	**27,136**	**47,860**

n.a. = unavailable data in these projections.

Source: URT (2007) Updated Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP) 2004-2009, Annex 4 p.37.

It was therefore concluded that a strategy employed by the Basic Education Development Committee (BEDC) as national level reform planning organ (URT, 2006:33) was not adequate enough to recruit and engage competent teaching human resources for desired results. Planning was based on assumption that a primary school teacher could teach any subject and any student irrespective of actual process and students characteristics.

Projections for both secondary and primary school teachers constituted overall numbers not specifying skills and competences required by the teachers to accomplish changes in curriculum and overall performances.

Inconsistencies in the planning of teaching manpower were identified by the teachers as one of the causes for ineffectiveness of the reform process. For example at school S3 the teachers attributed their performances in reform process with the importance which the core skills and competences were accorded. Interviewee No.3 expressed the involvement of teachers as forceful rather than persuasive:

> ...we were dragged into implementation with marginal awareness of the outcomes desired and aimed by the reforms ...as classroom teachers; ...we were not well informed, ...commerce and agriculture as teaching subjects were suspended and their teachers ordered to choose what they could teach from remaining subjects or quit, ...Physics and Chemistry on one hand, and Geography and History on the other were each consolidated into single teaching subjects and allocated to teachers irrespective of whether they had specialized both subjects during training or not.

One of the implications deriving from these findings was unplanned teaching which did not recognize expertise such that any teacher could teach any subject. Likewise, interviewee No.2 at school P3 revealed the perceptions of his colleagues in the primary school sub-sector that they were not adequately prepared to embark on PEDP:

> Directives were that we shift from transmittal to participatory methods of instruction delivery, with emphasis on studentsø active participation. The approach was unfamiliar to many of us, yet compounded further by merging of some subjects into unfamiliar combinations such as Social Studies from Geography, History and Civics; inclusion of Domestic Science in General Science, apart from subjects which were completely new like Work Skills, TEHAMA and so on. í In many cases the teacher was competent in one or another subject in the combination, but forced to teach the whole of it as per new directives í irrespective of competences.

Therefore, human resource planning information for teachers in both sub-sectors originated from schools. TSS data forms were sent directly to Ministries of Education and Vocational Training (MoEVT) and copies availed to district, regional and zonal education offices. TSM data were consolidated to obtain summaries for ward and district levels. The district

summaries were thereafter relayed to MoEVT. However, deployment of primary school teachers was done by MoEVT to districts on basis of consolidated district data. The districts redeployed them to schools sometimes without reflections of individual school requirements. Deployment of secondary school teachers was done by MoEVT directly to schools. By this approach, the perception of teachers about schools was that they were centres of schooling activity which occupied a marginal position in its planning as a comment by interviewee No.4 at school P4 observed:

> í school teacher requirement information is compiled and owned by the district level. From there, deployment is effected relative to what the district decides are the requirements for individual schools, mostly unreflective of actual conditions in schools. í we realize what each of us must teach and allocated subjects after reporting at the school.

The staffing patterns which were cited by the teachers showed how the planning approach was ignoring the actual conditions in some schools. For example; two of the primary schools which by statistics were relatively overstaffed in terms of the manning levels stipulated by the centre, had serious deficit in teaching of some subjects. School P1 was overstaffed by ten teachers but falling short of teachers for Maths, English and ICT (Information and Communication Technology which is also referred to as TEHAMA; an acronym for Swahili ̶Teknolojia ya Habari na Mawasiliano), and school P3 was overstaffed by three teachers but had problems in teaching of ICT, English and Work Skills (also known as ̶Stadi za Kaziø in Swahili). Similarly, the findings deduced from SEDP projections revealed 217,123 additional teachers were required between 2007/8 and 2009/10 but these were not translated into subjects of teaching specializations for alignment with training and recruitment plans.

Selection of optimum combination of people and instruments is one of objectives which Babyegeya (2006:75) argues human resource planning should accomplish to schools and education. The efficiency of manpower planning in these reforms could therefore be determined by the extent it enabled the placement of competent and motivated teachers in schools; facilitated the training of teachers for students learning differently; and developed

positive industrial relations for improved productivity in schools. To the contrary, the findings in this study showed the performances in both primary and secondary education sub-sectors as below the set targets at completion of first phases of implementation. The findings show teachers as not clear of the goals and objectives which these reforms were to attain. Changes which were desirable for teaching and learning differently were also not clearly known to teachers and others at the school level. Allocation of teaching subjects was made irrespective of teachersø training and their areas of specializations. Artificial understaffing and overstaffing were observed as inflicting the schools due to deployments which did not observe actual conditions in schools. By these findings, the patterns of issues for considerations during HR planning on one hand, and field practices on the other were matched and summarized as shown in table 4.4:

Table 4. 4: HR Strategic Planning Considerations

ISSUES FOR CONSIDERATION		FIELD PRACTICES
• Redefinition of future state, mission, vision and scope, purpose and philosophy of reforms.	-	<u>Different reform perceptions among participants regarding reforms:</u> • Teachersøsubjective views excluded. • Limited teachersøawareness of roles in reforms. • Capacity of teachers to initiate, develop and adopt reforms not appraised in process. • Mapping of existing competence status not done to facilitate determination of target and means. • Intellectual capital strategies not in place, i.e. the ranges of skills required by teachers to perform.
• HR strategic planning process and procedures.	-	<u>TSM and TSS tools collect all data required for school level HR planning but:</u> • Schools are not a focus in planning ó it reflects the national level. • Desired goals are not linked to school level practices. • There are no effective collaborations between categories of participants (classroom, school, society and system).
• Teachersøimproved knowledge, skills, time and commitment.	-	<u>Utilization of cost-effective pre-service and in-service teacher training programmes not</u>

	employed as pledged:
	• Teachers are not trained and or deployed in adequate quality and numbers at school level.
	• School-based teacher professional development programmes are not in school level practices.
	• In-service teacher training funds are not remitted to schools as documented.

4.2.2   TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

In his analysis of change, Senge (1990) argued that teacher training and development are effective in learning organizations which consisted of people that expanded their capacities to create desirable results, nurture new and expansive patterns of thinking, and learn how to learn together. He discusses the ideas of leverages and archetypes ideal for creation of learning organizations. ˉGrowth and Underinvestmentøis an archetypes that emphasizes the role of adequate investments in order to achieve key organizational goals, in the sense that it adds or improves the physical capacity, enables personnel training, and improves work processes or organizational structures towards consumer quality satisfactions. This is similar to Fullanøs (1991) advocacy for investing in teacher training and development so as to boost up school capacities and readiness for using reforms. According to Fullan, training of teachers ensures their possession of requisite knowledge, skills and competences. In relation to the studied reforms, training and development as a function in human resource management was therefore assessed to determine the extent at which it addressed the problems related to transmittal delivery of instructions which had dominated, and teaching of vocational subjects sought by ETP.

The assessment utilized a number of techniques including content analysis of training and development documents. Education circular No. 7 of 2007 (Appendix VI) revealed that teachers had to work for their professional and academic up-grading on their own; and employers would recognize trainings which were related to the teaching profession only (sections 1-10). It was also learnt from Headteachersøreform training manual (MANTEP,

1995:174-180) that school based programmes were a priority mode for delivery of in-service trainings to teachers because conventional deliveries were expensive, time consuming and sometimes insensitive to the needs of individual members of staff and the school in general. In this view, school based programmes were ideal because they could enable teachers to develop professionally and academically while contributing to the academic and administrative functions of the school. The manual stated that:

> *"...School Based Staff Development is a process whereby the performance of school staff is improved and modified in response to new ideas, skills, knowledge and changing external conditions. ...The individual acquires knowledge, skills and attitudes to meet the expectations of those who influence his behaviour; (it is) a way of increasing the efficiency of the school and that of the individual teachers, ...provides certain types of possible solutions to certain types of work problems such as low output, poor morale, large number of unsuccessful pupils, etc"*
>
> MANTEP, 1995 (p.174)

Teachers were requested in the interview sessions to describe the training programmes which had involved them before they participated in reforms. Their responses derived an implication of the absence of any specific strategy for guiding the process. For example in the primary education sub-sector, it was found that teachers embarked on reforms without adequate training, even in areas requiring new knowledge, skills and attitudes. In the view of interviewee No.4 at school P3, teachers were not adequately prepared to embark on reforms, and school based mode of teacher training was inefficient in handling some of the tasks:

> We were simply directed to adapt participatory methods of teaching and abandon lecturing apparently perceived as not efficiently involving pupils ...this is not easy to many of us! The class sizes are still too large to allow active participation of every pupil. í To veteran teachers, lecturing has dominated the process and regarded the only method available. In fact, teaching means lecturing! ...The change is made even harder by absence of training in new, desired methods which we are left to find on our own and which school-based seminars and workshops cannot handle.

This showed that in the primary school sub-sector, the reforms began with absence of a strategy to improve teaching and respond to changes and new ideas occurring in environment. It was found that in few schools where teachers were given some orientations, they were too brief and low coverage to have any significant impact. Looking at such

trainings along the emphasis posed in the related literature (Armstrong, 2006) that underlines formal training as a strategy for modification of employee performances, the programmes that were offered were rated sub-standard. Armstrong recommends formal trainings whenever modification of employee performances is sought especially in tasks which are so specialized in delivery of classroom instructions. It was also noted that school based staff training as a strategy was weak because it could not deal with development needs of teachers or fit them to take up extra responsibilities resulting from reforms. The view in these responses was that the strategy relied on local experts many of whom were not conversant of reform content and objectives.

Similar findings were revealed in the secondary schools sub-sector where respondents viewed training and re-training of teachers as not immediate priorities in these reforms. Interviewee No.4 of school S2 argued in a focus group discussion:

> ...no training was immediate. Later, we learnt that the head of school and a couple of teachers of her own choice were invited to a one day seminar in Morogoro in 2007; a third year of SEDP at our school! Unfortunately the group has not bothered to formally tell us what they were taught in Morogoro, but hear-say show it was related to participatory teaching methods. í Few of us have undergone some training during SEDP implementation but it is basically individual initiatives í which the seniors must find to have relationship with teaching! ...Our Commerce department colleagues were denied permission to go for further training on basis that the courses were not educational.

The translation in these findings depict in-service teacher training as a sporadic rather than in-built continuous component of the reform process. This concurred with the training and development related sections of PEDP and SEDP documents. Section 3.2.1 of PEDP document (URT, 2003:10-11) reveals the intent of putting aside US$ 40 for every serving teacherøs ten days of in-service training annually. Section 4.3 of SEDP document (URT, 2007:16-22) presents the strategies for education quality improvements, where objectives No.7 to 12 were specifically on teacher training and development. Some of these objectives aimed to accelerate it, enhance professional competences and strengthen the school inspections. However, sharpening the serving teachers for matching with changes in curriculum and teaching approaches was not clearly identified anywhere in these objectives.

Consistency was therefore established between the reform plans (PEDP and SEDP), Education circular No.7 and the guidelines in the training manual by MANTEP, all of which advocated school-based teacher training strategy despite its in-built limitations that made it unsystematic and not trainee-centred. Teachers reported experiencing difficulties to secure the consents of employers to allow them go for trainings, and employers could only consent if the trainings sought were in their interests rather than work and interest of employees. Furthermore, the responses showed the practice of MoEVT to consent if courses sought were offered by institutions under its umbrella and the University faculties offering education programmes. Post-graduate programmes in areas like Commerce, Engineering or Artistic studies offered by other institutions were discouraged, although they were strongly required to facilitate the acquisition of culture-for-job-creation and self-employment.

It was also deduced from these findings that schools and districts were not encouraged to make or identify own strategies for teacher training and development. Throughout the reform implementation, the regions and districts in the sample had reported nothing about own strategies or government-chosen school-based staff training. Features of training in these reports were only about up-grading of teachers from grade IIIB/C to IIIA, where the teachers were allowed flexibility to attend or not to. It was also found that the reporting format stifled the initiatives of schools and other lower levels to strategize for teacher training according to local environments; for example, section 2.3.1 of the first quarter implementation report for the year 2009/2010 in district D3 said clearly that: õí the Council failure to achieve the desired reform objectives was partly due to lack of district specific pre-service and in-service teacher training strategiesö (pg.12). In that report, the district suggested putting up a teacher training college (TTC) under its jurisdiction to enable it manage training and retraining of teachers. The Central Government had not responded to the proposal during the study. In this proposal, the argument was that such a college would more conveniently merge teacher training related activities under one institution. It was recommended that the district college of education assumes such responsibilities as

presented below:

> *"Teacher performance appraisal should inform teacher training and retraining plans. ...To this effect, the District should consult relevant authorities for establishment of a teacher training college under district full jurisdiction. The college shall be responsible for managing teacher training and development in the district, ...interpretation of teachers' performance appraisal, identification of training needs, coordination of continuing education, and effective merge of teacher training and development issues on one hand, into district overall development plans on the other hand."*

These findings brought decentralization to surface as an aspect of education policy (URT, 1995:25-26) which the reforms had ignored. The responses suggested that teacher training innovations could be more effective if related resources, powers and responsibilities were devolved to district level. The district would then be responsible for planning, training, retraining and deployment of teachers. In this view, the central government would only issue guidelines for the districtsø observation of general national ideals and standards. Coordination of school-based teacher trainings as a government priority approach would be more easily conducted at district level. Furthermore, formal staff training would be more easily conducted to cater for specialized needs perceived at local levels. The strength of formal arrangements in employee training is identified by Armstrong (2006) that it easily caters for specialized tasks which teachers would be unlikely to master on their own at a reasonable speed. Informal school based staff training programmes would cater for other tasks which teachers were able to master with limited supervision and instructions from peers and other locally arranged trainers. In both cases, the district college of education would be responsible for coordination and designing of programmes. Two significant observations were eminent in relation to the district colleges of education: Education and Training programmes would be relevant to the respective districts, and ensuing reform programme implementation would depend on comprehensive training and orientation of staff.

Content analysis of the teacher training and deployment related documents further revealed the shortfalls in determination of core competences required by teachers in the

implementation of reforms (URT 1993, 1995 and 2003). The ETP (URT, 1995) in sections 5.3.6 and 5.4.4 stipulates the minimum qualifications required in primary and secondary school teaching. These were simply grade –IIIAø teacher education certificate; for primary schools, and a valid diploma in education obtained from any recognized institution for secondary schools. The core subjects suitable for the learning outcomes desired in these reforms were also identified and rationalized by the 1992 Education Task Force (URT, 1993:34), later adapted by ETP. It was recommended that the core subjects for primary education would include Kiswahili, English and Maths, as well as integrated sciences, with emphasis on sustainable development of the environment and general knowledge. At secondary school level, it was recommended for schools to offer at least one subject from the groups of social sciences, physical sciences, technology related subjects and/or artistic studies, as well as Kiswahili, English and Mathematics as core subjects. It was also emphasized for greater proportion of students to be provided with strong background in Maths, physical sciences and languages to facilitate the provision of tertiary and higher education, as well as training for studentsø participation in the world of work.

The findings further revealed teachersø low participation due to absence or wrongly timed training as a major factor which was compounded by the status of the subject in final examinations as observed by interviewee No.4 of school P4:

> ...teaching in a packed and congested system like ours directs concentration on subjects which are examined at the end of the cycle. í Although Work Skills is potential for studentsø acquisition of useful practical skills in day-to-day lives, it is not accorded due importance by the teachers because, one; it is not examined, two; teachers are not conversant with involved skills.

The findings attributed the governmentøs laxity about teacher training to end-of-cycle examinations which influenced the decisions regarding training and teaching. The lessons which were not examined at the end of the cycle were seldom to be involved in governmentøs teacher training plans. This included –Work Skillsø which in these reforms was identified for provision of knowledge and skills for self-employment and participation in the world of work. The subject constituted of such skills as Drawing, Painting and

Decorations, Smithing, Pottery making, Basketry, Tailoring, Shoe making, Theatre Arts, Music and Physical Education. Others were Agriculture and Animal Husbandry, Cookery, Dry Cleaning, Masonry, Carpentry, Iron-smithing, Plumbing, Photography, Electricity, Radio and Watch repairing. The view of teachers in the responses above showed that the majority of these were specialized skills which they could not teach without substantive academic and professional trainings. However, teachers were not given training to this effect, and the subject was not examinable at the end of the cycle therefore marginalizing it even further. The implications deriving from these findings were threefold. First, innovations geared to making students learn differently can only be considered important enough if their contents are examined at the end of school cycle, for teachersø concentration is usually on examinable subjects. Secondly, it was training rather than directives from higher levels of administration which influenced the teacherø compliance to teach a given subject. The influence of teacher training on teaching superseded that of other variables like textbooks and physical structures. Thirdly, innovations which originate from national level can only be of benefit if they are understood and implemented at school level. In this case, teaching of Work Skills and TEHAMA which were poorly taught due to lack of adequate related teacher training, were not likely to yield desired results despite well formulated national level objectives.

For subjects in whom some teachers were given orientations, it was found that they were inadequate in both timing and depth. Interviewee No.4 of school P4 testified this PEDP implementation shortcoming:

> Seminars of between three to seven days were conducted between April and July 2007. These were too brief to convey all the change contents. í Moreover, not every teacher in every subject was covered; some were left out. í The definition of new teaching levels especially in situations where teachers were required to work as facilitators and students as active participants; where efficient teaching could transcend beyond the school to supervise utilization of acquired knowledge in day-to-day lives; í were not clarified. Majority of teachers continued to work on trial and error basis.

At the secondary school level the practice was almost similar and the findings showed that

orientations given were inadequate as interviewee No.2 of school S3 testified:

> I hear that the heads of schools and few heads of departments convened at Kilakala in 2007 for a one day workshop on participatory teaching methods í but this was already more than two years in SEDP implementation. í this could have been useful if the acquired knowledge was extended to the rest of staff. í It was not the case in this school í ; most teachers in this school are disciples of the old teaching approach because it is the only they have to-date! í they lack exposure of the new ones.

The findings from both levels showed some shortcomings as existing in regard of what Fullan (1995:67-80) referred to as the characteristics of change in the key educational reform implementation factors. According to Fullan, it was necessary for teachers to be clear of what they should do differently for an innovation to be meaningful. Implementation complexity occurs when there is lack of clarity of what teachers must do differently, diffuse goals or unspecified means. He posits that change involves learning to do something new and interaction is the basis for social learning. Acquisition of new meanings, behaviours, skills and beliefs depend on if the teacher is working in isolation on one hand, or exchanging ideas, support and positive feeling about work on the other hand. In this case, the findings that teachers were forced to embark on implementation without clarity of the *modus operand* implied an ambiguous participation. This complexity in implementation of reforms could be minimized by teachersøefficient orientation, induction or training before they embarked on the reform process. Training and professional development of teachers therefore was required to be an integral component of the reform process.

Therefore, the implications deriving from review of teacher training and development practices in these reforms were threefold. First; sporadic teacher training and development programmes were not in favour of efficient realization of reform goals and objectives. Efficient realization of goals and objectives would be achieved if teacher training and development were planned and implemented as integral, in-built components of the reform process. Secondly; a choice of teacher training and development strategy was required to guide the reform process. The strategy would resolve issues about design and timing of programmes, expertise required, formal institutions or school-based programmes and so on. Thirdly, teacher training in educational reforms required knowledge and skills acquired

from various sources and institutions. As such, thorough training needs assessment had to be made prior to commencement of reform process to identify knowledge and skills gaps and how they could be bridged. In this case, specialized expertise areas such as commerce, agriculture, engineering and artistic studies sought from relevant institutions had to be recognized in the teaching career.

Matching of the pattern of issues for consideration in teacher training with another pattern of related field practices in the post-reform schools instructed a conclusion that faulty human resource planning had cascaded into inadequate teacher training, retraining and development strategies as summarized in table 4.5. Basing on Senge's (1990) and Fullan's (1991) views about the importance of well designed employee training and development programmes, it was evident that the reform objectives could not be realized optimally in this case. Reforms were in no way transforming schools into learning organizations for expanded capacities, creation of desirable results and nurture of new and expansive patterns.

Table 4. 5: Issues in Teacher Training and Development

ISSUES		FIELD PRACTICES
• Teacher training and development strategy.		- <u>Teacher training and development resources, powers and responsibilities not devolved to school level</u>: • Schools not encouraged to devising own training and development strategies. • School-based in-service training programmes not in practice. • Sharpening of serving teachers for matching with reform goals and objectives not a priority. - <u>Education Circular No. 7 of 2006 as a Teacher training guide</u>: • Sporadic in-service trainings rather than in-built continuous component. • Commerce, engineering and artistic studies were discouraged and difficult for teachers to secure employersø consents. • Inadequate training opportunities offered long after take-off of reforms, for between 3 and 30 days only.
• Determination of core competences		- <u>Required knowledge and skills for teachersø effective participation determined on basis of ranks (e.g. teacher grade IIIA, Diploma etc)</u>: • Subjects of specialization not informing teacher training and deployment. • Work skills and ICT identified as necessary courses but taught by untrained teachers.

4.2.3   ROLE PROFILES AND SPECIFICATIONS

The study identified some role profile and specification issues which were requiring

adjustments for ─teaching differently for studentsø learning differentlyø to occur. This was partially influenced by Armstrong (2006) that high quality employees were obtained through adequate recruitment and selection processes. In this case, recruitment and selection were conceived as involving definitions of requirements, attraction and selection of candidates. The issues which were found as requiring adjustments were related to the three stages, and the way teaching and related terms and conditions of employment were described, specified and understood by the teachers, employers and the general society.

When the teachers were asked to describe their job and specify practices which the change programmes had introduced, it was found that the letters of their employment had done it all and that the change programmes had not changed a thing. For example, the responses gathered from interviewee No.4 of school P2 revealed the shortfalls emanating from perceptions that primary school teachers could teach any subject he or she was assigned:

> ...a primary school teacher is employed on conditions that he or she must teach any between those things a primary school pupil is required to learn. ...I was posted here simply on basis of the letter showing my teaching grade and asking the head-teacher to allocate me the subjects for teaching. From there, the head-teacher was free to effect the required allocation depending on vacancies which existed in school! ...He assigned me to teach Mathematics in class seven.

In these responses, it was suggested that primary school teachers were assigned jobs rather than roles. Role was contrasted from a job on basis of Armstrongøs (2006) view that the latter was consisted of groups of prescribed tasks or activities to be carried out. On the other hand, roles refer to parts people play in their work with emphasis on specific behaviour as the letters of employment described in the responses above partly suggest. Employment contracts and ensuing descriptions were therefore the sources of teachersø commitment to the tasks. In the context of reforms, performances and participation depended on individual perceptions and internal conditions in the school. Although interview responses indicated that ─Jobø and ─Job Descriptionsø were more popular terms, conception of a ─roleø was introduced to further clarify and match a description that teachers were usually charged to fulfill specific responsibilities in a school, for example teaching maths in class seven as in a

quotation from school P2 above. In this context, a job was broader with reference to the post or duties which a teacher was generally assigned as an employee at a certain grade or level, for example grade IIIA, diploma and so on. As such, both terms, i.e. =jobøand =roleø were applicable in the understanding of issues related to employment of teachers. Responses from the secondary school sub-sector signaled there was a variation in scope of commitment and accountability as compared to perceptions in primary school teaching. This was partly due to ambiguity and variations in descriptions and specifications of duties. From the response of interviewee No.2 at school S3, it was revealed that the letters of employment for secondary school teachers gave clearer descriptions than those given to primary teachers:

> Our letters of employment say it all! Mine shows I am a diploma holder teaching Geography and History. By virtue of holding a Diploma in Education; the extent of my work should be forms one and two. However, I now teach History in forms one up to four because I hold the highest history teaching rank in our school í other teachers are not specialists of history teaching at all.

These findings bring to surface the other factors apart from clear descriptions, which influenced the performance of teachers in delivery of classroom instructions. Although the contract was referred to clarify the scope of responsibilities which respective teachers were to be assigned, they usually assumed higher tasks than prescribed because schools were inadequately staffed. Whether a job or a role, descriptions must spell out exactly what the incumbents must do. In turn, contracts must serve to ensure that practice adheres to given descriptions. According to Armstrong (2006) HR practice increasingly refers to roles, role analyses and profiles rather than jobs, job analyses and job descriptions. This is because emphasis in these descriptions should be on behaviours which are potential to delivering desired outcomes or the competences required to achieve them rather than static prescriptions and restricted performances. This is found in specific description of responsibilities rather than generic ones expressed by grades of teachers (e.g. grade IIIA, Diploma etc). As such, roles, descriptions and profiles in these reforms would emphasize on clarification of ways and ranges of tasks individuals had to undertake in order to realize the reform goals and objectives, for example increased participatory delivery of instructions

and teaching for merge of theory and practice assessed in studentsøhomes.

As such, it could be concluded that primary school (PEDP) teachersøjobs were presented in more generic descriptions than secondary school (SEDP) counterparts but both sets of profiles and descriptions embedded some ambiguities, incompatibilities or conflicts at school level. Heads of schools were allowed freedom to allocate teaching subjects as they wished, and schools were confronted by circumstances compelling teachers taking responsibilities higher than their dues. In the context of reforms, this undermined the role of these descriptions and profiles as tools for managing employee performances. The descriptions of reform tasks were not clear enough to ensure efficient performances and outputs. One of the responses (interviewee No.2 of school P4) suggested that; õí reforms had to specify the competences required by teachers to do the required job, í number of lessons, í number of students í and type of facilitations the employers had to give for the job to be done!ö Findings from content analysis of related documents were also short of evidences to testify any of these ideals was adequately addressed in these reforms.

It was also noted that the reforms did not have any separate recruitment and selection arrangement. However, the teachersøresponses expressed their concerns regarding the terms and conditions of service in relation to other comparable careers. The expressions from both sub-sectors were not different. The teachersøperceptions about the unsuitability of the terms and conditions of service were expressed in a negative tone as noted by interviewee No.4 of school P2:

> We thought PEDP would re-introduce the ±teaching allowanceø for the teachersø financial support. ...there were several avenues for supporting teachers like it is done in other sectors, for example housing and medical allowances, but which the employers are silent about. We only stay in employment because the alternative private sector has narrow chances. ...we could have all left!

In these responses, emphasis was that the reforms retained a tradition of handling the teachersø selection and recruitment issues differently from other employees because the teaching profession was marginalized. Entry qualifications to the teaching career were used

to further express the place of teaching against other occupations. A respondent in a discussion at school S3 expressed that; õí high school achievers at ÷Oø and ÷Aø levels are never become teachers! They opt or get selected for higher education and other green-pasture occupations.ö These responses reiterated the Task Force (URT, 1993) that teaching as a profession attracted low school achievers because it also remunerated lowly. But low school achievers could only transform into competent teachers if they were subjected to professional trainings with relatively heavy dozes of academic instructions to substitute the shortfalls (Babyegeya, 2007:65). Findings have previously shown that teacher training during PEDP and SEDP was basically a methodology to fast-track the production of required numbers of teachers. Other issues related to roles and recruitment of teachers which they expected any effective reforms would address were identified as including; õí working beyond prescribed hours without extra pays as provided in other careers, í poor housing conditions in remote rural areas, í and allowances and other employment benefits offered to employees in other careers!ö This series of issues suggested that in the subjective view of teachers, the reforms could have re-analyzed the job and evaluate it against other occupations, so as to adequately address recruitment issues for motivated teacher participations, as well as appraising the strengths and weaknesses of the education sector as an employer, so that the selling points are listed out and worked upon to attract competent candidates into the profession. According to Armstrong (2006), employer appraisal consisted of matters as reputation, pays, employee benefits and working conditions, security of employment, opportunity for education and training, career prospects and the location of the office.

On teachersø role profiles and specifications therefore, implications of the findings were twofold. First, unclearly defined and specified roles negatively influenced the performance of teachers to achieve the desired goals and objectives. Role profiles and specifications require being so clear for incumbents to easily identify required performances, number of lessons to teach in a given time, number of students to attend in a class and so on. Secondly, teacher attraction and retention could be enhanced by the reform process if it appraised the

education sector as an employing agent, so that its reputation, pays, employee benefits and working conditions, security of employment, opportunity for education and training, career prospects and locations of offices were clearly identified, understood and clarified. This would enable making a comparison with other sectors for determination of its potential to attract, employ and retain competent teaching personnel. The patterns of issues in selection and recruitment of teachers and actual practices during reforms were matched as summarized in table 4.6:

Table 4. 6: Issues in Teachers' Selection and Recruitment

Issues		Reform Practices
• Role descriptions and specifications.	-	Roles are described and specified in employment contracts: • Descriptions do not clarify ways, ranges and limits of tasks for teachers. • Participation in practices beyond contractual specifications are neither appraised nor rewarded fairly.
• Attraction and retention of competent teachers.	-	Reduced teachersø motivation and participation in assigned roles: • Lowered entry qualifications compared with many other vocations influence performances and decisions on rewards, benefits, working conditions, security of employment, further education and training, and career prospects.

4.2.4 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Teachersøperformance management strategies in this study were assessed by looking at the approaches employed in these reforms and the extent they sought to coach, guide and reward individuals, as well as achieving the performance levels within the agreed goals, standard and competence requirements. This conception derived from Armstrongø (2006:496) and Caldwell and Haywardø (1998:51-53) views that management of individual performance in organizations was about aligning individual to organizational objectives for maintenance of shared values between them. Such management had to provide for roles and

responsibilities to be accomplished, skills to be possessed and behaviours to be expected; all of which in this case, had to be agreed by both the teachers and their managers.

When the teachers were asked to assess the process in which their performances were being managed, they showed that reforms had not made coaching, guiding, motivating and rewarding integral parts of the processes, and that teachers were practically the managers of own performances. The findings showed that the approach of managing the teachersø performances relied on the same, traditional inefficient pillars. The responses referred to the tools they used on daily basis, showing that by design, heads of schools were managers of their performances if they inspected the schemes of work, lesson plans, lesson notes, subject log books etc and relay feedback to appraisee. By default, teachers were the pace-makers of own performances as noted by interviewee No.3 from school P4:

> ...the head-teacher is the supervisor but teachers remain major determinants of the path, pace and depth of teaching and studentsø achievements. ...The teacher interprets the syllabus and prepares all instructional records for the headteacher who simply endorses by signing. ...This is my twelfth year in the service and the head-teacher has never advised or rejected any record I submit to him.

These findings suggest that inspection of teachersø records by heads of schools is a mere formality, because they never reject anything submitted, or coach and guide teachers for improved performances. Efficient management of teachersø performances is identified by Bottomleyøs (1983) in MANTEP (1995:165) that it has to include the mechanisms reinforcing strengths, identifying deficiencies and relaying information back to participants whose work is being managed. Performance management therefore should aim at creating a culture that enables individuals and teams to take responsibilities, and continually improving the business processes (teaching), skills and contributions. Notwithstanding the formal procedures for managing performances within agreed goals that required active participation of heads of schools (design), classroom teachers practically prepared, managed and maintained all records related to management of their own performances (default). This suggested that excessive discretion was bestowed on teachers in managing their own performances, which might affect their thrust to maximize performances. In this

regard, the heads of schools assumed a passive role; to ensure the availability of required records rather than their quality and standards. Heads of schoolsøindifference to quality and standards of records was associated to packed-schedules and unfamiliarity to some types of instructional tasks. Interviewee No.2 from School S4 gave the reasons as thus:

> ...it is easy for headmaster to demand and see the records teachers prepare, but ensuring practices which adhere to those records is a different thing. ...requires being highly conversant and regularly supervising implementation, unlike the current practice which makes him busier with other school development and responsibilities. ...In events that a teacher seeks additional activities for making the ends meet, normal classroom teaching ceases to be a priority especially when there is lack of efficient and reliable mechanisms enforcing the quality of implementation.

In these findings therefore, were some of the factors that influenced the effectiveness of teachersø performance management systems. Apart from excessive discretion which was bestowed on teachers to managing their own performances, the heads of schools as formal managers of teachersøperformances were busier with other reform goals and objectives. As such, supervision of teachersøperformance in delivery of classroom instructions (education quality) was accorded a marginal priority and attention compared to access and equity objectives. The heads of schools were not sufficiently conversant with some of the subjects they were required to supervise. Furthermore, teachers failed to adhere to performance standards they set in curriculum related documents due to other socio-economic hurdles. Inadequate remunerations in the formal employment were one of the causes for teachersø failure to perform optimally because they were compelled to supplement their incomes by engaging in additional activities. It was also noted that the assumption that teachers could conversantly deliver instruction in any primary school subject was erroneous, because many of them had not performed exceptionally in all subjects during Certificate of Secondary Education Examination (CSEE). Moreover, teacher training (Babyegeya, 2007) has for too long emphasized on professional (how to teach) rather than academic (what to teach) aspects, therefore not sufficiently mending the shortfalls caused by low entry qualifications.

Therefore the findings from both the interview responses and the content analysis of

documents converged at teacher training as a factor relating to quality and effectiveness in teachersøperformance management. Like the task force (URT, 1993:17), the findings tend to recommend teacher training by specialization, and elevation of entry qualifications as some of the measures for ensuring quality delivery of instructions. It was also found that grade IIIA teacher training by specializations (strategic) was adopted for three intakes beginning 2004 (URT, 2004). Thereafter, the old system and division three (28 points) in the Ordinary Level Certificate of Secondary Education entry qualifications were resumed, despite claims that the pass rates were improving in various level examinations. Strategic training of teachers would improve the teaching effectiveness; hence increased teachersø ability to perform and manage own performances where necessary.

According to MANTEP (1995:6), appraisal of the teachersødelivery of instructions was one of primary roles of the heads of schools. This was usually by supervision cum management of school timetables, schemes of work and lesson plans and notes. Other techniques were essays, face to face interviews or use of special EF.117 forms. In any case the appraisal was required to address the issues related to quality and quantity of work, employee initiatives, creativity and resourcefulness, co-operation, dependability, attendance, communication skills, ability to manage and supervise, individual character and conduct, responsibility and accountability, decision making and sensitivity to issues, incidents and problems. It was found out that in the context of sample schools, appraisal by essays and interviews was not practiced, and that the special EF.117 forms were the familiar method. However, there was also noted a disregard of EF.117 as an efficient performance management tool because it did not provide strategies for achievement of sought behavioural standards, and due to its extra-ordinary confidentialities as was noted by interviewee No.3 at school S3 in the focus group discussion:

> ...it does not help us because it is the head of school that does all the work. The report is confidential even to the teacher being appraised. After all, there are no reliable mechanisms through which teachers can assure themselves of head of schoolø objectivity in preparation and rating of the records. ...One only queries if he or she is due for promotion and is not served.

The implications deriving from these findings to the classroom teachers were that EF.117 was meaningful only as a means for promotions rather than assessment of day-to-day execution of school activities. Furthermore, the teachersø active role in executing EF.117 process was not that significant to assure them it was objectively done, because they only provided their biodata for heads of schoolsøcompletion of remaining tasks. As such, review of the teachersøperformance did not include inputs of appraisee. It also failed to inform the appraisee of the shortfalls or strengths of his or her performances. In the case of secondary school sub-sector, the failure of heads of schools to execute the tool objectively was partly attributed to their limited conversance in some subjects because teaching was done on basis of specializations. As secondary school teachers, the heads of schools were specialists in one or two areas but responsible for appraising teachers in all areas, even those which are unfamiliar to them. This shortfall was compounded by the condition that the process was confidential and therefore difficult to involve or convey feedback to appraisee.

These shortfalls were also affecting the performance management in the primary school sub-sector, although teaching was not based on specializations. It was revealed that headteachers failed to supervise teaching of some subjects efficiently because primary school headship was not granted on basis of academic or instructional delivery competences. It was the view of teachers that the significance of EF.117 as a performance management tool could be improved if the confidential condition was relaxed to allow heads of schools incorporate other teachers in this exercise, for increased objectivity and informed decisions. Impliedly, these views advocated for Open Performance Review and Appraisal System (OPRAS) which was already operational in certain public service sectors. In these views, teachers preferred OPRAS to the old system in order to acquire professional growth and immediate rectification of flaws as they occurred during implementation. Interviewee No.3 at school S3 had this to add in extra-ordinary focus group discussion:

> ...Our boss once said we were to sign performance contracts with him showing our annual objectives, but this was not done. ...All of us were moved by this innovation because we were told it would involve identification of all necessary requirements to achieve every objective agreed upon ...minimizing the myriad of undue performance

blames the management imposes on the teacher every time he or she is not adequately facilitated to perform!

By these findings, it was revealed that a performance management strategy vacuum existed in the PEDP and SEDP design and practices. This vacuum could be detrimental to realization of reform objectives because in reiteration of Armstrong's (2006:496) argument; a performance management strategy requires ensuring capacity development of teachers to meet and exceed expectations, and achieve their full potential for own benefits, their schools and the sector as a whole. To the contrary, teachers experienced a lack of required support and guidance to develop, improve and perform. There was no strategy to clarify the scope of teachers' and heads of schools' roles for establishing a high performance culture that would guide its management. Lack of such a strategy diminished the opportunity of teachers to benefit from documents like schemes of work, lesson plans and notes as tools for managing their own performances. Furthermore, there was a performance management laxity resulting from ambivalence between using EF.117 despite the shortfalls it exhibited, or the popular OPRAS which was operational elsewhere in the public sector but in education sector.

Armstrong (op.cit) considers performance management as a systematic process which must improve organizational performances by developing individuals and teams. In the context of these reforms, performance management had to ensure strategies were set for realization of intended changes, goals and objectives. Methods, strategies and techniques ensuring teachers' commitment to teaching differently for students learning differently were required. Interview responses indicated the teachers' preference of open to closed systems of managing performances, therefore concurring with Armstrong's (2006:503) position about open systems in terms of being flexible, evolutionary and regarding appraisee as partners. Closed systems as depicted in EF.117 were considered rigid, top-down and solely owned by the appraiser. The interest of teachers was located in a system which involved them as partners and allowing a dialogue in determination of the extent of employee and employer's contributions and shortfalls towards realization of goals and objectives. A

number of factors influencing the performance of teachers but not considered in current performance management system were identified as including over-crowded classes, inadequate supply of textbooks and other resources, uneven distribution of teachers between schools, lack of in-service training during introduction and implementation of changes, and lack of teachersøhouses in majority of schools.

The views in the teachersø responses were synonymous to Don Haywardøs (Caldwell and Hayward, 1998:39-80) in =Schools of the Futureø(1992-1996) model utilized in reforms of Victoria Australia. The frameworks deriving in both views urged for establishment of curriculum and standards that would prevail across all schools; for determination of staffing levels and strategies for managing performances towards set goals. According to Hayward (Caldwell and Hayward, op.cit), establishment of school curricula and standards depended on two basic assumptions about teachers and heads of schools. Teachers on one hand were considered as individual professionals to have contracts of service with their schools, and the heads of schools on the other hand had to ensure there were teams in their schools constituted of strong, effective and contributing professional teachers. According to him, combination of these considerations were pillars for holding each member accountable to maximum performances in identification of performance areas and required skills, development of performance plans, and review of ensuing performances on basis of agreed objectives and plans.

The implications of the teachersøviews and Haywardøs Model to management of teachersø performances in these reforms suggested a process which would begin by encouraging the teachers to develop their own objectives to improve studentsølearning. This in turn would require teachers and their supervisors (heads of schools) to jointly identify the areas in the teachersøindividual performances which required to be developed (competence mapping) in order to achieve the desired objectives. Identification of shortfalls in the individual performances and development of requisite skills and competences would position and equip the teachers for studentsø improved learning. Secondly, it suggested a process

comprising of joint supervisor-teacher planning and monitoring of performances. This was important because it would empower teachers with skills, competences and resources on one hand, and ensuring competent delivery of instructions for studentsø improved learning on the other hand. This could involve school based and external empowerment activities depending on the objectives to be achieved vis-a-vis internal conditions of the school. The plans would then be converted into contracts between teachers and their supervisors showing what the latter had to provide for the formersø achievement of agreed levels of performances.

In its third stage, the process would entail a review of teachersøperformances. Although the Hayward Model had only one review at the end of the year, OPRAS and other writers in the literature (Armstrong, 2007) recommend two reviews for close follow-ups and assessing if the planned objectives were being achieved or not for immediate correction of errors. These were to be conducted jointly by the teachers and their heads of schools on basis of previously agreed objectives. The reviews highlight on different factors which might influence the achieved performance. Areas of consideration include skills, competences and resources identified previously as pertinent for the teachersøability to achieve given levels of performances, and the extent they have utilized them to achieve acquired performances. Therefore, in the second cum annual review the achieved performances are measured to determine the extent at which the previously agreed objectives have been accomplished. According to Armstrong (2006:500) such reviews are guided by two principles which are relevant to school and education reforms. First; the process must be collaborative and entailing coaching, counseling, feedback, tracking, recognition and other aspects which encourage development. Second; both heads of schools and staff members must identify and ask for what they would need for doing bigger and better delivery of studentsø instructions, moving them to strategic development of their schools.

Furthermore, convergence of Hayward model and the views in the teachersø interview responses was based on interest of teachers to participate in reforms programmes which

develop them professionally, and recognize them as indispensable contributors. The teachers expressed their dissatisfactions in reform programmes which did not reform them professionally; into better and more competent contributors. The Hayward model resolved the issues by inclusion of Teachersø Professional Development Programme (TPDP) and Professional Recognition Programme (PRP) as integral components of the reform process. TPDP on one hand improved the professionalism of individual teachers through training, so that in turn, they inspired, incited and guided the learning of students as professionals. It helped teachers achieve their personal objectives in terms of improved studentsø learning. Teachers were the key players in the planning of individual training programmes. The government provided the resources required for development and implementation of individual teacher development programmes. PRP on the other hand aimed to ensure that improved performance was recognized in various ways including increased remunerations. Highly skilled teachers received substantial recognition for their skills and contributions to the studentsø learning, without taking them out of the classrooms. This followed an observation that teachers tended to aspire for better-paying management posts after in-service trainings. The programme therefore resorted to allow the salaries of classroom teachers to overlap the salaries of Principal Class depending on training and ensuing contributions in delivering classroom instructions to students. Participation in this programme was voluntary with teachers applying to join, thus declaring their discretion to performance-related pay increases. As such, the interview responses, TPDP and PRP were instructive on the positive association existing between teachersøperformance on one hand, and training and rewards on the other. Such association could be reinforced further if the management process recognized the work and contributions of teachers through better remunerations and other rewards, thus increasing the level of employee motivation.

Thus, the implications deriving from review of teacher performance management strategies were threefold. First; it was important to have a performance management strategy aligning the teachersøperformances to overall reform objectives, by empowering them to meet and exceed expectations, and achieve their full potentials for their own benefits, their schools

and the whole community. Such empowerment is usually founded on teacher training and development that clarify goals and objectives, levels of performances and the methods through which such levels can be achieved. Secondly; open systems are more effective to managing performances of teachers than closed ones. The findings showed that the objectives of these reforms were not being realized partly because teacher performance management processes did not encourage involvement of appraisee in identification of means and resources for carrying out reforms, dialogue between appraiser and appraisee, and guiding and coaching of appraisee. Thirdly; high performance of teachers in reforms is motivated by programmes which consider their professional development and contributions they make to studentsø learning. As such, a reform process would enhance teacher performance if it helped teachers achieve their personal objectives in terms of improved studentsølearning and if the government provides the resources required for achievement of these personal development objectives, as well as rewarding them according to performances, or as they wish. The issues in teacher performance management and practices which influenced the reform process could therefore be summarized as presented in Table 4.7:

Table 4. 7: Issues in Teachers' Performance Management

Issues		Reform Practices
• Strategies for coaching, guiding, and rewarding teachers.		- <u>Ambivalence between using EF.117 or OPRA system in managing performances of teachers</u>: • Teachers practically manage their own performances through traditional schemes of work, lesson plans and notes, subject logs and time-tables. • EF.117 rates the expected quality and quantity of work and behavioural standards, not strategies for their acquisition. • OPRAS is officially not in use in schools although operational in other public sectors. - <u>Inadequacy of Heads of schools as supervisors of teacher performance records</u>: • Never rejects a record on basis of quality. • Never relays feed-backs. • Seldom coaches or guide.

		• Never identifies areas for individual teacher development. • Sets no standards. • Questionable conversance in some areas. • Busy with other reform responsibilities. - <u>Incompetence of the system to create culture enabling individuals to take responsibilities and improve performances</u>: • Socio-economic hurdles de-railing teachers from optimal teaching. • Low teacher entry qualifications and trainings with extra emphasis on methods (impede competent performances).
• Achievement of required competences, goals and standards.		

4.2.5   REWARDS MANAGEMENT

Teachersø perceptions regarding the adequacy and proportionality between the teaching roles and reward packages during and after reforms were examined to understand the strategies employed by reforms to manage rewards. Reward policies, practices, processes and procedures were explored to identify various adjustments and the extents they were geared to reform goals and objectives. This based on assumptions that reforms were to address demoralized and dissatisfied teachersø problems due to the working conditions which on average consisted of poor remunerations compared with other professions. It also based on a conception of reward management as consisting of formulation and implementation of strategies and policies which compensate people fairly, equitably and consistently in accordance with their value to the organizations, thus helping the organizations to achieve their strategic goals.

When the teachers were asked to give their views regarding the proportionality between the workloads and remunerations after introduction of PEDP and SEDP, the responses mirrored a dissatisfaction which reflected the existence of underpayments, humiliation and dishonor. Dominant expressions were such as ŌŌmore roles but low paymentsø, Ōunrealistic paymentsø and Ōheavier teaching for reduced pays.ø For example interviewee No.3 at school S2 summarized it:

> ...SEDP demands from us are so exorbitantly though it provides less than what we previously got from the job. Expanded enrolment has resulted in very large classes requiring active involvement of each student in the teaching-learning process. ...Once there was a teaching allowance filling up the income gap created by such large classes ...it is not there today. We devised ₌Tuitionø teaching to earn something and make ends meet but no sooner it was declared unlawful! ...The government used to care for teachersø medical treatments but we now contribute to that through mandatory Medical Insurance Fund. í There are several siphons draining our incomes like house rents, fares to and from work etc, etc. ...What I usually take home at the end of the month sustains me merely to the fifth day of another month!

These responses inclined on a line between the periods prior and after the reforms. The responses suggested that remunerations relapsed as reforms unfolded. The perception of adequate remunerations in these responses resembled what Armstrong (2006:629-31) referred to as Total Reward: a combination of financial and non-financial incentives. In the teachersø views, a reward package had not be limited to basic pays alone, but would also consider contingent or variable pays for additional skills and contributions they rendered, employee benefits (as for medical treatments), transport allowances, rent assistances and other non-financial rewards. Notwithstanding the public service and other reforms which were on-going, teachersø assessment of their reward packages revealed a waning trend. The base pays were quantitatively increasing but declining in terms of value. Teaching allowance was suspended diminishing the contingent pays which teachers were once enjoying before the advent of reforms, but which these reforms did not reinstate as expected. Teachersø employee benefits in relation to transport and medical charges were partially or wholly transferred to teachers for shouldering, further diminishing their monthly net pays. By these assessments, reform process had made teachers earn less than what they expected it would provide, by disturbing the different components constituting their total reward package. This demoralized them from optimal contributions. Furthermore, the apparent underpayments were expressed in practices other than pay sizes as was revealed by interviewee No.2 in the focus group discussion at School P4:

> ...Apart from low remunerations being a critical concern to all public servants, it is worse for teachers. The government describe the economic conditions as not favouring pay increases when teachers raise the issue, but colleagues in TRA, the Armies and TANROADS for example have had their salaries increased sometimes more than threefold from the same economy! ...The other time we were told teachers are too many

for the government paying all of them well! With expanded enrolment, should the government want to teach many pupils by few teachers? What heavier workloads do colleagues in TRA and Armies have which teachers do not have? How is this assessed?

The teachersøcomparison of their reward packages in relation to other groups of employees showed a significant variation in favour of other groups. They reiterated the governmentøs explanations that the country was undergoing economic hardships. However, this did not appeal to teachers because other work groups in the same economy had considerably better pays. The large size of teachersøworkforce was unacceptable as a reason for low payments because reforms were expanding the studentsø enrolment, consequently requiring the involvement of large number of teachers for its execution. According to Armstrong (2006:624), fairness and equity were some of the aims for managing rewards. Rewards were managed fairly if employees felt that they were being treated justly in accordance with what was due to them because of their value to the employing organizations. Rewards were managed equitably if employees were rewarded appropriately in relation to others within the organization, if relativities between jobs were measured as objectively as possible, and if equal pay was provided to work of equal value. Both aims could only be achieved through job evaluation: a process which defines the relative worth or sizes of jobs; establishes their internal relativities; and provides the basis for designing equitable grade structures, job grades and management of relativities. This therefore required thorough analyses of jobs and demands made on them for determining appropriate factors upon which comparison of jobs had to base. The idea was that Central Public Service Department which had a mandate on all public service work groups could have been involved in the reform process so that jobs were evaluated and ranked for more objective determination of pay variations. This view prompted the teachers at school P4 to transform into a focus discussion group to compare teaching and careers in other organizations, particularly Tanzania Revenue Authority (TRA), Tanzania National Roads Agency (TANROADS) and the Army. This aimed to clarify the allegations that it was unjust to pay teachers more lowly than others, for example in the foregoing organizations. Interviewees at school P4 started by employing a paired comparison technique (a quantitative technique) to derive to findings

summarized in table 4.8:

Table 4. 8: A paired comparison between selected jobs

JOBS	Soldier	Accountant	Technician	Teacher	Total Score	Ranking
Soldier	-	0	1	0	1	4
Accountant	2	-	1	1	4	2
Technician	1	1	-	0	2	3
Teacher	2	1	2	-	5	1

Key: 0= The job in this row is less important than another in a column converging at this cell.
1= Jobs converging at this cell are equal in importance.
2= The job in this row is more important than another in a column converging at this cell.

Table 4.8 compared each job separately with other jobs. In this comparison, the soldier for example; was representing all other colleagues in armies, while a civil engineering technician represented the colleagues in TANROADS. An accountant was a representative of others in the TRA. Scores were distributed on basis that two points were given to a job (identified in a given row) whose value was considered to be higher than that of another job (identified in columns) with which it was being compared. If the two jobs were equally important one point was given to each of the two and zero point if it was considered as less important. The scores for different jobs were ranked and showed that teachers were considering themselves as the most important of others with whom they were compared in table 4.8. They therefore did not see rationale to deserve lowest remunerations. However, these results were challenged on the basis that they could easily be interpreted as teachersø stigma and biasness against other professions. As such, the exercise was reviewed using a Point-Factor evaluation technique (also a quantitative technique). This involved the analysis of the four jobs into key elements representing their demands on job-holders, competences required and impacts they made. The analysis and comparison results were thereafter summarized as presented in table 4.9:

Table 4. 9: Point-Factor Evaluation across Selected Jobs.

FACTORS/JOBS	**Soldier**	**Accountant**	**Technician**	**Teacher**
Entry qualifications	1	2	3	2
Training	1	3	3	3
Communication and contacts	1	2	1	2
Judgement/Decision making	1	2	3	3
Impact	2	2	2	3

People Management	1	1	1	2
Freedom to act	1	2	3	3
Working Environment	2	2	2	3
Responsibility for Working Resources	3	2	3	2
TOTAL SCORE	13	18	21	23
RANKING	4	3	2	1

Key: 1=Low value factor; 2=Moderate value factor; and 3=High value factor.

The scores in this evaluation were distributed on the basis of a three-point rating scale where 1 represented a low value in respective factor, 2 for a moderate value, and 3 for a high value. The results obtained using both techniques coincided on rank of the teaching career that, again it was considered the most important in this comparison, but the least remunerated. The point-factor rating varied with paired comparison in cases of Accountants and Technicians who exchanged the second and third positions. Soldiers were ranked the least important in both ratings. By these results, the teachersøassertions (subjective views) presented in foregoing FGD findings were partially confirmed that rewards management policies, practices, processes and procedures were neither fair nor equitable. The debate went on to realize that there was never conducted any more transparent job-evaluation in the past for everyone concerned to know the basis upon which rewards were shaped, as it is advised in the related literature (see Armstrong, 2006:660). With lack of such transparency and involvement, it remained unclear if teachersø and other employeesø subjective views about rewards were carried on board by reforms to rationalize job grades, grade structures and management of relativities.

Other reward management related problems which teachers identified as constituting their failed expectations in the reform agenda were about improved services with regard to housing, transport and medical care, as well as rationalization of workload such that assignments done over and above their official duties were remunerated accordingly. Some of the examples cited to demonstrate the incidences of inadequate payments include participation in national census, elections, supervision of national examinations and campaigns activities like literacy and immunization programmes. The perceived inadequacies were typified by interviewee No.4 at school P1 saying that:

> ...One would even wonder if there exits any employment contract between teachers and

their employers because we are very frequently asked to do any kind of work even if it is unrelated to teaching ...without allowing us any space to bargain or consent for these additional responsibilities. We will simply be told on short notice to participate in activities such as elections, national census or malaria and ‑Kilimo Kwanzaøcampaigns. Participation in such activities usually require more than official working time ...but intimidations usually replace negotiations to compel us accept whatever payments they offer, if any!

The responses revealed the frustrations existing in teachersø employment contracts, consequently demoralizing them from working optimally. Teachers were parties in the contracts but not active participants in their design and execution in the sense that the employers unilaterally extended the scopes without consents of other sides. Such bleaches of employment contracts by employers were initially observed by the Task Force (URT, 1993:17) impliedly making it a potential item on the reform agenda. They recommended a system of standard workloads at different levels of teaching career. According to them, the teacher would be awarded his or her normal pay if the teacher-student ratios (TPR) were 1:40 in primary schools, 1:28 in secondary schools, 1:20 in tertiary level institutions and 1:8 in higher education. Any work exceeding these prescriptions therefore, would require adequate additional remunerations. In relation to expanded student enrolment entailed in these reforms, more teachers were to be proportionally recruited or else remunerate the existing number accordingly in form of over-times. The TPR statistics in the schools of the sample showed that teachers were still subjected to teaching very large classes with relatively same reward policies, practices and procedures even after reforms. For example, the records in the four primary schools of the sample indicated the actual TPR were 1:83, 1:97, 1:63 and 1:59 during the study. Such was the situation in district D3 first PEDP implementation quarterly report for 2009 where the relationship between numbers of students, resources and supplies was presented as follows:

> *"…district has 150 public schools. Enrolment in public schools for 2006 is 88,690 pupils; 43,968 are boys and 44,722 are girls. There are 1,092 permanent classrooms, 1,447 teachers and 315 teachers' houses. There are 18,700 desks and 1,245 pit latrines…"*

These findings indicate that the PTR was 61.3 in this district. All districts of the sample had PTRs higher than prescribed average as also noted in the schools of the sample, reiterating

the national average as indicated in table 4.10 which compares Tanzania with other selected countries:

Table 4. 10: Teacher Pupils Ratios in Primary Schools: Tanzania and Selected Countries

	Teacher Pupils Ratios			
COUNTRY	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**
Tanzania	58	56	52	53
Kenya	40	45	44	46
Uganda	50	50	49	57
Burundi	51	49	54	52
Rwanda	62	66	66	69
Zambia	49	51	51	49
Swaziland	32	33	33	32

Source: URT (2009)

The findings from three levels of PEDP implementation confirmed the claim that teachers were teaching over and above the prescribed workloads. This source also showed the TPR at the public secondary school level in Tanzania as 1:26(2005), 1:31(2006), 1:38(2007), 1:41(2008) and 1:49(2009), implying the workloads grew with years of reform implementation (URT, 2009:60). However, these national, district and school averages were considered unreliable basis for actual understanding of teachers' workloads because they concealed the situations in the classrooms where actual teaching was located and where ensuing base, contingent and variable pays had to be computed. It was also found that with the growing sizes of primary schools, the headteachers and other teachers assuming administrative roles were slowly divorcing from classroom teaching, implying that the real gaps between actual and desired TPRs were even bigger.

On the other hand, it was noted that the pay levels for public school teachers were somewhat adjusted as reforms implementation was underway, although this was not in equal proportion as teachers'workloads were adjusting. Variations were observed in the pay schemes for teachers and other public service employees of the same background education and duration of training. Sample pay and workload data were summarized as indicated in Table 4.11:

Table 4. 11: Workloads and Entry Pay Levels: Teachers And Comparable Cadres

Financial Year	TPR	Base Entry Pays (TSh)	% of Increase	Comparable Jobs Base Entry pays	% of Increase	Real GDP Growth Rates (%)	*Inflation Rates (%)
2002/2003	1:57	63,300	(22.9)	55,520	(12.0)	5.5	4.8
2003/2004	1:58	68,360	7.9	59,960	7.9	6.0	4.4
2004/2005	1:56	74,570	9.0	65,410	9.0	6.3	5.4
2005/2006	1:52	80,790	8.3	70,870	8.3	7.5	4.3
2006/2007	1:53	93,640	15.9	82,140	15.9	6.7	5.9
2007/2008	1:54	104,880	12.0	88,050	7.1	7.1	7.0
2008/2009	1:54	131,100	25.0	110,060	24.9	7.4	10.3
2009/2010	n.a.	136,800	4.3	114,910	4.4	6.0	12.1

* Inflation rates were obtained from www.inflationdata.com, on 15th February 2011.

On one hand, the findings in table 4.6 partly disagreed with the teachersøassertions that the reward policies, practices, processes and procedures disfavored them relative to other cadres, and on the other they agreed with the assertions in relation to fairness, equity and consistency of compensations. In this analysis, newly recruited grade IIIA teachers were compared with other cadres of government employees possessing ordinary level secondary education and two years of professional training. The period between the start of PEDP and collection of relevant data (2002/2003 to 2009/2010) was used to study this trend. It was found that teachers had been remunerated relatively more highly than other government employees with similar qualifications, considering base pays as a major reward variable. Throughout the period, teachersøbase pays were about fourteen percent (14%) higher than those of colleagues in comparable jobs. However, the audit of this reward system revealed other differentials between teachers and other cadres. For example; the fourteen percent margin existing between teachersø salaries and other cadres were reduced to only six percent after eight years of employment, due to variations existing in annual increments. Teachersø salary increments were about eighty percent (80%) less than increments for comparable jobs. Related government circulars showed that, for example, the annual increments for teachers and other cadres were TShs.710 versus TShs.1,300 (2003/2004), TShs.780 versus TShs.1,420 (2004/2005), TShs.850 versus TShs.1,540 (2005/2006),

TShs.990 versus TShs.1,780 (2006/2007) and so on. Consequently, individual teachersø salaries tended to grow relatively more slowly than salaries for other cadres.

Another equity and fairness related observation in the reward practices was the way monthly pays were calculated. This was on the basis that a worker would be on duty for eight hours a day, for five days a week. In case of teachers, both PEDP and SEDP documents showed the number of students in a class had to be fourty. The findings in table 4.6 show that on average, teachers in Tanzania handled larger classes than what they were remunerated for, notwithstanding the situations in individual schools where TPRs were as high as 97 (school P2) or more in some schools. In case of the cadres in comparable jobs, workers were entitled to over-time payments whenever they worked longer than stipulated durations or performances. To teachers, this was a shortfall in a reward strategy meant to maintain practices and processes which further the achievement of goals. It further implied inadequate address of teachersø variable payments in these reforms, especially related to rewarding the teaching of oversize classes which varied between schools. Likewise, additional performances, contributions, skills or experiences whose payments were not consolidated to base pays had to be systematically guided to allow teachers apply for participation in such activities and bargain for equitable and fair payments. In their view, variable payments would be better managed if it was made a responsibility of heads of schools. Interviewee No.2 of school S3 observed that õí payments for assignments coming beyond official workloads and time be borne by heads of schools because they are the ones who clearly know who has done what!ö Related to deductions, teachersøactive participation was preferred to address the different subtractions subjected on their monthly pays like was the case in pension, health insurance and trade union contributions, hence the policies guiding their employment benefits. The findings showed that teachers were subjected to six percent (6%) mandatory subscriptions for health insurance and Teachersø Union contributions (3%) each.

The findings in table 4.7 also indicated that increases of base pays were higher than national real GDP increases, except for year 2009/2010 when it was vice versa. The teachersøsalary

increments for fiscal year 2007/08 were higher than the real GDP and increments for comparable jobs, both of which increased by 7.1%. However, these adjustments did not significantly improve the teachersøwelfare due to inflation which was also high (between 4.8% and 12.1% during the time of analysis). The increase in exchange rate between Tanzania shilling (TSh.) and American dollar (US$) testified this. The teachersø2002/2003 entry pay which was TSh. 63,300 was more than doubled to become TSh. 136,800 in 2009/2010. During the same period the exchange rate increased from TSh.900 to TSh.1440 per one dollar. This implied that this salary had only increased from US$70.3 to US$95 between 2002 and 2010, which was a mere 35% upward adjustment, as opposed to 116% increase face value which Tanzania shilling (TSh.) pay medium was reflecting.

Interview responses further revealed that the employeesø benefits related policies were introduced to enable workers to acquire loans and curb the shocks emanating from inequitable pays. These loans were acquired from various institutions including governmentøs own banks such as National Bank of Commerce (NBC) and National Microfinance Bank (NMB). However, the responses further showed that the interests charged were so high that they further diminished the teachersøalready low incomes. The findings were suggestive of considerably cheaper approach as was presented by interviewee No.3 of school S4:

> The government knows it is expensive borrowing from NBC or NMB which it subjects us to, because these are its own banks. It also knows it has our money in PSPF, PPF, NSSF and other such institutions where it can facilitate procedures for extending interest free loans to us as members, provided they did not exceed oneøs total contributions so far made to that fund. ...This is a matter of decision and commitment to helping teachers otherwise there are numerous avenues!

Whereas NMB and NBC were banks where the government held full or majority of shares, PSPF (Public Service Pension Fund), PPF (Parastatal Pension Fund) and NSSF (National Social Security Fund) were pension funds relying on membersø contributions. Teachers opined that the funds cum pension schemes could extend loans to members. Bank loans were reasonably small to the teachersø needs because they were pegged to the monthly salaries in the sense that deductions were not to exceed 30% of base pays. Teachers

preferred using their pension contributions because they were own and larger bases to enable securing of bigger but low or interest-free loans. They advocated employment benefits which would contribute to achievement of attractive and competitive remunerations, consequently attracting and retaining high-quality teachers into the service. The argument was that teaching differently for studentsø learning differently as were required in these reforms implied attraction of high-quality and motivated teachers. Reforms had therefore to revise the pension schemes, personal securities, financial assistance policies, personal needs and other benefits potential for improving the living standards of teachers.

The findings were therefore suggesting the absence of a holistic approach relying on multiplicity of mechanisms operating in unison. They suggested a total reward approach integrating all types of rewards in one, coherent whole. The view agreed with Manus and Grahamøs (in Armstrong, 2007) which advocate a mechanism combining intrinsic as well as extrinsic, and direct as well as indirect rewards. They further opine that a sound reward mechanism should combine tangible transactional rewards which arise from operations between teachers and employers concerning pay and benefits, and intangible relational rewards which arise as a result of learning, development and work experiences. These opinion and the findings therefore implied that unless reward policies, practices, processes and procedures were efficient, the quality related problems identified at the advent of the reform process could not be resolved. Resolution of such problems required motivating teachers to teach differently for students learning differently, which in turn was a function of sound reward management and mechanisms.

As such, analysis of the findings relating to teachersø reward management looked at a pattern constituted of issues about the teachersøreward package and the extent it was total, fair, equitable and consistent on one hand, and another pattern of related field practices revealed by the findings on the other hand. In this discussion and analysis, the two patterns are matched as summarized in table 4.12 therefore suggesting that the issues in teacher

reward management were neither resolved nor adequately addressed by the reforms:

Table 4. 12: Issues in Teachers' Rewards Management

Issues		Field Practices
• Total Reward remunerations that comprise financial and non-financial incentives. • Fairness, Equity and Consistency in managing the Teachersø Rewards.		- <u>The different components waived from pay packages not reinstated by reforms:</u> • Teaching allowances not reinstated. • Medical treatments paid through teachersø contributions to the National Health Insurance Fund (NHIF). • Mandatory teachersø contributions to the pension funds. • Rent assistance not reinstated. • Transport allowance not considered. - <u>Unfair and inequitable remunerations for teachers relative to other careers:</u> • Missing information on job evaluation defining and establishing relativities between jobs; thus providing basis for grades, structures and management of relativities. • Teachers remunerated more lowly than others in cadres requiring equal or lower demands to job-holders, competences and impact to society. • Additional demands onto the teaching role without parallel increases in remunerations. • Assignments extending beyond prescribed time and competences not accordingly paid, or paid without involving teachersø negotiations. - <u>Inconsistency in the management of teachersø remunerations:</u> • Prescribed standards (PTR, working hours etc) not guiding reward and remunerations (e.g. over-time) as done in other careers.

The discussion now turns to recruitment and induction of heads of schools to examine the strategies that were set to ensure the reforms were efficiently and effectively managed at school level.

4.3   RECRUITMENT AND INDUCTION OF HEADS OF SCHOOLS

The heads of schools were a second element in the school level human resource ±teachingø category of respondents. They were studied to examine the strategies employed in their

recruitment and training to effectively manage reforms at school level. The assessment attempted to establish the extent at which merit was observed in their selection, and whether they were efficiently inducted for taking up school leadership and management roles. Content analysis of related documents at school, district and regional levels on one hand, and interviews to the heads of schools on the other hand were employed to collect data on these issues.

4.3.1   RECRUITMENT, SELECTION AND INDUCTION

It was observed in the related literature that the heads of schools were middle managers performing leadership and managerial roles requiring knowledge, understanding and competences related to management and leadership of change in reforming institutions (Fullan, 1991). Like other people, heads of schools had a number of latent potentials for taping into the process, particularly those related to working as both leaders and managers (Senge 1990, Fullan 1991). As such, they were to be adequately audited and nurtured in terms of decision making and policy formulation potentials so that they effectively took up reform leadership and managerial roles. In their leadership roles, they had to articulate the reform mission, direction and inspiration to the participants, while as managers they had to design and carry out plans, get things done, and work effectively with people. For heads of schoolsø optimal performances in these roles, they required being carefully selected and stabilized (Lortie, 1987).

Under this task, the study sought to register the head of schoolsø descriptions of the process through which they were selected and recruited to school headships. The responses from four sample heads of schools revealed the selection of heads of schools as being conducted on basis of information deriving from one or more of three major sources. The sources were the school inspectorsøreports, Ward Education Coordinatorsø(WEC) recommendations and or Annual Confidential Reports. These findings were counter-checked against various reform-related documents to reveal that both PEDP (URT, 2006) and SEDP (URT, 2007b) were silent about the modalities through which selection and induction of heads of schools

had to be effected. On selection, the responses indicated that whereas the District Education Officer was the appointing authority for primary school headteachers, the Permanent Secretary in the Ministry of Education was the appointing authority for heads of secondary schools. In both cases, the responses did not testify inclusion in the reform process; of open, competitive and transparent selection of school level managers. It was learnt from interviewee No.1 at school P1that, õí the process and criteria for selection are only known to the DEO who appointed me to this position í it is not easy to objectively say if my being appointed was based on recommendations from other people or institutions.ö This resembled the responses by the head of school S3 that; õí I had worked for four years as academic master of another school when the Permanent Secretary transferred me to this school as its head. I cannot say this appointment emanated from inspection reports because I had not been inspected!ö The two responses discarded the possibility that the selection of heads of schools was by any rate open and or transparent. It was also noted that none of the heads of schools of the sample was appointed through competitive procedures like interviews, written examinations, presentations and other field based outputs. There were no evidences that openness, competition and transparency had characterized selection and recruitment of heads of schools.

Openness, competition and transparency were the elements desired for making recruitment and selection not only fair, but also promoting academic leadership and administrative competences. The task force (URT, 1993:46) had a view that absence of one or more of these ideals would militate against reform and institutional efficiency and effectiveness. As such, the recommendations were adapted by ETP (URT, 1995) that primary school headteachers had to possess ÷Oø level education and above, and a Certificate in Education Management and Administration. In the secondary school sub-sector, the policy instruct the heads of secondary schools to possess first degrees in Education Major, at least five years of teaching experience and a Diploma in Education Management and Administration. It was found that the heads in the schools of the sample were all in possession of required academic and professional qualifications but none had formal managerial qualifications stipulated in ETP. Nevertheless, it was revealed that some teachers had undergone formal

educational management courses but were never appointed as heads of schools. For example head of school S4 observed that:

> í Some colleagues went for a two-year Educational Management Training Course at ADEM but none is currently working as a head of school! They were all posted to other senior offices. í After all; I think one is not simply selected to such courses because procedures are not open to all í all beneficiaries of these scholarships are moved out of schools and classroom teaching to work in district offices as DEOs, SLOs or School Inspectors, possibly where efficient management is required.

Implied in these findings were a swap between training of school managers, appointment and practice at school level. Trained school managers were posted elsewhere in the system apparently appointing others without skills to manage the schools. It could also be deduced that in the view of the system and appointing authorities, trained and efficient managements were only required at levels other than schools whose management could rely on intuitions. Moreover, the reform heads of schoolsø recruitment and selection strategy had not considered providing a Certificate in Education Management and Administration as a prerequisite for efficient management of primary schools as the policy directs. ADEM provides training at a diploma level which the policy identifies as ideal for secondary schools.

It was also found that the appointing authorities for both primary school headteachers and the heads of secondary schools did not adhere to the criteria set for selection and recruitment of heads of schools. The District Education Officer (DEO) was the appointing authority for headteachers, and the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education and Vocational Training was the appointing authority for heads of secondary schools. Head of school S4 hinted on some of the reasons for authoritiesø non-adherence to recommended selection criteria:

> The education and training policy instructs that heads of schools should be holders of University degrees, but that was when secondary schools were still very few. Come SEDP; every ward has a school or two, and graduates are very few! ...majority of schools as we talk are led by diploma holders and some of them are just very good.

The findings suggest an increase in number of schools is a factor for recruitment of under-qualified staff as heads of schools. Comparing it with data from related documents, it was

revealed that the necessary qualifications were consistently scaled down as time went by. The Task Force's model of heads of schools in 1992 stipulated the academic, professional and administrative qualifications in order to ensure the institutions were led by adequately prepared, authoritative and administratively competent managers. For example the head of a secondary school had to hold a Bachelor of Education degree and five year teaching experience (academic and professional), and a Diploma in Education Management (administrative). Section 4.3.7 of ETP later in 1995 waved out the five year teaching experience criterion, allowing the appointment of heads of schools that had just finished basic professional training even if they had not taught in any class. The interview responses (school S4 above) reveal another turn of emphasis during PEDP and SEDP. Selection and appointment do not focus on any kind of qualifications, thus eroding the criteria even further.

When the four heads of secondary schools in the sample were appraised on basis of the task force model, none of them possessed all recommended qualifications. When they were appraised on basis of ETP standards, again it was found that none had undergone any professional training in educational management and administration. However, three of them were appointed to school headship after working for five or more years. Two heads of schools were diploma holders and the other two were University graduates. All of them had attended a three months education management workshop at ADEM upon appointment. In the primary education sub-sector, one teacher was appointed to school headship before he had acquired a grade IIIA qualification, although this was before the introduction of PEDP. In unison, the findings suggest there was a gap between policy formulation and implementation in the reform process. Academic, professional and administrative qualifications were all consistently scaled down with time to allow the system utilize available staff to manage the increasing number of schools.

On induction into school headship, descriptions given by the heads of schools revealed that some variations existed in terms of programme scope, content and timing. The headteacher

of school P1 said; "I was invited to a two week seminar at ADEM, where we learnt about leadership in schools, curriculum, school development, finance and committees." This was different from a one-day induction given to the headteacher of school P2 in the Municipal Hall; "it was all too brief and fast. In a one day workshop at the Municipal Hall we learnt about PEDP finances and reporting system." In SEDP counterpart, inductions were sometimes not immediate at the take-off of the programme. Head of school S2 revealed that:

> Darkness pervaded performance for about two years before the 2006 workshop at the Muslim University in Morogoro. ...emphasis centered on monies which schools were about to receive from the centre, in relation to our accountability as heads of schools. Little was said relating to curriculum for example! ...It was a bit confusing for educational change which did not have emphasis on curricular changes, teaching and learning, but school monies and relevant reports! ...Monies were thereafter managed and reported per given directives as opposed to curriculum and teaching which are still 'business as usual'

The findings underlined the importance of inductions by drawing a line between the period prior and after induction, and another between the areas covered in induction and others which were ignored. Supervision and management of curriculum and teaching remained the same because the head of school was not re-oriented in respect to direction of desired changes. In such a trend, performance of the heads of schools who did not receive any orientation (P3, P4, S1, S3 and S4) was likely to be below required change standards in programme funds and reporting on one hand, and curriculum, teaching and learning on the other hand.

In relation to heads of schools' adequate inductions, it was earlier found and reported from classroom teachers that this reform process required a shift from transmittal to participatory approach of delivering instructions. As much as possible, teaching had to see to it that theories were translated to day-to-day life practices. These shifts instructed for a number of things on the part of heads of schools' leadership and management practices. Heads of schools had to be conversant with planning and administration of school-based teacher development programmes depending on the needs and internal conditions of schools. They also had to shift from closed strategies of performance management to more open

approaches allowing appraisee to also actively take part to rate and determine his or her own performances. However, these were some of the areas in curriculum which none of induction programmes presented above covered explicitly. Faulty and absence of induction programmes consequently led to shelving of useful innovations as head of school P3 points out:

> The said changes are by large extent theoretical ó in the books! We are instructed to involve our staff in setting of annual performance objectives but this process is not clearly understood to me or any member of staff. ...On the other hand, we are instructed to abandon EF.117 of the previous system, which we fail to replace by OPRAS because nobody comes here to show us how it should operate. As a result we have not conducted any appraisal, now for three years.

School P3 belonged to the group whose heads were not invited in any induction programme, yet district and regional superintendents were not visiting that school to provide guidance. This suggested there existed an administrative aloofness which required bridging, either by frequent regional and district supervision visits to schools, or arranging for seminars and workshops where controversial issues could be clarified. Management of innovations required clear heads of schoolsøunderstanding of what the changes were about, involved roles and performance indicators for showing they were on or off the track. In Alpinøs (1954) view, inductions are useful for assisting the role incumbents to establish the initiating structures, organize and define group activities, incumbentsø relations to the groups by roles of each member, tasks to be accomplished and plans for getting things done.

It was learnt from the literature (URT, 1993:14) that unattractive terms and conditions of heads of schoolsø service were some of the causes for their underperformances. In that event, the heads of schools pointed to remunerations, housing and unclearly defined workloads as some of the areas which the reforms could have improved. It was also learnt that the terms and conditions of service for heads of schools were not changed by PEDP and SEDP as testified from the head of school S4:

> ...the role profiles signal additional responsibilities which require additional heads of schoolsø attention, resources and competences. ...However, there is no signal that teacher performances would be enhanced by revision of old terms and working

conditions. ...additional responsibilities might not be adequately accomplished midst low pays, lack of teachersø houses, congested classes, absence of teaching and responsibility allowances etc etc. ...the working conditions are too unconducive to motivate optimal performances.

The findings in these responses suggest that the terms and conditions of service were influencing the performance of employees, including heads of schools. Furthermore, that revision of such terms and conditions of service must accompany any changes in roles and working environment. In the foregoing responses, it is shown that PEDP and SEDP had increased the workloads of heads of schools without revising their related rewards, in its totality. It is opined that at least the reforms were to address problems which were already well-documented like the terms and conditions of service. Included in these, were employment contracts hereby considered rigid and engaging everyone as permanent-pensionable even if one would wish to opt for short time contracts. A number of terms and conditions given as requiring revisions included transfer practices not accompanied by relevant payments, unpredictable and unsystematic promotion practices, poor housing and or lack of housing allowances, responsibility allowances, over-time allowances and loan schemes which did not favor employees. In the heads of schoolsø views, the relationship between their performances and shocks they experienced was embedded in the terms and conditions of service. Head of school S4ø further response was instructive:

> You see; problems in the terms and conditions of our service are income-related. If these were resolved the income of employees would also improve. Now that they are not resolved, the employee is compelled to seek alternative income generators to bridge the gaps. As a result; the time, attention, knowledge, skills and competences which would wholly be spent on schools and students are split to other activities like ±tuitionø teaching, shamba work, poultry, petty business or seeking supplementary employments from other employers. ...We cannot ignore the fact that the teacher is compelled to serve several masters; ...reduce his individual investment on school, students and reforms generally ...because he must survive!

Therefore, the findings further revealed the impact of ignored revision of conditions of services. The findings suggest that the commitment of heads of schools to managing reforms was partially reduced by the persistence of old terms and conditions which undermined their incomes. Apparently, the reform process had not taken into consideration the views of heads of schools and other actors about the terms and conditions of service. As

Babyegeya (2007) correctly argues, seeking opinions of teachers and education administrators on management of issues like teacher motivations, costs of living, retention strategies, performance and reward management would result into service structures and salary scales felt by the involved actors including the school level education personnel, as fair and adequate.

As such, issues in heads of schoolsø recruitment, selection and induction were therefore summarized and matched with actual reform practices as shown in table 4.13:

Table 4. 13: Issues in Recruitment and Induction of Heads of Schools

Issues		Reform Practices

• Strategic definition of requirements, attraction and selection of heads of schools.		- <u>Unrevised terms and conditions of service for heads of schools, hence</u>:
		  • Unaddressed subjective views.
		  • Low motivation.
		  • Divided commitments

• Strategic recruitment and retention of quality heads of schools.		- <u>Patronymic selection and recruitment of heads of schools; hence</u>:
		  • Incompetent school level management and leadership of reforms.
		  • Lack of academic leadership and administrative competences at school level.

• Strategic orientation and provision of information on new/revised roles to engaged candidates.		- <u>Sporadic inductions offered to selected few heads of schools, hence</u>: • Varied scope and approach in managing reforms.

4.3.2   HEADS OF SCHOOLS' MANAGERIAL ROLES

This was examined by assessing the heads of schoolsøcompetences in technical and human dimensions. The related literature (Owen, 1988) showed that the heads of schoolsø managerial roles were constituted in administrative leadership whose administrative-hat

made them responsible for scheduling, programming, supplying, managing, and monitoring the activities of others. It was also shown (Fullan, 1991) that as managers, heads of schools had to design and carry out plans, get things done, and work effectively with people. At this juncture therefore, the study examined the heads of schoolsø competences to smoothly run the schools, by facilitating the use of established procedures and structures to achieve the reform goals through people.

The examination of Heads of Schoolsø management of human and non-human resources utilized the performance standards in Sergiovanniøs (1994) work on School Leadership. Here, staff management on one hand, and resource management and accountability on the other were considered the performance standards for heads of schoolsø management of human and non-human resources respectively. Specifically, the assessment was conducted assuming that heads of schools were leaders of school communities charged to ensuring accountability, supporting others and maximizing the school capability on one hand, as well as managing resources (human and non-human), risks, and school governance on the other. These were responsibilities related to goal-setting, policy-making, planning, budgeting, implementation (learning, teaching and support for learning and teaching) and evaluation (Caldwell and Spinks, 1998:210). These were examined in turn.

PEDP and SEDP goals from which the school goals cascaded were related to expansion of studentsø enrolment, improvement of quality of teaching and learning, capacity building of school committees and boards, institutional arrangements and cross cutting issues (URT, 2003:5-25). Ideally, the heads of schools were required to translate these into local contexts and derive to their own school level visions and missions (Caldwell and Spinks 1998; Fullan 1991). However, the findings showed that heads of schools were not efficiently involved in setting of school PEDP and SEDP goals, nor did the process recognize schooløs internal conditions for translation into focused vision and mission. This observation was confirmed by head of school P1 arguing that:

> ...Goal-setting and related prescriptions are done by the centre. ...Practically, we are

instructed to abide by central directives to the letter. í PEDP clearly says what the heads of schools must do and not do. ...However, we had to change the community contribution directive to go well with conditions in our school.

In this response it is found that as a programme; PEDP denied the head of school the capacity to actively participate in formulating the school reform goals. The goals were set centrally, later trickling down to school level without alterations except for daring heads of schools. The PEDP document confirmed this observation. Throughout the document, targets for different elements were clearly spelt out, all of which were national by outlook for other levels to abide without alteration. It did not go further to indicate for example; how many teachers, textbooks or classrooms would be made available for each region or district, for further redistribution to schools. In relation to education quality targets (URT, 2003:10-12) it identified professional development as an integral element of reforms, and that TSh.30, 000 (US.40$) would be put aside for every teacher in the service, for ten days of training every year of PEDP implementation. School based staff development programmes was the recommended model for teachersø academic and professional development (MANTEP, 1995:174-180). By implication, school based staff development programmes required head of schoolø active involvement in identification of staff training needs, setting of training targets and procurement of required resources. As such, it also implied retention of heads of schools that could competently assess training needs and manage the programmes. However, implementation reports availed at schools, districts and regional levels did not give clues for remittance of staff development funds to schools for heads of schoolsø redistribution according to needs. Furthermore, data on selection, recruitment and induction (previous section) show the majority of heads of schools as not sufficiently competent in managerial skills, including planning and administration of training programmes. PEDP had therefore theoretically decentralized staff development responsibilities to school level but related powers and resources were retained at the centre, inflicting the head of schoolø power and competence to practically set goals, plan and budget in these reforms. The funds for capitation and development grants were remitted to schools, but they also had prescriptions which the heads of schools were not allowed to change.

In his appraisal of local community capacity to facilitate school functioning, Mulengeki (2005) challenged the attitude and hesitation of the centre to decentralize power and resources on pretext that local levels in Tanzania did not have abilities to take decisions, support the moves and involve themselves in providing finance or control of quality education delivery. He concurred with Galabawa (1997) and Mushi, P.A.K., Mlekwa, V.M. and Bhalalusesa, E.P. (2004) that such powers and functions could be safely decentralized to school level managers provided related administrative, managerial and leadership skills were first extended to them. Decentralization had to be coupled with capacity building and empowerment strategies for the school level managersøeffectiveness in planning, problem solving, management of resources, project evaluation, book ó keeping and other competences in that order, and reforms serving as a mechanism addressing access, quality and equity related problems. Lack of training and capacity building strategies therefore partially explained the heads of schoolsø non-adherence to designs requiring their participation in goal-setting, policy making, planning and budgeting, which by default remained the domains of the central level in these reforms.

The other thing suggested in the findings above is lack of adequate involvement of heads of schools, as indispensable elements at school level. It was found that the heads of schools were told what to or not to do. However, Fullan (1991:203) argues that for the school level to be the centre of reform processes, the major actors were to be adequately and fully involved. According to him, this was where the prevailing conditions and circumstances were, for the change to work upon especially when significant and enduring results were the purpose. The findings in this study partially agree with Elmore (in Fullan, ibid) that it did not matter if such involvement of school level actors was through centralization or decentralization, provided it was played in four contested terrains. The terrains were classrooms, the school, the system and communities; all of which had to reflect in heads of schools managerial responsibilities. The heads of schools had to ensure that classrooms sustained enough authority and interest with students engaging in learning; that the schools created forms of organizations that rewarded teaching and learning competences; that the

systems were establishing schools which placed primacy on engagement in teaching and learning; and that the communities granted schools the discretion necessary for forming organizations fostering commitment to teaching and learning. Chapman (2005) summarized these as: learner-centered work, and focus on leadership and professionalism. Apparently, these could not be efficiently availed by any between centralization and decentralization extremes. Related to PEDP and SEDP the findings suggested that the programmes had to empower and involve the heads of schools for focusing on teaching and learning rather than centralization and decentralization of human and non-human management decisions. According to Fullan (1991) and these findings, it was high involvement and focus which would enhance the achievement of objectives, whether by centralization or decentralization strategies.

In spite of excessive centralization in human and non-human resource management, it was also noted that some responsibilities were entirely left under the heads of schools. They were directly charged to manage implementation and evaluate the programmes at school level. The position and discretion of heads of schools in implementation and evaluation of reform process were learnt from open records on the heads of schoolsøoffice notice boards. For example, the notice board at school S3 had a check list for standards and assessment of head of schoolsøadherence to set goals and targets as follows:

1. Allocation of subjects to teachers.
2. Preparation of timetables and weekly routine.
3. Supervision of teaching, lesson notes, schemes of work and subject logs.
4. Invitation of subject experts to teach and orient local staff.
5. Collection of TSh. 10,000 parentsøcontribution for part-time teaching.
6. Organize parentsøfinancial (or labour) contributions.
7. Organize local government partnerships through avenues like TASAF.
8. Organize teachers and students for environmental conservation.
9. Follow up of school development related committees and management team deliberations.
10. Organize fora for HIV/AIDS awareness e.g. school Baraza, debates, guest speakers, etc.

It was later learnt that the check-list was replicated from the head of schoolsø job descriptions provided in letters of appointment. The check-list was therefore a creation of

the centre rather than a manifestation of heads of schoolsøinnovativeness relative to school local environments. Such checklists characterized the practice of all heads of schools who were inducted on taking up the offices, insisting it was an approach emphasized from the centre. According to Harrisø Tractive-Dynamic continuum of administrative leadership (Owen, 1970:131) the head of school was required to facilitate the use of established procedures and structures for the schooløs achievement of its goals, while initiating changes governed by broader, cosmopolitan personal goals and assessment of school environment. Heads of schools had to abide to established procedures and structures while adjusting them as school environment would dictate. The check-lists which reproduced the dos and donøts instructed from the centre without alterations were found to fall on the second of the five levels of Harrisø continuum. The behaviour of heads of schools as administrators was that of ±enforcingø by seeking substantial uniformities in their practices, and effectiveness was gauged on that basis. This ignored the inputs from local environment which the emphasis of reforms was all about. In this case, the model (Harrisøs) was suggestive of effectiveness in the administratorsøimplementation of programmes if their behaviour transcended enforcing, to codifying, up-grading, restructuring and innovating. At the level of innovating, heads of schools would radically depart from existing practices and try out new ideas and innovations as opposed to mere enforcement of centrally determined orders and practices.

The implications deriving from administrative behaviour limited to ±enforcingø were twofold. First, PEDP and SEDP groomed the heads of schools cum reform managers that were not sufficiently capable of higher-order administrative skills required by reforming organizations. This conclusion was reached from observation that heads of schools did not practice goal-setting, policy making, planning and budgeting, which were strongly dominated by the central level. Such roles would require these school level managers to transcend to higher codifying, up-grading, restructuring and innovating levels of school administrative leadership. The heads of schoolsø access, equity and education quality administrative procedures presented above reflected the absence or marginal changes rather than departure from existing practices which reforms were meant to address. Secondly,

reform implementation powers and responsibilities should be centralized or decentralized depending on actual conditions of schools where change is implemented. As much as possible, heads of schools should be allowed freedom to translate and adjust to local conditions, all decisions and policies made by central level.

The heads of schoolsøtechnical and human dimensions were also assessed by examination of the extent they could apply relevant policies, procedures and practices among other indicators. In the context of this study policies referred to guidelines at disposal of the heads of schools for adopting to manage the reforms. They were philosophies which served as reference points in development and making of managerial practices and decisions. Procedures on the other hand were the ways in which certain managerial decisions were to be carried out by the heads of schools. Practices were actual innovations at school level which were adopted to realize the reform objectives. The extent the heads of schools could competently apply relevant policies, procedures and practices in managing access, equity and education quality improvement in their schools, gauged their effectiveness as managers of reforms at school level. Table 4.14 presents the summary of selected access, equity and education quality policies and procedures stipulated for PEDP and SEDP implementation, and the practices adopted at the school level to realize desired reform objectives.

Table 4. 14: Alignment between Selected Reform Policies, Procedures and Practices at School Level

Selected Policy Issues.	Recommended Procedures	Practices
A: ACCESS AND EQUITY		
3.2.3 Promotion and facilitation of access to educationally disadvantaged social and cultural groups.	- Enrolling all children between ages 7 and 13 years in primary schools. Basis of enrolment is age for primary schools, PSLE performance for 'O' level and 'O' level performances for 'A' level - Construction of 54,093 new classrooms nationally targeting a ratio of 40 students in a classroom. - Provision of TSh.3.2m for each PEDP classroom augmented by community contributions. - Provision of adequate quantity and quality school furniture. - Recruitment of 45,796 more teachers nationally targeting a system where one teacher attends 40 students on average.	- Enrolment was free from any forms of discrimination between males and females. - Overcrowded classes prevailed over and above target ratios. - Up to 50% of the sampled primary school pupils were sitting on floor; desks were not enough. - Unfinished construction of school buildings prevailed (classrooms, teachers' houses, toilets etc). - Special needs students enrolled in mainstream schools, and served with mainstream facilities. - Higher teacher student ratio than prescribed levels.
3.2.4 and 5.3.4 Universal Primary Education and compulsory attendance to 7 year aged children until they complete the cycle.	- Application of Education Act No. 25 of 1978 and subsequent amendments to enforce compulsory enrolment and attendances	- Reported Net Enrolment Ratio (NER) was between 80.7% (2002) and 94.8% (2005) nationally (URT, 2005:25). - Truancy and drop out cases were still prevalent.
3.2.10 Review of curriculum to strengthen and encourage participation and achievement of girls in science and mathematics.	- No laid down procedures.	- No school level practices.
3.2.11 Elimination of gender stereotyping through curricula, textbooks and classroom practices.	- No clearly laid down procedures.	- Similar classroom level treatment of students of different sexes.
3.2.12 Design and implementation of special in-service training programmes for women teachers. 3.2.15 Machinery for identification and development of gifted and talented children.	- No clearly laid down procedures.	- No school level practices
3.2.16 Ensuring adequate resources are available to enhance access and equity.	- 40% of capitation grants provided to schools to cater for textbooks, and 20% for other teaching resources identified by (primary) schools.	- Irregular provision of capitation grants. - Unpredictable community contributions.

	- Community contributions to augment PEDP and SEDP funds for school infrastructural development.	
3.2.17 Promotion of school feeding and health programmes.	- School committees and boards to deliberate and decide on the matters.	- Significant school feeding and health programmes not present.
B: MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION		
4.3.5&6 Constitution of school committee/ board for management and development planning of the school.	- Heads of schools to organize for constitution of these Organs per regulations issued by MoEVT. Potential Members identified are later on appointed by the Minister.	- School committees and boards constituted and appointed as required. Some members appointed after beginning of reforms were not availed opportunity for training.
C: EDUCATION QUALITY		
5.3.4 and 5.4.3 Standard infrastructure and facilities for schools.	- Set as directed; revealed to heads of secondary schools during induction programmes, administered under custody of school inspectors. - Provided in PEDP head of school instructions manual.	- Un-adherence to prescribed infrastructure standards relative to classrooms, furniture, toilets etc.
5.4.4 Minimum qualifications for teachers	- Teacher grade IIIA for primary schools, and possession of a valid diploma in education for secondary schools.	- Untrained teachers facilitating the teaching of new subjects introduced after curriculum review.
5.4.9 and 6.2.3 Medium of instructions; Compulsory teaching of Kiswahili and English up to 'O' level.	- School timetables which adhere to TIE specifications.	- Allocation and distribution of subjects in General timetables according to specifications by TIE.
6.2.4 Science and Technology as essential instructional components		
6.2.5 Promotion of teaching of humanities		
6.2.6 Civics and Social Studies as compulsory teaching up to 'O' level.		
6.2.7 Emphasis and promotion of merging theory and practice and general application of knowledge.	- Inclusion of life skills training in the school curricula.	- Life skills teaching, especially at primary school level conducted by teachers lacking required skills.
6.3.4 Facilitation of students' continuous assessments as bases for end of form 4 and 6 cycle certifications.	- Students' continuous assessment should contribute 50% of his or her form four or form six performances.	- Maintenance of students' continuous assessment records as instructed by National Examinations Council of Tanzania.

The findings in table 4.14 suggest that the practices which the heads of schools adopted to manage the reforms were cascading from the procedures stipulated in PEDP, SEDP, ESDP and other relevant documents; which cascaded further from Education and Training Policy of 1995 (URT, 1995). Consistency between the policy, procedures and practices adopted to manage reforms determined the potential of head of schooløs achievement of desired objectives. The competence of the head of school as a school level reform manager therefore rested in his or her ability to identify and adopt practices which could strategically assure the goals and objectives would be realized. It was about devising practices and activities that were supportive to accomplishing the mission per policies and procedures (US-OPM, 1999:15). Alignment of the three (policy, procedure and practices) would therefore reflect the degree a particular head of school was technically competent.

Examination of such consistency showed that some practices which the heads of schools were adopting did not align with results sought in related policies and procedures. For example, in regard to promotion and facilitation of access to education, all children of between 7 and 13 years of age had to be enrolled in schools, more classrooms would be constructed so that no more than 40 students were accommodated in one classroom, and supply of school furniture ensuring no student satisfying all registered students by recommended PTR. A standard desk was to be used by two students. These objectives were translated into procedures through PEDP provision of capitation and development grants remitted to schools. However, practices at schools during the study, were dominated by teaching environments which were in no way supportive to desired access standards. Classrooms were overcrowded, many students sat on floor and available desks were used by more students than stipulated numbers. There were half-finished building projects, and students with special educational requirements were not considered in design and construction of facilities. Shortfalls were also noted in achievement of quality objectives where new subjects like ICT and Work Skills in primary schools, and General Studies, =History-Geographyø and =Physics-Chemistryø in secondary schools were taught without

formal training to teachers. There was a short supply of necessary resources and facilities like textbooks, libraries and laboratories. Schools were understaffed both quantitatively and qualitatively. These and other shortfalls were explained in various ways including incapability of headships to adequately align their practices to policies and stipulated procedures.

Sergiovanni's (1994) categorization of the heads of schools' managerial tasks illuminated the analysis of findings in these reforms. In this categorization he identified two dimensions namely technical and human. In order to be technically competent, the head of school require being able to prioritize tasks and understand chains of events in cause-effect relationships. The findings in this study showed that the school level was not at the center of planning in these reforms. As such, school level managers could not be sufficiently involved in planning and policy formulation which in turn would uncover the heads of schools' competences to prioritize and understand chains of events in cause-effect relationships. He further asserts that heads of schools require being able to effectively plan, organize and coordinate school activities. The findings in this study showed school level planning, organizing and coordinating as embedded in the prescriptions of the centre. This did not only result to heads of schools' laxity and lack of innovation, but also concealed their capacities to plan, organize and coordinate administrative and instructional activities at school level. Prescriptions regarding promotion and facilitation of quality, equity and access to education which school level managers could not alter were the cases in point that were rendering these managers passive in critical responsibilities. In the human dimension, it was asserted that the heads of schools required managing staff by setting clear standards for others, creating accountability mechanisms for agreed outcomes and vision, and fostering environment of support. But this was in turn requiring appropriate induction, mentoring and appraisal strategies which the data show were not considered important leverages in these reforms. As such, excessive domination of school level planning, organizing and coordination by the central level, partly explained the laxity and failure of heads of schools to adequately manage reforms to desired objectives. This denied the heads of schools the

opportunity to practice and demonstrate their managerial skills and competences, much as the centre also denied itself the opportunity to identify the performance gaps in the heads of schools to empower them accordingly.

Thus, the patterns of issues in heads of schoolsø managerial roles on one hand and the related actual practices in the reforming schools of the sample could be summarized and matched as shown in table 4.15:

Table 4. 15: Issues in the Heads of Schools' Managerial Roles

Issues		Reform Practices
• Head of schoolø competence in the Technical dimension.		- <u>Head of schools receive prescriptions from the centre, hence not involved in planning and policy making</u>: • Excessive centralization conceals the heads of schoolsø competences to prioritize tasks and understand chains of reform events. • Practices which are not aligned with related policies and procedures. • Classroom, school and community practices not sufficiently fostering and rewarding teaching and learning.
• Heads of schoolø competence in the Human dimension.		- <u>Limited ability to set standard for others, create supportive environment and accountability mechanisms</u>: • Staff development programmes are not designed at school levels as desired. • Lack of appropriate induction, mentoring and appraisal strategies.

4.3.3   HEADS OF SCHOOLS' LEADERSHIP ROLES

Heads of schoolsø leadership roles were examined by assessing their competences in educational, symbolic and cultural dimensions. Inspired by Sergiovanniøs (op.cit) view of

educational competences, reforms had to make school leaders experts of applicable curricula, and teaching and learning-related knowledge. In the symbolic dimension, the heads of schools had to be able to model important reform goals and behaviours to the school network and community. In the cultural dimension, they were required to lead the school community by defining, strengthening and articulating values and beliefs that could give the school its unique identity in the reform implementation. In all aspects, examination centered on the view that as Owen (1970) asserts, they were about change, as contrasted from management dimensions which emphasized maintenance. Furthermore, it recognized that as leaders, the heads of schools were to articulate mission, direction and inspiration to participants; initiate changes in school goals or the ways through which school goals had to be achieved (Sergiovanni 1994, Owen 1970, Fullan 1991), which Sergiovanni (op.cit) analyze into three behavioural dimensions; namely educational, symbolic and cultural.

Whereas heads of schools were educationally required to possess expert knowledge about curriculum, teaching and learning, the findings indicated that they were withdrawing from academic work and focused their attention to administrative and school construction responsibilities. Interview questions were twofold in this dimension. First; heads of schools were requested to state the way they ensured expert knowledge about teaching and learning prevailed in their schools. Secondly, they were requested to state the way they assessed the incidence of reformsøcreation of quality teaching and learning environment in their schools.

Apart from schools P1 and S3 the responses from other schools indicated that curriculum related objectives were accorded a second priority by the heads of schools after access objectives. Curriculum, teaching and learning related tasks were delegated to academic masters or mistresses as opposed to school construction (access) responsibilities which the heads of schools performed personally. This bias was counter-checked in the quarterly and annual reports where similarly; curriculum and education quality reporting were not as comprehensive as those of finance and school constructions. Reporting of Curriculum and quality improvement indicators were simply numbers of teachers deployed, textbooks and

other resources procured. The extent at which teachers were supported to shift from transmittal to participatory methods of delivering instructions did not feature in these reports, nor were textbooksø contributions to realization of desired outcomes. Review of curriculum and teaching of new subjects for integration of theory and practice, and inculcation of culture-for-job-creation did not feature in any report by any school or level. Interviewee No.1 from School P4 edified the anomaly in prioritization and reporting:

> We imitate the district and regional priorities and emphasis in implementation and related reporting. Communications from higher levels seek information about funds we receive from them, classrooms constructed, textbooks procured and the like. í the reporting format was designed somewhere above and sent to schools by the district ...requiring concentration on particular aspects they ask from us. í Reporting of curriculum issues is done by Inspectors, - depending on frequency of their visits to schools!

Implications deriving from these responses were twofold. First; the heads of schools were not giving sufficient importance to curriculum related objectives because the demand from higher levels for the same was secondary in importance. Second and more important was because they were also not clear of their roles as leaders of reform process, particularly in the educational dimension. They simply performed their duties by reiterating directives of higher levels, as opposed to being proactive and acquiring ±big picturesø of reforms in contexts of their schools. Acquisition of ±big picturesøwas identified by Sergiovanni (1994) as a necessary condition for heads of schools working as leaders. Such pictures would provide them with clear visions of the future they were to lead the schools to, understand the day-to-day activities relating to the visions, and develop networks that would promote beneficial exchanges of expertise and practices. Furthermore, the ±big pictureøwould enable them to competently gather information about emerging educational issues that could affect the school, and think analytically about teaching and learning. To the contrary, heads of schoolsøgathering of information in these reforms was noted as relying on the centre as a single and the only source. Such limited education information infrastructure impinged the competences of heads of schools to clearly identify and analyze the reform objectives for focusing their attention and visions.

As leaders, the heads of schools were also required to model out important goals and behaviour, including teaching and curriculum related responsibilities. To the contrary, the findings revealed a withdrawal of heads of schools from teaching and curriculum related responsibilities. This negatively affected their competence and performances as models of teaching. Promotion of participatory approach of instruction delivery, merger of theory and practice, and general application of knowledge in day-to-day lives of students were some of the goals of these reforms which the heads of schools were required to model out (URT, 1993). Teachers could not sufficiently emulate the behaviour of their heads of schools in respect of this shift in delivery of classroom instructions. The performances and behaviours of heads of schools were gradually excluding themselves from those of the teachers they lead, therefore creating a gap between teaching and school administration. Apart from educational, this division of duties undermined the symbolic role of the heads of schools because the duties they performed were gradually disembarking from those of their subordinates. According to Sergiovanni (op.cit), role and behaviour modeling required the use of well thought out actions and creation of events that communicated meaning, value and focus which others could emulate. In the context of these reforms therefore, the heads of schools were gradually loosing their symbolic trait as leaders of schools because they gradually disembarked from duties which could communicate meaning, value and focus to teachers and others they lead. Classroom teachers had also observed this separation and divorce of heads of schools from ideals they advocated as was stated by interviewee No.2 at school P4:

> The staff is divided into two sections geared to different goals. The head of school is busy with parentsøcontributions and grants from the government to put up classrooms which he never uses. Teachers on the other hand are busy teaching very large classes which we never participate to enroll. ...Participatory teaching methodology seminars were attended by the headmaster ...we cannot learn from him because he does not teach. ...Even in admin duties he does not go further to seeing their impact at classroom level where effectiveness is impinged by very large classes. Each section produces what it doesnøt eat, and eats what it doesnøt produce!

The emphasis in these findings as related to symbolic dimension of school leadership was

that it could be enhanced if school leaders were fully involved in core activities of the school. The heads of schools would effectively demonstrate the meaning and requirements of reforms for others to emulate if they participated fully in teaching and merging of theory and practice; if they practically demonstrated how the shift from transmittal to participatory teaching was to be effectively done; and if they practically addressed the different challenges like large class sizes and inadequate supply of teaching and learning resources which frustrated the performance of teachers in delivery of classroom instructions. Continued teaching would enable the heads of schools to identify the negative effects of expanded enrolment, particularly in situations of limited supply of resources. These could be possible if reforms had not forced heads of schools out of classroom teaching, and if classroom teachers were the ultimate destination of all information and orientations related to desired changes. The effects of school administration separated from teaching were listed by teachers as including the failure of administration to competently advise on teaching and learning, and planning, procurement and distribution of teaching and learning resources.

The cultural dimension of school leadership was also examined in order to determine the extent at which the heads of schools were able to influence changes in the school culture. Culture in this context referred to the pattern of values, norms, beliefs, attitudes and assumptions which shaped the ways in which people were required to behave in order to achieve the reform objectives. This was examined by assessing the descriptions and articulations which the heads of schools gave in relation to potential improvements that reforms could make on schools. It was noted in the related literature (Sergiovanni, op.cit) that the cultural dimension of school leadership involved leading the school community by defining, strengthening and articulating values and beliefs that gave the school a unique identity over time. In that effect, the school culture was expressed as involving values, norms, artefacts and leadership styles (Armstrong, 2006). Artefacts referred to noticeable and real aspects devised by the heads of schools for people to hear, see or feel such as; the working environment, the tone and language in letters and circulars, communication patterns, logos, uniforms etc. Schools were observed to have motto, vision and mission

statements as artefacts expressing their cultures. For example, School S3 utilized the following statements:

MOTTO:	Education for Heritage.
VISION:	Achieving the best in all fields ó Academic, Discipline and Environment.
MISSION:	To strive and empower students with right, appropriate quality education.

The three statements were used by the school to describe the general behavioural focus of its community, and its strife for achievement of reform objectives. Apart from mottos, visions and missions, other artefacts observed as commonly used by schools were logos and anthems. Although the majority of artefacts did not have straight-forward relationships with reform objectives, they all aimed to express the importance of education and schooling. Each school in both sub-sectors had two or more of these artefacts. However, the artefacts did not sufficiently reflect the strength of respective heads of schools to formulate and translate them to actions supportive to achievement of reform objectives. The school vision pledging the best achievement in all fields including academics testify this misalignment because it was also observed that the school did not have adequate quality and quantity of teaching staff, science laboratories and other facilities. As such, the head of schoolǿs attempt to influence the school culture by that vision statement was undermined by lack of staff and other resources and facilities solicited from other actors. As Armstrong (2006:306) notes; culture is influenced by organizationǿs environment. The head of schoolǿs formulation of vision statements and other artefacts must therefore observe the local environment. This includes staff, teaching and learning resources and school physical plants.

The heads of schoolsǿleadership styles were another area which was analyzed to assess the strengths and role they played to influence their school cultures. Leadership styles referred to the approach the head of school used to deal with other members. It was noted in the related literature (URT, 1993:25) that school leaderships relied on political expediency rather than educational planning and professional expectations. As such, heads of schools could benefit in several areas from reforms, including transformation of these leadership

styles and approaches, and translation of educational aims to operational terms. Expansion of access, improvement of quality and mainstreaming of cross-cutting issues in the school curricula which were the major focuses of reforms had to be translated to actions by appropriate styles. In this effect, teachers of different schools described the styles of their leaders differently but mainly with emphasis on autocracy, control and transactions as dominant styles. Interviewee No.4 of school S4 testifies this:

> Directives come through the headmaster who in turn relays them to us, normally for implementation as they are! ...Controversial decisions which involve school finances and other individual interests may involve the confidants of the Head of School, not necessarily formally or on merit basis.

This response was assessed along Armstrong's (2006:309) framework of analysis. The framework describes leadership styles as existing somewhere between each of the four pairs of extremes. These were charismatic versus non-charismatic, autocratic versus democratic, enabler versus controller and transactional versus transformational. By this framework, description of any leadership style derives from traits picking from all pairs of extremes. Leaders were termed charismatic if they relied on own personality and inspirational qualities to deal with problems, but non-charismatic if they relied on know-how and quiet confidence for dealing with problems. In the foregoing response, it is suggested that the heads of schools relied on personalities and inspiration only marginally. In many instances, their decisions and practices relied on directives from higher level, which they were to interpret for suiting the school contexts. The heads of schools did this on their own or by involving a couple of staff members. Sometimes, involved staffs were not selected on merit basis. This denounced charisma as one of significant traits employed by heads of school S4 as a leader of reforms. By this framework, the advantages of charisma are listed as including the ability of leaders to be visionary, achievement-oriented, calculated risk-takers and good communicators. All of these traits were considered important in these reforms such that the absence of any could not facilitate any efficient realization of desired objectives.

Furthermore, the leader was classified autocratic or democratic depending on whether he or

she imposed decisions or utilized the position to force people do as he wished on one hand, or if they encouraged people to participate and involve themselves in decision making on the other. The findings showed that the former variant dominated the scene in majority of sampled schools, except school P1. The head of school P1 was the only one who involved his members of staff in making of every major decision and where teachers were free to consult him for clarifications at any time. Interviewee No.4 revealed this in the interview session:

> í major decisions are made or endorsed in staff meetings, committee and parent assembly. Teachers are free to question any decision at any time; be it allocation of teaching workloads, parents contributions, capitation grants and so on. As a result, every member of staff participates in execution of every decision because they are ours.

School S4 was observed as excelling in achievement of reform goals in all the major areas; enrolment, classroom constructions, performance in exams and conservation of environment. The head of school attributed his behaviour in this respect; to the induction he was provided to manage PEDP; that it emphasized collaboration. However, this did not sufficiently explain the origin of the trait because the majority of heads of secondary schools in the sample had also received leadership inductions but were not involving subordinates any significantly. As such, it was concluded that training was necessary but not the only factor for enhancement of democratic traits and suppression of autocracy in school leadership. It was therefore concluded that decisions reached out of collaboration between heads of schools and other staffs were more instrumental for attainment of school corporate goals. Moreover, participatory teaching approach which the reforms advocated was considered better facilitated if the leadership was ready to involve teachers in decisions about teaching and learning. Lack of such involvement which prevailed in majority of schools was considered detrimental to achievement of reform objectives.

The leader was classified enabler or controller depending on whether he or she inspired his or her subordinates with vision of the future for accomplishing reform goals on one hand, or if he or she manipulated them to obtain their compliance. It was found in majority of

schools for example, that teachers in person were supposed to solicit some teaching materials from neighbouring schools for satisfying the demands of school inspectors, as opposed to school P2 where procurement of teaching resources was a responsibility of the head of school all times. Often, the heads of schools were perceived by their subordinates as controllers rather than enablers in the reform implementation process, particularly in the curriculum and instruction related tasks, because they only wanted to see things done irrespective of how they were done. This is discouraged by Sergiovanni (1994) that if the leadership skews to ‑control‑ at the expense of ‑enabling,ø it consequently decreases the quality of teaching, student learning and staff and student morale. Reduced staff and student morale in turn were considered potential to frustration of reform goals and objectives.

Lastly, the leader was classified transactional or transformational depending on whether he or she traded money, job and security for subordinatesø compliance on one hand, or he or she motivated and challenged subordinates to improve the quality of the schoolø teaching and learning practices, and higher level achievement of reform goals on the other hand. The findings showed that both transactional and transformational traits were operational in one or another school of the sample. Transactional trait was the most dominant due to the meagre opportunities available for in-service trainings and additional sources of income, giving the heads of schools an added discretion to decide who should be considered for what. Education Circular No.7 of 2006 for example; empowered the heads of schools to endorse all applications for in-service trainings from their schools before they were submitted to higher levels. The teachers reported some cases in which their applications for in-service trainings were barred by heads of schools (S2, S4 and P3) contrary to prescribed reasons. According to these teachers, this demoralized them to effectively participate in school activities. The heads of schools were also reported to utilize their transactional powers in delegating powers and responsibilities, allocating school resources, and granting of annual leave and leaves of absence; all of which were detrimental to effective participation of disfavoured staffs.

On the other hand, transformational traits prevailed albeit infrequently. School S3 was the case in point where for example, in-service training opportunities were discussed by all members of staff and distributed on merit basis. There were thirty members of staff during the study, seventeen of whom were enrolled in different universities for different degree programmes which were relevant to both individual and school goals. Each of the remaining thirteen members knew when he was to enrol for further training, which gave them morale and inspiration to participate in school activities. It was therefore concluded that both transaction and transformation could be useful leadership traits for enhancing participation of individuals in reforms. However, transactional traits need to be carefully used because they can result into feelings of double-standards and inferiority among groups, eventually frustrating the participation of some members. As much as possible, school leaders should empower individuals for achievement of higher level goals through participation. If high level participation is maintained as a core value for participation in reforms, school leaderships will be effective; inclining to charisma, democratic, enabling and transformational traits rather than non-charismatic, autocratic, control and transactional traits. It is the former which enhances participation and therefore which can result to higher achievement of reform objectives. This further suggests that recruitment of the school level leaderships in these reforms had to involve individuals who were charismatic, democratic, enabling and transformational, or empower the existing heads of schools to acquire the traits.

As such, the patterns of issues in the heads of schools' educational, symbolic and cultural dimensions were examined and matched with practices in reforming schools as presented in table 4.16 below:

Table 4. 16: Issues in the Head of School's Leadership Roles

Issues		Reforms Practices
• Head of school's competence in Educational dimension.		- <u>Undue emphasis to applicable curricula, teaching and learning</u>: • Heads of schools' failure to demonstrate expertise in applicable curricula, teaching and learning. • Absence of school level –Big Pictureø of reforms. • Reiteration of district, regional and central levels lead to under-perform curricular and instructional targets.
• Head of school's competence in symbolic dimension.		- <u>Heads of schools withdraw from teaching and curriculum related responsibilities</u>: • Limited emulation of heads of schoolsø performances by teachers, e.g. in participatory teaching, merge of theory and practice etc. • Practice divorced from ideals in advocacy.
• Head of school's competence in cultural dimension.		- <u>Artefacts and leadership styles not defining, strengthening or articulating values and beliefs which give unique identities to schools</u>: • Logos, anthems, mottos and vision and mission statements that aim higher than values and beliefs mirrored in schoolsø day-to-day practices and conditions. • Autocracy, control and transactional traits dominate the leadership styles of heads of schools as opposed to democracy, empowerment and transformation.

CHAPTER FIVE: SUPPORT FROM COMMITTEES, BOARDS AND DISTRICT AND REGIONAL EDUCATION STAFF

5.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents, analyzes and discusses data from non-teaching actors that had to support schools in deliverance of desired outcomes. These were members of school committees and boards on one hand, and superintendents at district and regional levels on the other hand. The chapter examines the strategies by which the school committees and boards were constituted and empowered to effectively monitor reforms on one hand, and the extent district and regional level staff supported schools for effective implementation of the reforms on the other. Again, interviews and content analysis of documents were employed to collect data. Collection of data on strategies by which the school committees and boards were constituted and empowered was guided by questions examining the selection of members for skilful intervention in school reforms, and organization of information communication and monitoring of reforms. Data on district and regional level support to schools were guided by questions examining their roles and establishment of conditions supportive to improved learning. These issues and questions are presented, analyzed and discussed one after the other. The discussion compares the patterns of field-based findings on one hand, and specific issues predetermined prior to data collection, and considered pertinent to the conduct of reforms on the other hand to assess the effectiveness of involved innovations.

5.2   CONSTITUTION AND EMPOWERMENT OF SCHOOL COMMITTEES AND BOARDS

Data on school committees and boards were gathered by analyzing the contents of related documents at school and district levels on one hand, and interviews to the members of school committees and boards on the other hand. In this collection and analysis, school committees and boards were crucial cooperation joint between schools and communities,

which in turn were imperative to schools as implementers of PEDP and SEDP. They were useful forms of community involvement in school programmes if they were strategically selected and strengthened, positioned and justified (Fullan 1991, Owen 1998, Sergiovanni, 2001).

5.2.1   APPOINTMENT OF COMMITTEES AND BOARDS

The process through which committees and boards were constituted was examined to assess the prospects in them as effective organs towards achieving the reform objectives. The qualifications and criteria upon which members were selected, the inductions they were given upon being appointed and the codes of conduct and operational guidelines were all assessed for establishing the conditions upon which members were recruited into the organs.

Analysis of committees and boards related documents (Education Circular No. 14 of 2002, MANTEP, 1995 and URT, 2007a&b) suggest the absence of any rigorous qualifications that candidates had to possess in order to be selected as members of school committees and or boards. In the primary education sub-sector, MANTEP (1995:14) describes the school committee as an organ constituting fifteen members; eight of whom are elected by parents from the schooløs catchments, and the Councilor of the ward the school is located. Other members are drawn from the teaching staff and voluntary organizations. As such by design, committees were comprehensive and drawing members from the civil society, teachers and parents. However, the document does not spell out the guidelines for choosing best members out of these larger groups. The secondary school board reiterates the primary sub-sector descriptions (URT, 2007:26). The board comprised of a representative of the founding organization, the Regional Education Officer (REO), Head of School, representatives of teachers, four other members appointed by the REO, two co-opted members and two other members appointed by head of school in collaborations with the Regional Administrative Secretary (RAS). Likewise, this document does not spell out the criteria and qualifications upon which the relevant authorities were to base for ensuring the best, competent and

efficient representatives were chosen from feeder groups. It does not show the sources from which two of the members should be co-opted. Consequently, schools of the sample tended to devise their own criteria and qualifications for bridging up the gap. For example, the responses in extra-ordinary Focus Group Discussion (FGD) at school S1 revealed the strategies which the school adopted to address the shortfall:

> You see; various material and financial resources need to be mobilized from parents and general community for successful implementation of SEDP. í these resources are scarce and parents seldom contribute willingly. í It is easier if the board has ±well-to-doø members because they contribute more significantly and sometimes on behalf of parents.

The economic well-being suggested as a principal criterion in the response above was also found in other schools. Seven of eight schools involved in this study clearly showed that school committee and board members were appointed into the organs based on economic well-being criterion upon. At school S1 for example, eight of the twelve members constituting the board were businessmen, Managers (or) Directors of private companies and senior officers in the government parastatals. The head of schooløs defense to this composition referred to their ability to contribute and or donate, particularly monetary contributions required for school construction and development. It was also learnt that committees and boards composed by such benefactors depended on the school managementøs ability to lobby and drag them into the organs, rather than utilizing the prescribed democratic procedures. ±Economic Well-beingø superseded the incumbentøs conversance and interest in schools and education. Committees and boards substituted the parents and communities in schools instead of representing them. As representatives, they were required to consult parents and communities for their views and contributions to schools. As substitutes, they produced all or most of monetary contributions required by schools. This was affecting the tripartite relationships between schools, parents and the organs (committees and boards) in the sense that the latter no longer required parentsø and communitiesø consent to make school decisions, much as it was no longer important to convey feedback to parents and communities for whatever decisions made. In turn, the relevance of school programmes in the perceptions of parents and communities was also affected.

Since PEDP and SEDP aims were primarily instructional for improving access, equity and quality, school boards and committees were to also aim at the same. This concurred to the view in Fullanø (1991) analysis of parentsø involvements in school programmes that they were either instructional or non-instructional. In each of these involvements, parents required to have the means and capacity for participating effectively. The findings in this study show that instructional involvements were rare and occasional, usually among few parents who could track their childrenø school work at home. Though uncommon, still fewer parents thereafter approach schools and comment on programmes for improved performances. Second and common were indirect, non-instructional involvements of parents in school governance through committees and boards. The findings agreed with Fullan (op.cit) that this kind of involvement did not significantly affect studentsø learning. Furthermore, the capacity of parents to effectively participate in instruction-related programmes was embedded in membersø instruction-related qualities which these reforms did not enhance. The member recruitment approach (default) basing on economic power and influences was judged detrimental to education quality improvement because committee and board members were selected on different basis. Members recruited on basis other than education and classroom instructions, neither represented parents efficiently about the same, nor conveyed feedback after deliberations. As such, faulty determination of committee and board membersø qualifications blocked the desired parents and community involvement in school programmes.

The related literature (Fullan 1991, Mulengeki 2005) emphasized the need for empowering members of committees and boards with relevant knowledge and skills if they were to take up their responsibilities efficiently. In the context of reforms, the members required being assisted with skills for gathering accurate information about the system they were to change. In turn, this suggested that the members were requiring to be inducted about school reforms generally and information communication in particular. Armstrongø (2006) definition of an induction was instructive. This was a process through which the new members would be

welcomed into organizations, acquire basic information and settle down quickly and happily ready for work. In the context of these reforms, Armstrong's definition implied that committee and board inductions had to increase the members' commitments, clarify the psychological contracts, accelerate the learning progress and socialize new recruits. In case of novice committee and board members, inductions were imperative before they took up responsibilities. When the members were asked to state the level of preparations they received to enable them address specific PEDP or SEDP issues and problems, they showed that there were no inductions provided at the beginning of the programmes. In the primary sub-sector, the committee members were trained about PEDP in the second year of its implementation. One of the members at school P4 highlighted the disadvantages arising from exclusion of inductions as start-up mechanisms:

> í It was business-as-usual for the first two to three years of PEDP í virtually without changes in practice. í The training by the District Council changed the scene because it is when we were told what the programme was about and what was required of us. í In my ÷Kitongoji'* for example, I work together with the committee secretary who also maintains a register for all school aged children. í As a committee member, I extract relevant information from this record for enrolment and attendance follow-ups and supervision.
> ***Note: 'Kitongoji'** is a Swahili word for hamlet; the lowest level of local government machinery in rural Tanzania Mainland.

The response underlined the significance of inductions by showing the performance of members prior and after training (or induction). Performance is enhanced and changed for the better. The findings coincide with the ESDP stocktaking workshop reporting (URT, 2002:9-15) that PEDP took-off midst inadequate headteachers' and school committees' capacity building strategies. The report showed that school PEDP performances were low because committee trainings were not timely, funds were not disbursed to stipulated levels ($500 per school committee) and that later, trainings did not adequately provide necessary support to members take up responsibilities. Findings from other schools of the sample indicated that committee training responses from school P4 applied to them all. Committee members' effectiveness was registered in the second and third years of implementation when a nation-wide school committee training programme was conducted by ADEM through local

government authorities. In the secondary education sub-sector the boards were not given any training, and objectives and requirements of reforms were still understood and interpreted differently by members and schools during the study. For example at school S2, one member described SEDP as simply õí a programme for ensuring each administrative ward has a secondary school.ö A teacher member of the board at school S4 described it as õí a means for accommodating all primary school leavers to next level of schooling.ö In all responses, quantitative (access) indicators of the programme were the referent aspects; excluding equity and quality. Usually, schools with such mid-way interpretations seldom strategize for items beyond classroom constructions, although SEDP target for laboratories and related equipments, teachersøhouses, textbooks and other instructional materials as well.

It was observed in the related literature that a ÷code of conductø is a device that provides a summary of ethical standards expected of role incumbents in an organization (Armstrong, 2006:85). It is a guiding principle followed by an organization in conduct of its businesses and relations with stakeholders. Codes of conduct in the context of school committee and board members for example, clarify their role profiles by illuminating the standards, expected results, and knowledge and skills requirements. For example, PEDP (URT, 2003:17) lists the tasks of a school committee, later coded by MANTEP (1995:15) stipulating that a member could be terminated if he or she was absent in three consecutive meetings without sound reasons. The tasks listed by PEDP as well establish relations between committee members and teachers, students and other community members for operating at given levels of behavioral standards. In the context of this study, committee and board members expressed a perception that establishment of behavioral performance standards were under-addressed by PEDP. For example, the headteacher at school P3 gave some highlights:

> í There are several impediments arising from the list of tasks prescribed by PEDP for school committees. For example they are required to mobilize parentsøcontributions for school constructions, but there are times when some members cannot make their own contributions! í they are required to advocate for sound attendance of pupils but we recently encountered a case of a memberøs daughter who could not finish schooling due to early marriage. í Such and several other factors affect the influence of members over other parents. í By law, a member can be suspended only if he or she does not

attend three consecutive meetings.

From these findings it could be deduced that the principles guiding the committee member practices were not exhaustive and did not efficiently ensure they would personally abide to the advocacy required on them by reforms. For example; a committee member could advocate for compulsory school attendance while he or she was not enforcing it in his or her own home. Committee and board members were required to mobilize school development contributions from other community members but there were circumstances making some members not making their own contributions as required. It was thought that some tasks were not adequately done due to lack of related capacities, but others were due to lack of commitment and sense of responsibility. In the view of the members, clarity of codes of conduct would address the issue of commitment and sense of responsibility. Guidelines by MANTEP (1995) for example, were referred by members to show that they directed an imposition of a suspension to a member if he does not attend meetings as required but were silent on other below-standard predispositions as in the cases of compulsory attendance, statutory contributions and so on. The patterns of tendencies which a code of conduct would regulate were revealed in the FDGs. For example one member at school P3 had a perception of variations in the membersøperformance behavioural predispositions:

> í it (PEDP) simply prescribes the tasks and assumes everybody will just do as expected! This is wrong. í Some of us convene grass-root meetings with parents we represent, others do not. Some follow closely whatever is being done at school; others visit the school only when they are called to a meeting. í some members consider it imperative to visit the parents they represent from time to time, but others expect parents to look for them if there is a problem. í There is a big variation in the way we perform our tasks, opposite of which would improve our performances.

The opposite of variations in the foregoing responses was interpreted as a demand for a code of conduct to clarify how members had to deal with parents, communicate with stakeholders, gather parentsøviews about reforms and convey feedback. This, as Armstrong (2006:84) also observes would summarize the ethical standards expected of board and committee members in managing diversities between and among stakeholders. As such, the shortfalls in the appointment and selection of board and committee members partially explained the

shortcomings in the level of their performances. The criteria upon which individuals were selected; absence of immediate inductions for orienting them; and absence of codes for guiding the conducts and practices of members were some of the shortfalls impeding successful performances.

As such, the analysis and discussion on appointment of school committees and boards on one hand reveal a pattern of issues on member qualification and selection procedures, induction of members for effective assumption of roles and codes of conduct to guide the membersø performances. On the other hand, the discussion reveals a pattern of practices testifying the neglect of democratic and desired selection procedures, delayed or absence of inductions and codes of conduct. The two patterns could match and compare as presented in table 5.1:

Table 5. 1: Issues in Appointment and Selection of School Committees and Boards

ISSUES		POST-REFORMS STATUS
• Committee/Board member qualifications and selection procedures.	-	Head of schools lobby for inclusion of economically powerful members in the organs: • Substitution of democratic procedures by lobbying in the selection of school organs. • Insignificant or absence of deliberation on education and quality of instructions. • Ineffective representation and feed-back to parents and communities.
• Induction of members for effective assumption of roles.	-	Absent or delayed committee and or board inductions: • Uninformed committee and board membersøstart-up and assumption of roles and responsibilities. • Inaccurate and mid-way interpretations about reforms, mainly ignoring quality and equity aspects.
• Availability of codes of conduct guiding the member practices.	-	Lack of a clear code summarizing the ethical standards supportive to desired committee and board memberø performances: • Members performing the core tasks

	variably e.g. in dealing with parents, communicating with stakeholders or conveying feed-back.

5.2.2 COMMITTEES AND BOARDS' PARTICIPATION IN REFORMS

Apart from appointment and selection, it was noted in the related literature (Mulengeki 2005, URT 2006) that optimal member performances depended on the extent they were accurately informed about the system they were trying to change. It was also noted that gathering of accurate information about schooling and reforms presupposed possession of adequate knowledge, skills and competences. Furthermore, members would perform optimally if they participated actively in reform programmes; if they were able to analyze school problems and solutions; and if they actively and interactively worked with district and regional levels.

The committee and board members assessed the reform strategies for knowledge and skills acquisition, so as to establish the extent at which these reforms could enable them to participate as competent and better informed actors. The stock and provision of reform participatory-related knowledge and skills were assessed by questions which sought to establish the membersø understanding and ability to interpret laws, policies and guidelines, rights and duties in reforms. The membersø understanding of the ways these abilities were assistive to cause of change and improved studentsø learning was also assessed. The discussions showed that the majority of members in both sub-sectors were inadequately informed of the law guiding the reform process. Except the teacher-members of committees and boards, others were not aware of the law under which school committees and boards were constituted. Majority of teacher-members were clear that committee and board activities in schools (including reforms) were guided by Education Act No.25 of 1978 and subsequent amendments in Education Act No.10 of 1995. However, few of them could clearly link the said laws on one hand, and ETP, ESDP, SEDP and or PEDP on the other hand. For example, interviewee No.4 at school P3 argued: õ PEDP could enroll all eligible children if it was as strict as Act No.25 which provides for punitive measures against anybody frustrating

enrolment and school attendances.ö The implication was a need for subsequent policies and programmes to clearly reiterate the law to enforce access, equity and quality of education. As such, majority of committee and board members were not sufficiently conversant with the law as a foundation of reforms, nor were they conversant with what the changes were about and how best they could utilize the law to improve studentsø learning. Furthermore, the membersøinterpretation of their positions, roles and obligations in these reforms indicated the knowledge and skills gap which impeded their effective participation. For example, one respondent at school P1 revealed her view of committee roles and performances:

> We are particularly required to ensure parents and community members contribute per the plan. í Initially, we were allocated four classrooms but contributions sufficed for only two. The headteacher says the Municipal Council relocated the funds for the other two classrooms to other schools with sufficient contributions from communities. í there is a short number of desks for registered number of pupils.

The committee member in the foregoing response was suggestive of their roles as limited to collection of parents and community contributions, which in turn were determined by other actors in the process. They were contented with achievements without noticing that these roles and responsibilities had been scaled down against what both PEDP and SEDP listed as the Key Result Areas (KRAs) for committees and boards. For example, the KRAs for school boards according SEDP (URT, 2007) were eight:

> *…The responsibilities of the School Board are to:*
> i.   *Monitor utilization of school funds;*
> ii.   *Oversee implementation of school development plans;*
> iii.   *Advise councils and regions on school management;*
> iv.   *Approve school development plans and budgets;*
> v.   *Handle pupils' disciplinary cases;*
> vi.   *Advise the MOEVT and TSD on disciplinary cases of teachers and non-teaching staff;*
> vii.   *Sensitize and involve all education stakeholders on development of the school; and*
> viii. *Disseminate school education matters and information to stakeholders.*
>
> <div align="right">URT, 2007 (pp. 26-7)</div>

PEDP (URT, 2006:29) on the other hand, contextualized the roles variably. For example; whereas at secondary school level the board was charged to oversee the implementation of school development plan, at primary school level the committee oversaw all day-to-day

affairs of the school. At both levels however, the organs approved the school development plans and budgets; ensured systematic communication of information to stakeholders; handled students and staffsø disciplinary matters and so on. A comprehensive view of roles and responsibilities suggested a comprehensive view of requisite knowledge and skills for effective performances. In the event that the members scaled down their roles to mere collection of parents and community contributions, it was only one of the eight roles which they partially assumed, ignoring the majority responsibilities. In turn, this reflected the scope of knowledge and skills which the members would require to take their responsibilities. The scope was low because they also had aimed low. As well, it was an indication of the membersølimited awareness of the reform plans and objectives, the policy and Education Act No. 25 from which the reforms trickled.

From the KRAs, the committee and board members assessed the competences they were required to possess and the extent they were in possession of the same. Armstrongøs (2006) model of competency analysis was utilized. This was involving the behavioral dimensions that affected role performances and produced competency frameworks, and functional dimensions which defined the technical competences. According to Armstrong and relative to committees and boards, a functional analysis of competences would deal with such KRAs as provision of feedbacks and monitoring tasks, in order to identify skills required to deliver desired outcomes. As such, an eclectic approach combining =Workshopø and =Task Analysisø techniques was utilized to systematically analyze the behavior of committee and board members with a view of identifying their strengths, weaknesses and appropriate reform interventions for successful performances. In this analysis, =Workshopsø was a behavioral examination technique fetching the perception of role holders into the process, and =Task Analysisø delivered the required skills. This exercise was conducted in five of the eight schools where FGDs with committee and board members were possible. Patterns of responses from the five schools were not significantly different from one another. A pattern from school S1 was randomly picked to demonstrate the membersø perception of their competences to effectively deliver in these reforms as shown in Table 5.2

The findings in table 5.2 reveal the competences which in the committee and board membersø views are imperative for effective participation in school reforms. The scope of desired and actual membersø competences was located on a continuum between positive and negative indicators for each KRA. Positive indicators represent the membersø perception of best performances in a KRA, and negative indicators represent performances considered as the lowest in a given KRA. The status of membersøcompetency for each KRA in a given school reflect the membersøaverage performances calculated from a five-point rating scale between positive and negative indicators. The results showed that committee and board membersø competences were rated very low in managing, planning, strategizing and analyzing, reporting and consultancy skills. They were rated low in understanding the education business and communication skills. In totality, deficient competences were noted as negatively affecting the performances and participation of members in areas such as monitoring the school funds, approving and executing the school plans, and sensitization and dissemination of information to stakeholders. Majority of responses on these issues show that the members were relatively more secure in handling and advising higher levels on disciplinary matters requiring interpersonal, counseling and leadership skills than they were in managerial, monitoring and planning responsibilities. This suggest the reform programmes had to have capacity building strategies taking the deficient competences on board, i.e. managerial, planning, strategizing, analyzing, reporting, consultancy and other skills.

Table 5. 2: Committee and Board Members' Perceptions of Competences Required for Effective Participation in Reforms

S/N	Key Result Areas	Positive Indicators	Negative Indicators	Competency Dimensions	Status	Suggested Interventions
1	Monitoring utilization of school funds	Reports which are reflective of reality and similar to reports by other monitors	Sharply different from reality and similar reports	Managerial skills. Reporting skills. Achievement motivation	1 1 3	Project monitoring Short course, Seminar or Workshop
2	Managing implementation of school plans	School programmes implemented as per set plans	Implementations divorced from set plans	Understanding of Educational businesses. Managerial skills. Strategic capability.	2 1 1	School Administration seminar or workshop
3	Advising higher levels on school management	Fully conversant of how the school is being managed	Least or uninformed about management of the school.	Consultancy skills Achievement motivation	1 3	School Administration seminar or workshop
4	Approving plans and budgets	Describe and interpret plans and budgets appropriately	Does not participate in planning sessions describe or interpret plans and budgets correctly	Planning skills. Strategic capability. Analytical skills.	1 1 1	School Administration seminar or workshop
5	Handling of disciplinary cases	Interprets the school rules appropriately and models desirable behaviour and performances	Unable to identify undesirable behaviours and performances	Interpersonal skills. Counselling skills. Leadership skills.	4 3 4	School Administration seminar or workshop
6	Advising higher levels on disciplinary matters	Interprets the school rules appropriately and models desirable performances	Unable to identify undesirable behaviours and performances	Interpersonal skills. Counselling skills. Leadership skills.	4 3 4	School Administration seminar or workshop

S/N	Key Result Areas	Positive Indicators	Negative Indicators	Competency Dimensions	Status	Suggested Interventions
7	Sensitizing stakeholders on school development	Highly motivated to participate in school development and can correctly interpret the process	Fail to interpret the school development priorities and process	Achievement motivation Education business understanding Interpersonal skills	3 2 4	School Administration seminar or workshop
8	Disseminating school education matters and information to stakeholders	Seeking information about the school and effectively sharing it with others	Poorly informed about education and the school.	• Communication skills • Interpersonal skills.	2 4	School Administration seminar or workshop

Key (Status): 1=Very Low, 2=Low, 3=Average, 4=High, 5=Very High.

PEDP II document (URT, 2006:23) showed that the government intention was to strengthen the actors in terms of governance, management and monitoring of school programmes. Apparently these were areas which committee and board members noted as most deficient, opining they could have been effective if they were trained in the same. The training document (URT, undated) showed the areas of emphasis were School Management and Leadership, School Committees, Communication and Committee Meetings. This document and ensuing training sessions were viewed by the members as descriptive enough to elaborate involved concepts, but not sufficiently enabling the members to utilize them in practice. A comment from School P3 illustrated the view:

> We went through the Education law and its implications to Committees. í It was clear we are required to monitor funds, manage PEDP and approve plans and budgets and so forth. í The problem revolves around the skills involved in monitoring of funds, assessing the worthiness of plans and budgets for approval and so forth. í Since the head of school has the ABCs of these skills he performs the tasks and reports to us and the Municipal Council.

The related literature (Lema, 2004) presented ‑The Reduction Theoryøholding that a training programme could be effective depending on the extent it addressed the intrinsic motives of the learner. In the foregoing analysis, the findings show that the board and committee trainings did not enable members to perform optimally because intrinsic motivations were not adequately addressed. The membersødesires were about monitoring of funds, approving plans and budgets and or managing the implementation of reforms, rather than simple knowledge of law and its demands on committees.

Committees and boardøs related documents (URT 2002, URT 2007a&b) revealed that both PEDP and SEDP were designed to have capacity building components for training the committee and board members. Review of documents showed that such trainings were conducted by PEDP alone, still in-between implementation. Deloitte and Touche (2002) observed that the committee training funds disbursed to districts in 2001/02 fiscal year were not utilized until 2003. PEDP review team (URT, 2003) later noted this delayed utilization of funds as a cause of committeesø failure to effectively participate in preparation of whole-school plans at the take-off of reform programmes. In these observations, committee and

board members were not effective, partly because they lacked school mapping and micro planning related competences. These observations concurred with the membersø arguments that effective participation in reforms required a possession of some skills and competences which apparently these reforms did not adequately strategize in relation to content and timing.

Some of the training contents were revealed by the findings as including skills for gathering and communicating information about schools and education. This was also noted in the related literature (URT 2003&2006, Mulengeki 2005) that committees and boards would participate in reforms more effectively if they were able to gather accurate information about the system being reformed. Impliedly, committees and boards had to be capable of sensitizing and disseminating educational information to stakeholders and the general public. The documents further showed that they had to prepare and submit timely and accurate reports to Local Government Authorities (LGAs) and the Central Government. As much as possible, deliberations, decisions and school budgets were to be public and systematically communicated to community. As such, the members assessed the mechanisms at their disposal for gathering and disseminating information about reforms and the system they sought to change. Slight variations were noted as existing between the mechanisms available to primary and secondary schools but they all coincided on poor quality of technologies available to committees and boards as captured from one member in the FGD at school S1:

> The school is usually a source of PEDP related information and students are the conveyors í through teachersøannouncements and (or) letters to parents. í Parents and committee meetings organized by the school are additional conveyors. í The problem is those households which do not have school-going children, because neither the students nor the meetings can effectively connect them to PEDP and school information!

These responses suggested that the flow of information was dominantly unidirectional from the school to members of committee, parents and the general public. They also suggest the committee membersø passive role in generation of reform related information. The members received information from schools rather than generating it to schools. This was considered

detrimental to the reform process which ideally, was requiring in-puts from parents and the general community through committee members. Meetings and announcements at the school assemblies were identified in the FGDs from all schools as dominant media for communicating information about reforms. The two means were also described as inefficient for informing the community about deliberations, decisions or plans of committees and boards, due to two major reasons. First, attendances of parents and other members of community to school meetings were generally poor. Second, not all households in the communities had children attending schools, so information communicated from school assemblies through students could hardly reach all members of communities. It could therefore be inferred that committee and board membersø participation in preparation and submission of accurate and timely reports to LGAs and Central government were undermined by the inadequacy of these means. As such, the accuracy or inaccuracy of information rested in headteachersø views and discretion rather than community membersø opinions, rights and or contributions through committees and boards.

Both PEDP II (URT, 2006: 24-5) and Armstrong (2006:821-3) acknowledged the importance of Information, Education and Communication (IEC) in improving the public awareness of government policies and implementation strategies. PEDP II suggested the use of IEC materials and mass media like seminars, workshops, conferences, symposia, performing arts and audio-visual materials to sensitize the general public and disseminate information on education plans and programmes. Armstrong extends the list to suggest the of use of intranets, magazines, newsletters, bulletins and notice boards, as well as meetings, briefing groups and public address systems. Related to these reforms, committees and boards could easily communicate and improve public awareness by any between these mechanisms, except intranets which presuppose the use of computers. The FGD responses revealed that school level use of computers was uncommon in all schools of the sample. However, disuse of other potential mechanisms like seminars, workshops, performing arts and or meetings and briefing groups was also noted. Partially, this disuse explained the ineffectiveness of information communication between committees and boards on one hand, and schools and other

stakeholders on the other hand as shown in table 5.3 (KRAs 1,2,4&8). It was the membersø opinion in the FGDs that the shortfalls relating to communication and dissemination of information would be addressed by exposure of committees and boards in interpersonal and communication skills.

As effective players, committee and board members had to actively participate in planning and interpretation of the school plans. For example, SEDP (URT, 2007) instructed the boards to approve the school development plans and budgets, sensitize and involve all education stakeholders on development of the school. In Babyegeyaø (2002:4-5) conception of planning process as proceeding through thinking, enquiring and understanding of the conditions and situations of a school, committee and board members would therefore be required to competently analyze school-related problems and solutions. Consequently, committee and board members were to reason logically about situations, problems and needs in education generally and schools in particular. To this end, the members described the approach and techniques employed in PEDP and or SEDP planning process, saying they sidelined the school level players in analysis of problems and solutions, and that the centre did it all. Interviewee No.5 of school P4 testified the phenomenon:

> Planning techniques are predetermined by the Municipal Council which tells us how we should intervene. í Previous experiences and performances in other community assignments which influenced our being selected to this committee are not considered as beneficial to the conduct of these reforms. í top-down decision making approach has dominated. í there is little room for individual views and opinions.

The implications deriving from these responses brought contradictions between theory and practice to surface. Theoretically, PEDP was democratic in the sense that it encouraged every stakeholder to participate (URT, 2002:17). Its institutional arrangement advocated partnerships and attempted to establish teams at village (=streetøin urban communities), ward and district, regional and national levels to administer the process. The school committee capacity building document (URT, undated: 31) recommend an active committee intervention in matters related to improvement of learning and teaching environment, school welfare, planning and school finance. However, committee and boardø role profiles presented in

SEDP (URT, 2007:26-7) downgrade the functions of these organs to mere approval of school plans and budgets rather than active participation in formulating them. The analysis of school committee training related documents (URT, 2003b&c) revealed the prescriptions from the centre which committees and boards were required to follow in school financial management and procurement of resources, apparently without room for local inputs. This revealed the inconsistencies that existed in different documents related to school committees and boardsø roles and functions.

Although the guidelines were recommending active committees (and boards) interventions in learning and teaching matters, this was viewed by members as too ambitious to be effective. The findings showed the committee members regarding the programmes as incomprehensible and difficult to manage. This view agreed with Fullanø (1991:228-250) that parentsø involvements were likely to be more effective in non-instructional issues than they could be in instructional programmes. According to Fullan, effectiveness in instructional programmes could be enhanced if the change process was incremental and evolutionary. He suggested such a process starting small, regularly by meetings with parents to explain the objectives and methods to be used, and establishing a few small exercises that parents could do at home with students. The committee members therefore considered the innovations in these reforms as ambitious because they suggested intervening in instruction and quality related programmes midst inconsistent reform literature and haphazard orientations. Consequently, the committees and boards could not effectively work as groups because their cohesion were impeded by the volume of change on one hand, and membersø lowered comprehension of what the change was about on the other hand.

The findings also revealed that the =School-District-Regionø relations were more skewed to access related tasks than they dealt with quality of education, and they were more in government records and documents than they reflected in day-to-day practices. Heads of six out of eight schools in this study testified that they were sometimes summoned at district offices to clarify progresses made on PEDP and SEDP implementations, but clarifications

were always sought about construction of classrooms and seldom on delivery of classroom instructions. Support services, seminars and workshops which the regional and district levels extended to schools to empower them execute and monitor the reform programmes were also noted as skewing to access and ensuing classroom construction objectives. Reformsø institutional arrangements by design were meant to empower the school committees so that they could more effectively take leadership and school development responsibilities:

> *...By committing more financial and human resources, the government shall empower the school committees to effectively take leadership and school development responsibilities.*
>
> URT, 2003 (pp. 17) [Researcherøs Translation from Swahili]

Apart from financial support, committees would also receive technical support from district councils, especially on utilization of funds, accurate and timely reporting, much as districts would also be technically supported by regional levels (URT, 2003:18-19). Likewise, SEDP was to facilitate the school boardsøreception of technical support pertaining to construction, procurement and proper utilization of funds from district councils, whereas districts would receive support from regional levels (URT, 2007: 25-26). In this kind of arrangements, technical support would trickle from ministerial down to school and classroom levels, but this was excluding instruction-related support. According to the membersøresponses in the FGDs, technical supports for ensuring competent interventions of committees and boards were generally rare as argued by member No.5 of school S3:

> í The school has received about fourteen million for constructing two classrooms. í As members, we are required to monitor the way these funds are utilized í only that this requires a lot of technicalities some of which are too complicated for the board to resolve on its own. í It would be smooth if technicians from the district council were also supervising the projects to strengthen us.

The members further revealed that although the project was more than ten months old, the district engineer had not visited the school to highlight on critical areas for focusing attention to ensure that construction was properly being carried out. Three of the four secondary schools of the sample were undertaking classroom constructions but only one was once visited by district officials to monitor the project. Even to that one, the members argued that

monitoring was based on financial books and summaries rather than empowering the board members to identify faulty implementations. In the primary school sub-sector, it was learnt that classroom constructions were one of the dominant activities during PEDP I (2001-6) phase, but school committees were generally left to supervise and monitor the projects without sufficient district supports. This observation did not sit well with committee and board membersø identification of managerial and reporting skills (table 5.2) as some of the technical competences they required in order to efficiently supervise and monitor school programmes, and which collaboration from district and regional levels could offer.

It was learnt from the related literature (Fullan 1991, Mulengeki 2005 and Bond 2006) that committee and board effectiveness as monitors of school programmes would be enhanced if they were supported in three major areas. They had to be assisted with skills for gathering and communicating information accurately about schools and education generally, intervene skillfully and function effectively as groups, and act proactively in analysis of problems and solutions. According to Bond (2006), there was a need for committees and boards to work as teams, along clear sets of guidelines. Clear sets of guidelines were those providing the district vision, structure, accountability and advocacy for guiding action and performances at school level. Bond posited that such guidelines clarified how members had to intervene in reform programmes for improved systems and studentsø achievements. To the contrary, content analysis of documents revealed that committee and board works in schools were guided by ministerial rather than district or regional mottos, vision or mission statements. This implied that the national guidelines were employed at school level without contextual interpretations by district and regional levels. Such structures and *modus operand* were characterized by absence of features depicting the districts that were implementing the programmes. For example, one member at school P4 had this to say in the FGD:

> í The plan talks about integrating contributions from community and the grants from the government. í This is good but it ignores the income variations between communitiesí one cannot give what he does not have! í It talks about suspending fees and other contributions by parents, although the programme does not consider where students should get exercise books, pens and other such requirements which are

expensive to some families. í The plan talks of community contributions but this is always asked in terms of money rather than other things and commodities which communities produceí There are several shortfalls which if the District Council was flexible, we could address by changing some directives for alignment with conditions at school and community levels.

In this response was an emphasis of regional and district levelsø imposition of national directives to schools, usually without relevant illustrations from local contexts. The membersø expectations about district and regional supports were that; among other things, they were supposed to entail enabling them to analyze the government grants in terms of local situations before they could determine the size and type of local contributions. This concurred with observations in the literature (Mulengeki, 2005) that local community participation in school programmes would be enhanced if they were supported with exposure and participation-related knowledge and skills. Therefore, as Bond (2006) also noted, meaningful district and regional support would be that which outline how committees and boards have to plan and make decisions, communicate effectively and develop operating principles cum codes of conduct. According to Bond, committees and boards had to be supported so that they were able to make plans and decisions for promotion of healthy and professional learning communities in schools. In the context of this study, the members have expressed an opinion that the district superintendents could do it by outlining the different decision-making models and practices for choice of the best ones depending on actual conditions prevailing in schools. In relation to communicating effectively, committee and board members had to be provided with skills for checking the facts and verify the sources and concerns of information. Effective committee and or board communications required focusing on issues rather than personalities, while encouraging constructive disagreements where necessary. The members would be effective and competent decision makers and communicators if they were also involved in developing the principles guiding their performances, or codes of conduct. Unlike the practice in these reforms where the committee and board members were instructed when and how they had to intervene, Bond (op.cit) recommends an open dialogue and full involvements of members in development of principles for guiding their participation. With such involvements, the members share the ownership of reform process therefore striving to

bring about the desired results.

Thus, the membersø clear understanding of their roles, possession of requisite skills and the extent of technical support received from district and regional levels constituted the pattern of issues which the reforms were required to address in order to enhance committee and board active participation. These were matched with practices in the field as summarized in Table 5.3:

Table 5. 3: Issues in Committee and Board Members' Active Participation

Issues		Field Practices
• Membersø understanding of own position, roles and obligations.	-	Education Act No.25 (1978) scantly understood as a legal base for participation in reforms, and separated from ETP, ESDP, PEDP and or SEDP: • Performance and participation are not backed by law. • KRAs identified in PEDP and SEDP are compromised, thus scaling down the scope of membersø participation.
• Skills and competences for active participation.	-	Incompetent participation of members: • Inadequate membersø participation in monitoring of funds, approval and execution of plans, and sensitization and dissemination of information to stakeholders due to deficiency in managing, planning, strategizing, analyzing, reporting, communication and consultancy skills.
• Technical support for committee and boardsø active participation.	-	Committees and Boardsø active participation not technically supported by district and regional levels: • Focus resting on construction, procurement and proper utilization of funds, thus ignoring membersø active participation in equity and quality aspects of reform programmes.

5.2.3   SCHOOL COMMITTEE AND BOARD INTERACTIONS WITH DISTRICT AND REGIONAL ADMINISTRATION

The frequency and relevance of district and regional supports to committees, boards and schools were assessed to determine the extent at which the members could benefit from them. The argument by Moore, Weitzman, Steinberg and Manar (in Fullan, 1991) that regional and district levels were critical initiators of innovations at school level was instructive.

By design, both PEDP (URT, 2003:18-19) and SEDP (URT, 2007:25-26) identify the areas in which regional and district levels could provide technical support to schools. In the primary school sub-sector, PEDP instructs technical support to trickle from regional to district education offices, and further down to schools, school committees and villages. In this case, technical support referred to helping the actors at these levels, for example committees and villages, to take up responsibilities as agents of change. Support would enable the actors to efficiently use PEDP and SEDP funds, and report timely and adequately. In the secondary school sub-sector, SEDP instructed the regional level to advise and provide educational technical support, and communicate educational information to councils and other relevant stakeholders. District councils were required to provide technical support to schools, especially pertaining to constructions, procurement and proper utilization of funds, as well as sensitization and mobilization of community contributions for building schools. However, the two documents did not specify the modalities through which these supports would be extended to schools. Besides, the responses of committee and board members in the FGDs did not show much of desirable supports being extended to schools. For example, the board members at school S2 unanimously showed that they seldom worked interactively with district and regional levels, basically if it was initiated by the school. Likewise, one member at school P1 committee had this to say:

> í   PEDP guidelines were issued in a one day seminar at the Municipal Offices. í   We were then allocated a guardian amongst the district education staff whom we usually consult if there is a need í   we can also see the DEO depending on the seriousness of the matter to be discussed. í   We usually go to the office í   district staff seldom come to school!

The responses from these and other schools showed that committees and boards on one hand, and district and regional staffs on the other, neither worked closely nor interactively. In few occasions that there interactions, they were usually initiated by schools except when communicating directives to schools. The responses were also suggestive of the district and regional superintendents as under-supporting the schools because of limited number or absence of interactions with schools. Few interactions which were made were not integral parts of superintendentsø day-to-day responsibilities, but incidental. It is learnt from Fullan (1991:197-198) that district staff should help schools sort out and implement the right choices, by providing specific implementation pressure and support. This required the staff to provide implementation support in the form of quality materials, in-service training, one-to-one technical help and opportunities for peer interactions. The region and district levels therefore, had to ensure there was an efficient information-gathering system to monitor and rectify the shortfalls. Such information-gathering system would only be efficient if it was not dominantly unidirectional as shown in these reforms. The system requires entailing dialogues and two-way communications; both from schools through district to regional levels and vice versa. As a theory, regional and district superintendents should practically work as critical sources for initiating innovations in schools. Thus, they must provide capacities to committees and boards for accomplishing change objectives basing on sets of firmly held values and beliefs, and engaging in activities enabling them to articulate these values and beliefs (Fullan, 1991).

A pattern of issues in interaction between school committees and boards on one hand and district and regional levels on the other was matched with related field practices as shown in table 5.4, to conclude on inadequacy of the way these organs were involved to bringing about the desired outcomes.

Table 5. 4: Issues in School Committees and Boards' Interactions with Regional and District Levels

ISSUES		FIELD PRACTICES
• Frequency and mode of interactions.		Few unidirectional interactions initiated by schools: • Technical support and educational information are not adequately and efficiently communicated between schools and other levels and actors. • School level implementation is not characterized by desired quality material support, in-service trainings, one-to-one technical help and peer interactions that district and regions were required to enhance.

Data on specific positions and roles played by the regional and district staff in these reforms are assessed and analyzed in the next section.

5.3   THE POSITION AND ROLE OF REGIONAL AND DISTRICT EDUCATION STAFF

The regional and district education staff were a second category of non-teaching actors but essential to supporting schools in deliverance of desired reform outcomes. In the context of these reforms, regional and district education functionaries symbolized the central government agencies. These are responsible to introduce and popularize change at school level. In turn, they have to ensure that the process test out the need and priority of change, determine the potential appropriateness of innovations, and clarify the roles and participation of other school level actors. As such, the participation of regional and district education staff in these reforms was assessed in terms of roles played to create awareness and support others to focus and engage in action. Content analysis of related documents at school, district and regional levels on one hand, and interviews to the district and regional education support staff on the other hand were employed to collect data on these issues.

5.3.1   SCHOOL LEVEL AWARENESS OF CHANGE

It was noted from the related literature that regional and district education staffs were the ones to introduce change at local and school levels (Fullan, 1991). Thus, they had to support schools identify and discuss their crises and opportunities. In order to do that, regional and district education staff had to ensure schools had visions guiding the change efforts, and strategies for achieving those visions. Furthermore, they had to plan and create ‑short-term winsøthrough which schools would recognize they were realizing projected improvements or not. However, Fullan (1991) and Senge (1990) caution this is seldom a linear and rational process that easily move from one to another stage. It depends on contexts. As such, regional and district staff strategies employed to introduce and interpret change at school level were examined to assess the adequacy of their interventions geared for making schools aware of change objectives and process. The study assessed the way they sought to identify and discuss with school level actors; the educational crises and opportunities, vision, strategies and ‑short-term winsø

When the district and regional level education superintendents were asked to describe the way change was introduced and interpreted to schools, responses were almost synonymous expressing a top-down, unilateral introduction. The findings revealed a rigid and hasty process not allowing much time to thoroughly identify and discuss school level crises and opportunities, test for need and priorities of change, or clarify roles at school level and supports required to implement the changes. For example, the REO for region R2 said: õí First hand information was dispatched in a seminar just a month before the programme took off í we could not have discussed anything with teachers because we were not informed of anything as well.ö This concurred with the findings from content analysis of related documents, which showed there were four booklets and brochures issued by the centre to introduce and guide (PEDP) reforms. These were guidelines for purchase and procurement and management of PEDP funds. Introduction of these guidelines was made to the REOs in a meeting held at Morogoro TTC in 2001, prescribing the dos and donøts. A guideline for school committees was issued later in 2004 to facilitate their training. Description of the

process of awareness creation showed that it did not allow re-interpretation of directives from national level. As such, these reforms took off basing on blurred awareness of actors as the REO of region R2 further reveals:

> í Schools could not be sufficiently aware as many actors were not clear of what the changes were about. í SLOs, Academic Officers, School Inspectors and Headteachers are direct actors forgotten since initiation phase. í Yes, REOs were called to a meeting and instructed on what to do, but this could not suffice. í They could not give their views because the roadmap was already set í direct actors in the implementation were overlooked í such a big plan could not be internalized in one meeting of such a short notice and time!

The start-up expressed in these responses misaligned with Fullanø (1991:61-64) ideals for initiating change. According to Fullan, a successful initiation is a combination of strong advocacy, need, active start-up and clear sequence of activities. The view cautions about participation related issues which may arise from combining advocacy and active commencements. However, it renders participation indispensable provided it begins small and grows as implementation unfolds. As such, initiations had to combine relevance, readiness and resources. In this case, relevance entails interactions of utility, need and practitionersøunderstanding of involved innovations. ñPractitionersøon another hand imply all critical actors involved in reform process at any given stage, for example SLOs (Statistics and Logistic Officers), Academic Officers, School Inspectors and Headteachers (and classroom teachers) whom the foregoing REOø response show as overlooked in the initiation phase of these reforms.

Readiness on the other hand was about individual and organizational capacity to initiate, develop or adopt an innovation. This had to involve relevant practitioners in order to make them aware of relationships between reforms, their perceived needs and possessed knowledge and skills before being ready for implementation. In the REOø response presented above, it was noted that critical actors were overlooked, which in Fullanø expression of readiness would cripple the start-up because the practitionersø perceived needs, knowledge and skills were not considered for informing the conduct of reforms. Resource dimension in this context is closely related to readiness, referring to accumulation and provision of support for

executing a reform. PEDP (URT, 2003) and SEDP (URT, 2007) documents showed that the reforms were to bring changes in access, education quality and selected cross-cutting issues. All critical actors in this implementation had to be involved in order to figure out the quality and quantity of support they would require for effective participation. Again, the REOøs observation that a big plan was –internalized in one meeting and short noticeø was instructive on the importance accorded to time as a reform initiation and implementation resource.

The other thing expressed in the REOsø responses and which were unhealthy to successful start-ups was about introducing reforms in one way communication. The phrase that õREOs were called to a meeting and instructed on what to doí ö as presented above, implied an overlook of inputs from REOs and abuse of ideal communication in execution of reforms. According to Fullan (1991:198-9), creation of awareness for addressing issues like school level needs and priorities for change, suitability of innovations and support for efficient participation would require a two way communication about specific innovations being attempted. These must be made clear to participants from the on-set of the process, considering both objective and subjective realities of attempted innovations for improving access and quality, rather than one at the expense of the other.

The findings further rejected the notion that district and regional education staff could have by any rate supported schools to create own visions about attempted reforms, or re-define the national vision in local contexts. This shortfall cascaded from the national level which had imposed the programmes disallowing alterations and inputs from others. This was partly a cause of confused start-up and faulty school level creation of awareness as observed by the DEO of district D3:

> How could schools have own visions when districts were not allowed to have theirs, nor were the regions? í Plans were designed to remain intact and national. As a district, we formed a task force comprising the DC as a Chairperson, DEO, Procurement Officer, Internal Auditor and Engineer. Schools had their own task forces constituted from school committees, as ordered. í the assumption was a uniform environment across schools.

Therefore internally, the reform plans were not consistent. On one hand was a principle that

successful reforms required regional and district education staffs to strategize for, create awareness and initiate the process at school level, while the actual practices prohibited these superintendents to support schools in analysis of plans relative to local contexts, forming own visions and implementation according to own needs and priorities. Here, it was noted that regional superintendents symbolized the central government. To governments, Fullan (1991:283-4) advise they have to engage local implementers while distinguishing between their compliance to directives on one hand, and their capacity to successfully execute changes and deliver desired results on the other hand. In this view, implementation depends on capacity more than it does on compliance, especially that which overlook implementersø subjective meanings, knowledge and attitudes about change. The implications deriving from these findings therefore instructed a conclusion that region and district levels failed to adequately create awareness to schools and support them to effectively engage on change process due to two major factors. One; excessive centralization was rendering intermediary levels too passive to be effective advocates of change at school level. Two; in introducing these changes, the government edged on clearly finding out what was happening at school level and concentrated on surveillance and administrative paper work, reporting and other compliance-type information, thus diverting energies and attention away from school level capacity development. Awareness creation had to go along with figuring out ways of supporting, guiding and stimulating the school level action, by clearly matching implementation capacity realities with requirements of change.

The pattern of awareness creation-related issues was matched to the pattern of findings about school level awareness creation as indicated in table 5.5:

Table 5. 5: Reform School Level Awareness Creation

ISSUES		FIELD PRACTICES
• Identification and discussion of crises and opportunities .		<u>Hasty, unilateral, top-down, rigid introduction of reforms at school level.</u> • Blurred understanding of school level crises and opportunities among practitioners. • Excessive centralization hindering required activity and advocacy from school and intermediary level actors. • Energies and attention diverted from school level capacity development; attentive to surveillance, administrative paper works, reporting and other compliance type of information from schools. • Absence of ‑Short-term Wins‑ and improvement indicators to guide practice of school level and other practitioners.

5.3.2 COMMITTING PEOPLE TO ACTION AND FOCUS, PROCESS AND MONITORING OF REFORMS

It was also noted from the related literature (Kotter, 1995 in Armstrong, 2007:354-5), that leaders of transforming organizations were required to adequately commit participants to action and focus, by creating visions that would direct change, communicate them and attendant strategies to participants, and empower others to act on those visions. This is similar to Fullanøs (1991:284) advice that concentration should be on helping to improve the capacity of agencies to implement changes. In turn, this would require getting rid of school level obstacles to change, changing the system and structures that were likely to undermine changes, and encouraging non-traditional ideas, activities and actions. In this effect, the central government reform actorsø insistence on efficient school level guiding teams, information communication, supportive organization and structures as well as management, leadership and resources was examined. Such examination took cognizance of a reality that

people had to be adequately available by both quantity (numbers) and quality (skills and competences).

PEDP document (URT, 2003:3-4) clearly showed that the determination of numbers, skills and competences of education human resources was required to match Vision 2025 goals and objectives; in a way that would make education a vehicle for eradicating poverty:

> *...Education is a natural intellectual transformation strategic power for creation of a skilled society; characterized by sufficient knowledge for competent and competitive resolution of development challenges regionally and globally. This therefore calls for re-design of the system and changing its features of quality so as to enhance creativity and problem solving competences.*
>
> URT, 2003 (pp. 3-4) [Researcher's Translation from Swahili]

This instructed on the type of human resources required for deployment in schools: people that would enable students learn differently to become more creative and capable of resolving the development-related problems. When the regional and district education superintendents were asked to describe the way this was facilitated at school level, it was observed that the standards, ratios and vision were nationally determined, and that local conditions of schools were not critically considered. As also presented in earlier sections, it was found that schools participated rather passively by submission of student enrolment data for regional and district translation into human resources requirements. The DEO for district D4 revealed that:

> Teachers' projections were made on the basis that one teacher would serve fourty five students, especially in regard of PEDP and primary schools. … In case of SEDP, the ministry issued a directive in 2007 requiring REOs to provide school level data for teachers by subjects of specializations. The data were later used to allocate diploma and degree graduands who were about to finish training. … (But) schools which were overstaffed in any given subject were left to carry on as before.

These findings did not show education quality shortfalls were being adequately addressed during determination, allocation and deployment of teachers as one of critical human resources required by schools. The vision guiding reforms was quality-related although respective human resources were quantitatively determined, especially in the primary education sub-sector. In the secondary education sub-sector where determinations were based on teaching specializations' data, it ignored relocation of teachers to regulate establishment

between overstaffed and understaffed schools. These findings also showed there was no attempt to make students learn differently through teaching differently because respective adjustments focused on quantities only, shying away from teaching methods, contents and school realities. This was also a pattern for other human resource requirements as well, for example the members of school committees and boards. Although SEDP required the head of a secondary school to liaise with the REO to suggest the names for appointing to school boards, the document did not show how the region and district levels had to support school level suggest competent individuals. The guidelines were simply that the regional level had to appoint the school board members as follows:

> *...A School board is comprised of a representative of a founder organization, the REO, Head of School/Principal, teachers' representative, four members appointed by the REO, two co-opted members and three members appointed by Head of school/ Principal in collaboration with Regional Administrative Secretary (RAS).*
>
> URT, 2007 (p. 26)

Although the boards were looked upon as organs for parent involvements in schools, its composition in SEDP model did not ensure efficient involvement of parents, nor did it guarantee efficient penetration of local ideas about studentsø learning and eradication of poverty into board deliberations. Majority of appointed members were foreign to local environments and or appointees of distant central government; for example the REO, Head of School and his/ her four appointees in collaboration with RAS ó another central government appointee! A representative of teachers was the only member originating from local environments.

Teachers, committees, boards and management teams in these reforms were equated to guiding teams which Kotter suggested (in Armstrong, 2007), and upon which the execution of these reforms had to rely. However, the way these teams were constituted, empowered and deployed did not suggest it could ensure committed and focused regional and district support to schools. Whereas teachersø effectiveness could be undermined by selection and deployments that were based on quantities, committees and boards would generally be undermined by being alien to schools they were to serve. Intellectual transformation and resolution of local problems envisioned in these reforms required a thorough understanding

of local environments and clear focus on quality and empowerment of potential participants.

It was also suggested in the related literature that the leaders of reforming organizations were required to empower other participants for acting on cherished visions. According to Kotter (op.cit), this entailed getting rid of obstacles prone to impeding change, changing the system and structures undermining the vision, and encouraging risk-taking and non-traditional ideas, activities and actions. It was found earlier in this study (table 5.2) for example, that committee and board members were deficient of various competences pertinent to efficient performances in most key result areas. They identified deficient competences as relating to planning, analytical, managerial, leadership and understanding of education as a core school business. Others were interpersonal, counseling, communication and reporting as well as achievement motivation skills. The members opined they could transform into competent participants if these obstacles were lifted through tailor-made short training and orientations. When the regional and district superintendents were asked to describe the way they supported and empowered parents, committees, boards and other stakeholders to act on visional change the responses pointed to training, albeit sporadic as highlighted by the REO from region R2:

> Training was done to sections of stakeholders, overlooking others! í PEDP training dealt with school committees, store-keeping teachers and treasurers. Members of district task forces and classroom teachers were not trained. í SEDP trained the Heads of Schools for one month at Bagamoyo, but overlooked the remaining stakeholders.

These findings were analyzed alongside the training related documents to establish the focus onto which stakeholders and guiding teams were being committed. Three things were brought to surface. First, regional and district superintendents were occupying a sidelined role in the process of empowering others to act on reforms. Central ministries of Education and Local Governments steered the process in spite of being distant from target groups. Secondly, empowerment was skewed to access than it dealt with quality aspects of reforms. The training documents (URT, 2003b, 2003c, undated) showed that the guiding teams and other members were enlightened on financial management and accountability, resource mobilization and procurement, all of which were targeting to ease management and accountability in government grants for construction of classrooms and schools. Besides, the district technical

teams amalgamated members not oriented in teaching and classroom instruction delivery like District Commissioners, Internal Auditors, District Engineers and Procurement Officers. This combination dictated a focus on issues other than quality of instructions. Stakeholders whose roles were centering on classroom instructions and students' learning like teachers were not considered in this empowerment of participants, nor were their cause adequately represented in the teams. The District Education Officer was the only in the team of five members that could discuss instruction delivery related issues with conversance.

Third, neither the obstacles impeding the performance of participants nor the system and structures undermining the vision were adequately addressed by the training strategy. The strategy did not consider the competences which in view of participants were critical to their effective performances, for example the different skills identified by school committee members in table 5.2. The findings revealed that the technical teams established at school and district levels were in some instances not trained to master and focus on new vision. The related literature (Fullan, 1991) postulate that regional and district levels were to support school implementation by quality materials, in-service training, one-to-one technical help and provision of peer interactions. It was noted in most responses from regional and district superintendents that established system and structures did not provide sufficient room for giving such support. This was retained by the national level as testified by the REO of region R2:

> … I wish I was allowed to plan for and provide such support to districts and schools under my jurisdictions! … The national level decides how we should manage reforms at school level; … support, quality materials, in-service training or any other help that schools should obtain from different sources. In this process, we only receive district reports which we consolidate to obtain a regional reflection that we relay to Local Government and Ministry of Education.

This provided another proof of the extent regional and district superintendents were sidelined in the process of empowering other school level actors to perform in these reforms. There were several assumptions underlying the central level apathy to involving the regional and district education superintendents in empowerment of school level actors. A study by Galabawa (1997) in Mulengeki (2005) reported inadequate ability of regional and district

officials to take decision, support the move, involve themselves in providing finance and control of quality of education delivery as some of the reasons for hesitation of MoEVT officials to decentralize the education functions in Tanzania. This suggested there was required a comprehensive capacity building strategy before the regional and district superintendents could take up their reform responsibilities.

5.3.4   REFORM GUIDING TEAMS AND PROFESSIONALISM

ETP (URT, 1995:29) recognizes the role of sound management and administration techniques for effective functioning of an education system and its institutions. By this policy, education managers at national, regional, district and post-primary education and training institutions had to have university degree qualifications and professional training in education and management. Furthermore, professional training in education is cited (Fullan, 1991) as an efficient strategy that would enable the guiding teams and superintendents at regional and district levels to take decisions, and support reforms by quality materials, in-service trainings and programmes for one-to-one technical and peer interactions. Professionalism and capacity of the regional and district superintendents and guiding teams to competently take up these responsibilities was partly assessed on basis of educational qualifications and training. By ETP (1995), the manager was considered adequately trained if he or she held an Advanced Diploma in Education Management obtained from ADEM (MANTEP) Bagamoyo, a Bachelor of Education degree or its equivalence. In Tanzania, Bachelor of Education degrees {B.Ed as opposed to B.A(Ed) and B.Sc(Ed)} were offered by the University of Dar es Salaam in its Adult and Teacher education streams, and the Open University of Tanzania in its Adult and Continuing Education, Education Policy and Management, Teacher Educator, Special Education, Arts and Science streams. With this background, the findings from personal information of regional and district superintendents and the members of district guiding teams revealed the status of professionalism as presented in table 5.6:

Table 5. 6: Professionalism in the Regional and District Offices and Reform Guiding Teams

Incumbents	Basic Qualifications	Training in Educational Management	Experience
Region 1	B.Ed	+	+
Region 2	B.Ed	+	+
DC1	B.A(Ed)	-	+
DEO1	B.Ed	+	+
Engineer1	B.Sc(Eng)	-	-
Auditor1	Certified P/Account.	-	-
Procurement1	Adv.Dip(Materials)	-	-
DC2	Dip. Nursing	-	-
DEO2	Dip.Edu	-	+
Enginner2	B.Sc(Eng)	-	-
Auditor2	Certified P/Account.	-	-
Procurement2	Adv.Dip(Materials)	-	-
DC3	CSEE & Teacher IIIA	-	+
DEO3	B.Ed	+	+
Engineer3	B.Sc(Eng)	-	-
Auditor3	Certified P/Account.	-	-
Procument3	Dip. Materials Mgt	-	-
DC4	B.A	-	-
DEO4	B.A(Ed)	+	+
Engineer4	B.Sc(Eng)	-	-
Auditor4	Certified P/Account.	-	-
Procurement4	Dip. Materials Mgt	-	-

Key: + Has training in education management/experience in education.
 - Does not have required training/experience in education.

The findings in table 5.6 confirmed the argument posed by Galabawa (op.cit) that the central government hesitated to devolve responsibilities to regional and district officials because they lacked capacity. It could be deduced that adequate capacity building interventions to improve the performances of regional and district educational officials had not been in place since 1997. By and large, the offices were occupied by under-qualified

and inexperienced actors at the take-off of reforms. The district task forces which in this context symbolized the reform guiding teams were constituted by members that had no basic training in education management, except a few DEOs. Others like District Commissioners (DCs), District Engineers, Auditors and Procurement Officers participated in these teams on basis of substantive posts and or roles they held, some of which were not directly related to education. This reiterated Blumberg's (in Fullan, 1991) observation about the (regional and) district level superintendents' talks (practice!), that were dominated by politics and things other than curriculum, instructions, staff or professional development. Cuban (1988) also observed that political themes overrode instructional and management themes of the superintendents' preoccupations. In the context of professionalism of guiding teams in this study, it was considered difficult to efficiently discuss and steer reform instruction-related objectives from members who were not oriented to education and instructions. The teams were not adequately knowledgeable for guiding others in educational transformation. The DEOs who had some orientations in education served as team secretaries therefore under instructions of politics-oriented District Commissioners – the Chair. Like Fullan's (1991) conclusion about superintendents' behaviour generally, the constitution of guiding teams in these reforms militated the domination of managerial and political rather than instructional roles in the regional and district actors' behaviour. This would be redressed if the teams were properly inducted and involved throughout the process.

In Armstrong's (2007) description of change, it could be deduced that these were organizational transformation reforms because they were business-led. Changes cherished in these reforms were meant to focus on what required to be done, so that the education sector could perform more effectively to add value to students' learning and general society, for achieving competitive advantage. In this description, emphasis had to be placed on transformational leadership for motivating others to strive for higher-order goals (culture-for-job-creation, merge of theory and practice, etc) rather than short- term day-to-day management problems like expanded enrolment, school furniture, additional textbooks etc

(Burns, 1978). Such roles instructed the leaderships to enlist the participantsøcommitments through clear plans showing what was happening, why it was happening, how it affected them and why they had to be involved (Armstrong, 2007). In the context of these reforms, the guiding teams would influence the participation and commitment of others if they themselves understood thoroughly what was happening, why it was happening, how it affected the performance of the sector and why they had to be involved. Data on professionalism of team members showed this remained unaddressed gap.

5.3.5   REFORM INFORMATION COMMUNICATION SYSTEM

In attempting to commit people to action and focus, institutional arrangements were designed in both PEDP (URT, 2003:16-25) and SEDP (URT, 2007:22-27) indicating how information would be gathered from and within different participating actor groups. The arrangements emphasized a two-way communication in which intermediary levels like districts and regions had to ensure communication of information was efficient, i.e. competent exchange of educational information, collection of necessary data and reporting to all relevant stakeholders (URT, 2007: 26). The responses of regional and district superintendents in respect of efficiency of information gathering systems for monitoring and correction of implementation problems revealed there were several areas of information communication which were not addressed. The REO of region R2 highlighted on process and areas of focus in information gathering:

> í There is a systematic PEDP reporting. í report priorities include enrolment, quality improvement, capacity building and cross-cutting issues which are assessed every three months. í SLOs are responsible for their councilsø reports í Regional Academic Officer and SLOs consolidate district reports into one regional summary í District reports and the regional summary are later presented, physically to TAMISEMI and copies to MoEVT.

By these responses, it was learnt that the reporting strategy was influenced by what the designers wanted to hear from implementers, ignoring what the implementers would wish to communicate to designers. The reporting system was tailor-made to provide the centre with information on how much programme resources were being expended by districts and

schools. These reports were basically addressed to Regional Administration and Local Government department in the Prime Minister's Office (PM-RALG) where separate seminar presentations were organized for each region and district councils. The lead ministry (MoEVT) was secondary and only furnished with copies of presentations after endorsement by PM-RALG. Analyses of related documents at various levels did not show there were regular feedback conveyed in writing to regions and councils on how well or poorly they were fairing in the implementation of programmes, as well as corrective measures which they had to take. Likewise regions' and district councils' feedback to wards and schools did not feature in contents of programme documents. This implied that communication was basically one-way.

According to Armstrong (2007:818-825) information communication is efficient if there is adequate communication strategy that analyzes what the sender has to say, what the receiver has to hear and the problems met in conveying or receiving the information. Such consideration of interests of both the sender and the receiver ensures a two-way communication. With such two-way communication in these reforms; regions, districts and guiding teams would keep participants informed of policies and plans affecting them, and participants would react promptly about the centre's proposals and actions, thus easing the reform activity. This suggests that in these reforms, change was improperly managed because the reporting system did not enhance adequate understanding of feelings of those affected by change.

Armstrong (op.cit) further posit that communication strategies which analyze problems enable determination of what goes wrong in the implementation and what needs to be done to put it right. In relation to regional and district councils' reports to PM-RALG the chances for such analysis were constrained by strict format which reporters were to observe and adhere. For example the sections on enrolment expansion were to report on pupils registered, classrooms constructed and teachers recruited and or deployed. None of the reports availed in two regional and four district education offices accounted for causes of attained level of performances. Reporting requires a boundless communication which does not only analyze problems encountered in process, but also details on all constituent

programme areas. Armstrong (op.cit) identifies these as including managerial, internal and external relationsøareas. In the context of these reforms, all areas were crucial in the sense that communication direction had to be downward, upward and or sideway as particular circumstances would dictate. Such flexibility required a design which ensured the regional and district superintendents, reform guiding teams and participants could all receive clear, accurate and prompt information and instructions for smooth implementation and monitoring of reforms.

5.3.6   QUICK WINS/ASSESSMENT OF THE CHANGE PROCESS

It was noted in the related literature (Armstrong, 2007) that a transformational programme had to entail planning for and creating short-term wins through which the occurrence of change would be assessed. In such a process, there was to be involved a forecasting of clear performance improvement indicators (or targets), as well as recognition and rewarding individuals making improvements towards those targets. As members of reform guiding teams, regional and district education staffs were potential planners and creators of desirable short term wins, only that the centre restricted their roles and performances to respond to centrally issued directives.   Performance improvement indicators in these reforms were therefore national in character and deduced from PEDP (URT, 2003) and SEDP (URT, 2007) documents. Content analysis of related documents and interview responses revealed these as incremental quantitative targets mainly suggesting increase in school supplies as summarized in table 5.7:

Table 5. 7: Some Reform Performance Improvement Determinants

S/N	IMPROVEMENT DETERMINANTS	2001 PEDP Status	2006 PEDP Targets	2004 SEDP Status	2009 SEDP Target
1	Teacher-Pupil Ratios (TPR)	1:46	1:45	1:20.2	1:20
2	Classroom-Pupils Ratios	>1:80***	1:45	>1:55***	1:40
3	Gross Enrolment Ratios	84%	100%	9.4%	30%
4	Net Enrolment Ratios	66%	100%	5.9%	20%
5	Completion Rates	98.7%	100%	97%	N.A
6	Pass Rates	28.6%	60%***	52.5%	86.3%
7	Desk-Pupil Ratios	1:4.5***	1:2	1:2***	1:1
8	Book-Pupil Ratios	>1:15***	1:2	1:10	1:3
9	Latrines-Pupils Ratios				
	-Boys	>1:75***	1:25	>1:35***	1:25
	- Girls	>1:75***	1:20	>1:30***	1:20
10	Houses-Teacher Ratios	N.A	1:1	N.A	1:1

Key: *** = Data deriving from interview responses. It was not available in records.
N.A = Not Available in records.
Sources: (1) Responses from interviews with Regional and District Education staff,
(2) PEDP and SEDP reports at school, district and regional levels,
(3) URT (2005), **Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania (BEST) 1995 – 2005**, Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Education and Culture.

These responses revealed the PEDP and SEDP targets although they were not sufficient quick-win indicators. They could not sufficiently enhance and sustain occurrences of change. The targets simply showed the direction towards which the change had to move, but did not show how the occurrence of changes was to be monitored. Moreover, regional and district education staff and guiding teams were set out as passive participants in respect to formulation of the targets and quick win indicators. This gap was considered likely to cause school level indicator management difficulties. The related literature (Fullan, 1991) urged these staffs to actively intervene and ensure that school level changes focused on instructions, teaching and learning. Furthermore, it is posted that focusing on instructions, teaching and learning are possible if there are also targets for professionalization of critical participants like teachers (Caldwell and Spinks, 1998). Participants need to be clear of performance standards which are to be achieved at every stage of change. This shortfall discredited PEDP and SEDP indicators as guides to reform actors because they lacked the

strategies towards achievement of projected goals. Caldwell and Hayward (1998:45) drew a summary that sound reforms require identification of services bureaucracies need to provide, and to develop structures for effective and efficient provision of those services.

Although both PEDP and SEDP aimed to bring changes in access, equity and quality (URT, 2003 & 2006), the findings in table 5.7 showed the actual performances as skewing more to access than they addressed equity and quality objectives. Both PEDP (URT, 2003:40-50) and SEDP (URT, 2006: 32-40) clearly show the shortfalls for access-related reform requirements (e.g. classrooms, desks and school toilets), the budget portion that the government would handle and contributions that schools had to solicit from communities and other sources to make it happen. Equity targets were hard to derive from these targets because they were not disaggregated in terms of males and females, students with special needs, geographical locations (e.g. rural and or urban) and so on. Although equity was one of the major objectives, planning and implementation mistook Tanzania as homogeneous in terms of these variables. Quality objectives in table 5.7 were reflected in textbooks, pass-rates and teacher-student ratios targets. The regional and district superintendentsøresponses discredited the targets as inefficient indicators for transformation of education quality because they were not sufficiently linked to desired studentsø learning outcomes and different regions and districts interpreted them differently. The DEO for district D3 summarized the shortfalls in quality targets that:

> í Directives from the ministry stipulate the targets for textbooks, examination pass-rates and staffing levels, ignoring the factors which led to underperformances in these variables. í Traditional factors which led to variations in distribution of school resources between schools, districts and regions are also not addressed. í uniform learning outcomes are difficult to achieve. í learning needs are not homogeneous between students, schools, districts and or regions.

We learnt from the related literature (Fullan 1991, Caldwell and Hayward 1998) that education reforms are meaningful if they focus on studentsølearning; that it is different and better. This instructs reform and performance indicatorsø planning to observe changes required for making students learn better and differently per goals and objectives, i.e. access, equity and or quality. In relation to quality therefore, the targets would reflect both

the present and desired performances as well as all the means through which the present would transform to desired future. The indicators would therefore also show the different transitional conditions for observing towards desired achievements. As such, the studentsø learning outcomes are the starting point from which the quick-wins and performance indicators should emanate.

According to Caldwell and Hayward (1998) and Caldwell and Spinks (1998) reform targets and performance indicators are more efficiently delineated at school level in a decentralized arrangement. This contradicts with practices in these reforms where the performance targets were formulated at national level. Targets delineated at school level are more meaningful because they were more likely to transform schools into centres of learning excellence, and providers of choice for parents and students whom education must focus and serve. In the context of these reforms and targets formulated away from relevant schools, ─Backward Mappingøtheory by Elmore *et al* (Caldwell and Spinks, 1998:59-60) instructs a redefinition of targets and indicators relative to local conditions. This would involve identification of desired learning outcomes which in turn informs on desired learning styles and processes, ideal teaching strategies, school organization and structures and finally the school leadership, management, resources, culture and climate. Backward mapping theory advocacy to delineating targets at school rather than national level advances the argument about recognition of variations of problems existing in different schools and which therefore would not be addressed by the same solution.
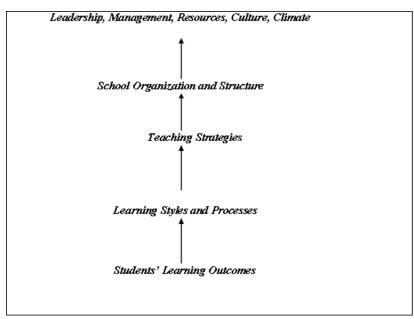
Figure 5. 1: Cascading the Reform Targets and Performance Indicators from Outcomes.

Leadership, Management, Resources, Culture, Climate

↑

School Organization and Structure

↑

Teaching Strategies

↑

Learning Styles and Processes

↑

Students' Learning Outcomes

Adopted from: Elmore et al (1980) in Caldwell, J.B. and Spinks, J.M. (1988), **Beyond the Self-Managing Schools,** London: Falmer Press (p.60)

By backward mapping theory therefore, regional and district education staff could support schools by reorganizing the national performance targets and indicators into simpler, local targets reflective of desired local student learning outcomes. In the context of excessive centralization as is the case in these reforms, redefinition of targets could reflect the regional or district circumstances which were closer to schools than the distant national circumstances. In such reorganization, smooth implementation can be enhanced if desired learning outcomes are translated into learning styles, teaching strategies, school organizational structures and eventually the kind of leadership, management, resources, culture and climate supportive to mapped variables. The mapped variables rather than mere projected achievements, should then serve as benchmarks for monitoring and evaluation of occurrence and extent of desired changes, to address the gap between present and desired performances.

Caldwell and Spinks (op.cit) further showed that central in formulation of reform targets

was naturally education quality to improve studentsø learning. This in turn instructed for improved teaching which in their view had to be professional. In the context of backward mapping theory in reforms, professionalization of teachers entailed empowering them to contribute with success and satisfaction towards the basic tenets. The basic tenets in these reforms (URT, 1995) were studentsøacquisition of culture-for-job-creation, merge of theory and practice and application of acquired knowledge and skills in day-to-day lives, in relation to different areas of teaching and or learning specializations. The implications of such a professionalization strategy could vary depending on specific competences required in teaching of any given subject, rather than mere teacher-student or pupil-book ratios presented in table 5.7. Formulation of quick-wins and monitoring indicators would therefore entail regional and district superintendents offering intensive training programmes to teachers, coupled with devices like ÷batteries of assessmentsø ÷checklistsøand ÷protocolsø for self-checks and monitoring of processes. Strategic reorganization of change occurrence indicators was to be steered by the regional and district education staffs for reform effectiveness at school level.

5.3.7   PARADIGM SHIFT FOR QUALITY TEACHING AND LEARNING

Mapping back from learning outcomes such as culture-for-job-creation, merge of theory and practice and application of acquired knowledge and skills in day-to-day lives cascade to participatory teaching and learning styles and techniques among other things. Data on curricular changes obtained from schools, districts and regional levels showed there were attempts of paradigm shifting from transmittal to participatory delivery of instructions. For example, one of the teachers at school P2 testified that; õí few of our colleagues attended a one day ÷Mhamo wa Luwazoøseminar at the district office, but this lasted for only a day.ö ÷Mhamo wa Luwazoøis Swahili equivalence for ÷Shift of Paradigm.øIn these responses, it was further revealed that the attempt was to shift from transmittal to participatory teaching. Marton & Saljo (1997) and Molander (1997) associated participatory approaches with constructivist theory. They advocated the theory for its ability to enhance deep, as opposed

to surface learning. In this context, deep learning is defined as that which enables students to relate what they learn with what they already knew in real life situations. It is also called holistic approach to learning because the learner looks at the lesson as a whole before studying its parts. Surface learning on the other hand is that which limits students to memorization and focusing on the content without necessity of relating it to real life. The learner simply collect and memorizes facts about the lesson, as opposed to achievements sought in these reforms.

The administration of shift from transmittal to participatory teaching approaches in these reforms was a responsibility of school inspectors. However, the school inspectors did not have administrative authority over teachers and were not members of teams guiding the conduct of reforms at district level. In a way, the introduction of this shift of paradigm was outsourced away from the guiding teams as observed by one of the superintendents in district D2:

> í The Inspectorate was assigned to deal with lecturing and other transmittal teaching methods which were to be abandoned. ...Education officers and other members of the district task force were not invited at Bagamoyo as Inspectors were being oriented to take up the job, although the training funds were sent to DEOs! Inspectors were experts of required skills much as DEOs were managers of resources for dissemination of those skills, although as institutions the two are loosely connected.

In the DEOǿs view, coordination was loose during training of teachers for shift of paradigm because each of them (Administrative and Inspectorate departments) was taking instructions separately from MoEVT to serve the same client, - the teacher. As a result, this training was accorded too brief a time to be sufficient and effective for a large number of teachers requiring the shift. This observation concurred with the teachersǿ that a few of them were invited to training and that in some cases invitees did not replicate the lessons to colleagues whom the invitations were not extended to. As such, the shift could not be effectively understood and practiced by majority of teachers. Furthermore, DEOs and other task force members as administrators of reforms could not supervise the shift of paradigm because they did not know what it entailed.

According to Marton and Saljo (op.cit) the constructivist theory as developed by Piaget, Vygotsky, Vosniadou and Halldien explain learning as active construction of knowledge. The individual uses his or her mental structures, experience and interaction with environment to construct knowledge. As such, its effectiveness would depend on the extent teachers observed a number of things in delivery of instructions. First, the learners were to be differentiated according to levels of development because their conceptual levels were strongly influenced by perceptions of the world around them. Second, delivery of instructions has to take place in environment that matched the complexity of the learner. Three, teachers should identify the optimal environments for growth of the learner in terms of personality. Furthermore, teachers should adopt methods which are supportive to development of thinking skills and making learners independent, versatile and productive to develop and link various concepts. Mapping back from learning outcomes like �-for-job-creationø, ‑merge of theory and practiceø and ‑application of acquired knowledge and skills in day-to-day livesø instructed for adoption of teaching approaches as outlined in constructivist theory because learners would link what they learnt with previous knowledge and experiences, hence making learning meaningful and relevant to life situations. Regional and district superintendents concurred with this assertion as testified by the DEO for district D4 that: õí The shift would effectively merge theory and practice in a supportive environment allowing studentsøcontinued application and practice at home and general society.ö As such, teaching and learning styles, processes and strategies which were identified for adoption in these reforms correctly matched with the desired learning outcomes, only that they were not properly implemented.

As such, it could be concluded that delineation of monitoring indicators from desired learning outcomes in these reforms, successfully identified ideal teaching and learning styles and techniques. Interview responses and analyses of contents in the related documents revealed that participatory teaching seminars and workshops were administered to some groups of teachers in both sub-sectors. This provided an evidence of a decision for shifting from transmittal delivery of instructions to active participation of students.

However, the responses also showed that very few teachers were involved in this training for a very short time; in some cases for one day (e.g. district D2) and in others for one week (e.g. district D1). This implied a faulty implementation, hence a faulty use of identified indicators for monitoring the occurrence of change.

5.3.8   SUPPORTIVE ORGANIZATION AND STRUCTURES

Other school level indicators deriving from mapping back the desired learning outcomes were required to relate to school organization and structures supportive to achievement of change. According to Owen (1970:161-166), this would require a re-education of its participants for improved skills and competences. The participants were to diagnose and deal with emergent power relationships, problems of communication, conflicts and other dynamics in the context of cherished change. Interview responses at schools, districts and regional levels hinted on reorganization of instruction delivery at school level in order to efficiently supervise the linking of theory and practice and using of acquired knowledge in the day to day lives. In this respect, the responses of regional and district superintendents concurred with classroom teachers, asserting that such re-organization dictated some revisions in the home-school partnerships. For example, the REO in region R2 observed that:

> í Schooling has improved tremendously in terms of required resources but this has not changed the quality of education offered. There are problems which we have not addressed. í The policy suggests the merging of theory and practice, and use of acquired skills in the day-to-day lives of students. í It invites partners from different walks of life! How can we understand students use acquired knowledge and skills if the programmes sideline crucial partners like parents and demand everything from schools? í Parents are better placed to assessing use of school lessons in day-to-day lives.

The classroom teachers observed earlier in this study (a section on HR planning in chapter five) that partnership of parents is imperative. They opined that changes in the teaching career, its scope and extent of partnerships would be streamlined if teaching was to extend beyond the walls of a normal classroom and involve parentsø partnerships, particularly in the assessment of practicals in the studentsø homes. Superintendents at district level also

made the same observations that parents are better placed to assess the extent students can use acquired knowledge and skills in day-to-day lives, provided they are supported with efficient supervisory and reporting mechanisms. Furthermore, some sources in the literature (Fullan, 1991) concur with these findings that parent involvement in instructionally related activities at home and or at school benefited the learning process. However, it is also noted that not all parents were interested in their children's school work and not all teachers and schools would seek active parent involvements. These challenges therefore instructed for a thorough description of areas, nature and goals for parent involvements early in the planning phase. Such descriptions depend on the level of centralization versus decentralization of education in a society. For example in America where provision of education is decentralized, Fullan (op.cit) looks at schools and teachers as responsible for bridging the gulf which keep parents distant from active involvement:

> *...Teacher from stuck schools "held no goals for parent participation" ...while teachers from moving schools "focused their efforts on involving parents with academic content, thereby bridging the learning chasm between home and school".*
> Fullan, 1991 (p. 232)

In the case of these reforms where the system is excessively centralized, it is the central government that had to devise the means of communications and power relations to bridge the gulf and enable parents' active participation in monitoring the extent their children are able to use acquired lessons in the day-to-day lives at homes. This further instruct for inclusion of parents and homes in the formal organization and structures that these reforms had to propose in administration of academic activities at school level, upon which the occurrence of change would also be monitored.

5.3.9   SCHOOL MANAGEMENT, LEADERSHIP AND RESOURCES

Caldwell and Spinks' (op.cit) theory identified school leadership, management, resources, culture and climate as constituted in the uppermost tier of reform monitoring indicators. Beneath it, it picked from a tier for school organization and structure, which in turn picked from a tier of teaching strategies. Teaching strategies were in turn determined from learning

styles and processesøtier. In respect to educational management and institutional capacity in Tanzania, the 1990-92 task force (URT, 1993:46) observed the shortfalls in identification, selection, training, deployment, retention, evaluation and professional development of educational managers and administrators. In the view of this task force, the process was subjective, ignoring academic leadership and or administrative competences. The roles and powers of REOs and DEOs were not clearly defined, making them operate with limited control of financial resources and power to superintend the running of secondary schools and inspection of schools and colleges. As such, adoption of open, competitive and transparent recruitment of managers was recommended as one of the measures to reform the system. At primary school level, recommended selection criteria for headteachers were grade IIIA teacher or above and Educational Management and Administration certificates. At secondary school level, recommended criteria for selection of heads of schools were a degree in education, diploma in Educational Management and Administration and five year successful teaching in a Teacher Training College (TTC) or a Folk Development College (FDC). DEOs were recommended to have the same qualifications as heads of secondary schools except that the former had to have a degree in education major, whereas the latter could simply possess a Bachelor of Education general degree. At regional level, it was recommended for REOs to possess all qualifications of a DEO and either a Masterøs degree in Educational Management and Administration, or an Advanced Diploma in Educational Management and Administration, and three years of post-training experience. ETP (URT, 1995) in section 4.3.7 reiterates the recommendations though with reduced emphasis, that:

> *All educational managers at national, regional, district and post – primary formal education and training institutions shall have a university degree, professional training in education and management, as well as appropriate experience. Education managers at Ward and primary school levels shall have a Certificate or Diploma in education, as well as professional training in education management and administration from a recognized institution.*

> URT, 1995 (p.29)

In terms of academic qualifications and working experiences which were most required by the managements to influence the acquisition of desired learning outcomes, 1995 policy

descriptions were not as specific as the task force recommendations. For example by policy, the appointment of REOs and DEOs could base on possession of any University degrees including non-education degrees. Specific experiences recommended by the task force were now relegated to unspecified "appropriate experience", complicating the problem of subjectivity in recruitment of managers vis-à-vis cultivation of desired climate and culture at school level.

For PEDP (URT, 2003) and SEDP (URT, 2006) programmes, school level managers' qualifications were not specified, but they were urged to involve committees and boards in the management of resources. In behavioural terms, PEDP and SEDP therefore instructed for schools as collegial organizations whereby management was a team work, and school heads required to integrate and coordinate the contribution of each member. In these reforms however, some basic assumptions underlying the effectiveness of collegial organizations were overlooked as the DEO in district D2 noted:

> í Fully and effective participation of committees and boards were difficult because the policies were made by other central distant institutions. í Reform goals and objectives were contextualized variably between participants í there were decisions which none of the school level participants could change.

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2001), collegial organizations would be effective if they were authorized to determine policies and make all decisions by consensus. Effectiveness emanates from participants' mutual understanding of organizational objectives and sharing of power. What is suggested in the response above is contrary in the sense that involvement of committees and boards was ineffective because schools had no mandate to make policies, nor could they amend policies imposed onto them. In principle, collegial model would work well in a fully decentralized arrangement where schools had full authority to decide their fates. In turn, this would encourage a replacement of vertical by horizontal school level decision making structures where participants contribute without limitations. Decisions would therefore be accepted not because it was senior level's decision or supported by the majority, but because it was a consensus of all through

committees and or boards.

Secondly, collegial organizations assumed the participants had a common vision, in this case, of the cherished changes. The interview responses identified some variations in the way different participantsø understood reforms. Some of these variations were highlighted by the DEO in district D3:

> í Participantsø knowledge of PEDP varied. í There were government intentions to improve access, quality, institutional arrangements and cross-cutting issues on one hand, and the parents and communitiesøperception of the programme as fast-trucking of classroom constructions to relieve them of various educational costs, hence subsidizing their contributions to education of their children. í To politicians, PEDP was a social capital for election campaigns.

These observations demonstrated the variations in the subjective dimensions of the stakeholders of PEDP who apparently were not brought in any joint forum to dissolve their differences and arrive at objective, common ÷big pictureøof reforms. These variations were also noted by the reviewers of the programme (URT, 2003d) that:

> *...book procurement system established at district level is not proving responsive to schools ...committee members, headteachers and teachers felt they could better handle the procurement of textbooks and instructional materials at school level. ...The Stakeholder Conference highlighted an interesting understanding about PEDP, between those who see it mainly as a matter of resource allocation and the efficiency and impact thereof, and those who argue that PEDP is part of a wider process of empowerment.*
>
> URT, 2003d (p. 13)

The implications deriving from these observations were that the effectiveness of collegial model of organizations reflected in the use of committees and boards would be enhanced if all participants were jointly enlightened on the objectives of the programmes, resources required and the roles of each participant. As such, the proposal for involving committees and boards appealed to collegial model of organizations, actual practices in making of decisions and procurement of resources reflected a large amount of autocracy which was top-down. Kreitner and Kinicki (op.cit) defined autocratic organizations as those in which the boss is a knower of everything, and formal structures are developed to communicate orders through so that subordinates can implement without hesitation or questioning. In context of these reforms, identified model for organizing schools could therefore not

effectively serve as a quick-win indicator, because theoretically it advocated a collegial model while the process was practically autocratic model of organizational behaviour.

Therefore, the analysis and discussion of findings relating to the strategies employed by the regional and district superintendents to commit other participants to action and focus uncovered a number of issues considered pertinent for school level effective implementation of education change. A summary pattern of these issues on one hand was matched with another pattern of related field practices on another hand as shown in Table 5.8:

Table 5. 8: Issues Related to Committing People to Action and Focus

ISSUES		FIELD PRACTICES
• Clarity of Vision and strategies, i.e. eliminating obstacles to change, encouraging non-traditional ideas, activities and actions, and assuring availability of people by quality and quantity.		- <u>Regional and district superintendents are sidelined in the role of empowering the participants:</u> • Process steered by distant central ministries. • District Task Forces and teachers overlooked during reform participant inductions. • Blurred guidance for regional intervention in appointment of competent school board members.
• Professionalism of Guiding Teams and Regional and District Superintendents.		- <u>Lack of required education management qualifications and experiences among majority of managers and team members:</u> • Strife on short-term management problems e.g. expanded enrolment, school furniture additional textbooks etc, as opposed to higher order goals like culture-for-job-creation and merge of theory and practice.
• Information Communication System ensuring exchange of clear, accurate and prompt information between and among reform managers and participants.		- <u>Tailor-made reporting system to inform the centre on districts and schoolsø expenditure of programme resources:</u> • Schools reporting per interests of the centre. Crucial information in views of

		schools, e.g. reasons for achieved performances in enrolments not reported. • One way communication. • Regular, prompt feed-backs and corrective measures not sent to districts and schools.
• Quick Wins/Indicators serving as benchmarks for monitoring and evaluation of stages and occurrence of change.		- <u>Performance targets which are neither disaggregated into categories of clients, varieties of learning needs or geographical locations, nor linked to desired outcomes:</u> • Absence of strategies, services and structures for efficient realization of set targets. • Absence of individual school targets committing the grass-root practitioners to focus. • Absence of clear transition for achieving the set targets.
• Shift from transmittal to participatory teaching/learning paradigms.		- <u>Inspectors are responsible for advocacy and training, DEOs retain and manage the funds, the two are administratively loosely linked:</u> • The guiding teams are technically ignorant about the shift.
• Supportive organization and structures for efficient monitoring of change.		- <u>Parents and homes are formally excluded in a system requiring studentsø application of knowledge and skills in day-to-day lives:</u> • Acquisition of desired learning outcomes is not efficiently monitored.
• School level management and leadership.		- <u>Contradiction between collegiality reflected in a proposal to involve committees and boards in school managements, and autocracy reflected in a way decisions are made and procurement practiced:</u> • Committees and Boards are ineffective as parties in school managements.

Kotterø idea of establishing quick-wins (in Armstrong, 2006) was meant to include in the reform process, a demonstration of visible performance improvements against which the occurrence of change would be measured. Caldwell and Hayward (1998) and Caldwell and Spinks (1998) looked at such targets and performance indicators formation as more efficiently delineated from desired learning outcomes, in a decentralized arrangement. Both

schools of thought emphasize rewarding of participants involved in making desired changes a reality. Data on performance indicators have shown the erosion of desired learning outcomes in terms of scope. The outcomes began as culture-for-job-creation, merge of theory and practice and use of acquired knowledge and skills in the day-to-day lives at the phases of task force and formulation of Education and Training Policy. At PEDP and SEDP stages the focus were cut short to outputs such as expansion of access and improvement of quality, equity and cross-cutting issues. At this level, emphasis was more on infrastructure and resources other than human, which by backward mapping process it was indicated that studentsø learning styles and processes, teaching strategies and school organization and structures were ignored. Furthermore, school leadership, management, resources, climate and culture were not adequately delineated to match the desired learning outcomes. With unclear indicators, monitoring is difficult much as is an understanding if the objectives are being achieved or not.

CHAPTER SIX: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations deriving from the study which examined, appraised and described the effects of school level human factor in the management and conduct of education reforms in Tanzania. Presented conclusions and recommendations for action and further research emanate from the surveyed literature, analyses and discussion of the findings in the previous chapters.

6.2 THE SUMMARY

The purpose of the study was to examine, appraise and describe the effects of the human factor towards achievement of education reform goals and objectives. Specifically, it examined the strategies employed to manage and develop teachers in relation to reform objectives, recruitment and induction of heads of schools to adequately manage reforms at school level, empowerment of school committees and boards for active participation in reforms, and support provided by district and regional levels to enable schoolsøefficient and effective implementation of reforms. The study was guided by a conceptual framework mapping out the strategies for managing and developing teachers, recruitment of heads of schools, empowerment of school committees and boards and role of regional and district staff to provide supportive policies, knowledge and skills to school level reform actors.

In chapter two, the surveyed literature testified that people and accountability related dimensions were not adequately addressed. There was no testimony for considerations focusing on dimensions of curriculum, for example about teaching approaches and educational beliefs. The achievements reported did not provide sufficient evidences for changes in quality, teaching strategies or studentsø learning activities. Some resources were supplied abundantly but not necessarily efficiently. This suggested further gaps in

the way available and procured resources were managed to realize desired objectives. Related to ÷people÷dimension, the literature further suggested the existence of gaps on the way they were sorted out and committed to action (accountability) for matching with reform goals and objectives, especially at school level where ÷student-learning-differentlyø was actually required. Specifically, there were gaps related to strategies for managing and developing classroom teachers to enable them teach differently towards desirable learning outcomes; strategies for recruitment and inductions of heads of schools to enable efficient leadership and management of the process; strategies for empowerment of school committees and boards to enable them efficiently participate in reforms; and strategies through which the regional and district staff could provide efficient HR related support in terms of policies, knowledge and skills to school level reform actors.

The study was therefore based on a conceptual framework instructing a four level reform process. At the base there were classroom teachers, heads of schools, school committees and boards, and the regional and district educational staff. These were identified as critical actors for carrying out reforms at school level. On the basis of related literature, reforms were to make classroom teachers capable of teaching differently if by any rate students had to learn differently. The heads of schools had to be capable of leading and managing the schools differently if available human and non-human resources were to enable students learn differently and acquire desirable learning outcomes. Members of school committees and boards had to be capable of actively and skillfully participate in reform process, and ensure continued services between schools and their environments. Regional and district education support staff had to efficiently support schools by policies, interpretations, knowledge, skills and competences for other school level actors carrying out reforms as required.

At the second level, the framework instructed for studying the interventions by various school level actors in pursuit of desired objectives. It was at this level that data were collected and conclusions drawn on strategies for management and development of

teachers, recruitment of heads of schools, empowerment of members of school committees and boards, and district and regional level support to schools. The third and fourth levels of the framework were demonstrations of outputs and outcomes that derived from interaction of variables in first and second levels. Changes in work behaviour of teachers, heads of schools, members of committees and boards, and superintendents at regional and district levels were registered as outputs (third level). Ideally, culture-for-job-creation, merge of theory and practice and application of acquired knowledge and skills were the outcomes expected (fourth level) if there were strategic alignment of variables in levels one, two and three.

Case study design was utilized, to allow the investigation to retain holistic and meaningful school level characteristics. Furthermore, it provided an in-depth understanding of PEDP and SEDP as reform strategies, the problems they were to resolve, available and required resources and indicators for performance effectiveness. Interviews and documentation were principal data collection techniques, while direct observation was a secondary triangulation strategy. The techniques were employed because they allowed interpretations of subjective meanings placed by individuals on their actions, and discovery of subjective rules for such actions. Pattern-matching and explanation-building were the strategies employed for analyzing the data. Whereas pattern-matching compared empirically based patterns with predicted patterns of specific variables defined prior to data collection on one hand, explanation-building specified the sets of causal links about a phenomenon therefore developing some ideas for studying a phenomenon further. Issues of extent to which the research findings could be replicated and yield the same results (reliability), and the congruency between the findings and the reality (internal validity), were addressed by triangulation and peer examination involving a multiplicity of data sources. The sources were later compared for congruency. Issues of the extent to which the findings could be applied in other situations (external validity) were equated to user-generalizability; that knowledge learnt from this in-depth analysis could be transferred to other situations (concrete

universals). The ethical dimensions were taken on board by striking a balance between the demands placed on the researcher in pursuit of truth, and respondentsø rights and values potentially threatened by the research. The consent and co-operation of the participants were guaranteed, confidentiality was promised and the potential consequences of their involvement in this study were thoroughly discussed.

6.3   CONCLUSIONS

A number of conclusions were derived from analyses of findings in the four research tasks about strategies for management and development of classroom teachers, recruitment and inductions of heads of schools, empowerment of school committees and boards, and support of the district and regional level superintendents to schools.

6.3.1   MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

The first task aimed to assess the strategies for management and development of teachers towards effective realization of reform goals and objectives. This assessment was done by looking into the ways teachers were recruited and selected, the ways teacher training and development were managed, and the ways the teaching process was appraised and rewarded.

Teacher (HR) Planning: This was about reform clear identification of future activity levels for teachers, resourcing strategies and ensuing strategic plans, demand and supply forecasts, work environment analyses and the like. These were found not to be clearly delineated. The study of KRAs showed that the learning outcomes set in ETP were down-sized in PEDP and SEDP. Culture-for-job-creation, merge of theory and practice and application of knowledge and skills in day to day lives were replaced by objectives for access and ÷quantified equity and quality of educationø Teacher deployment projections were thereafter based on quantitative techniques prescribing the numbers of periods and teachersø grades instead of skills, knowledge and competences required for desired outcomes. Teachers and other school level practitioners had a view of teaching which could transcend beyond a normal classroom; so that parents were also

allowed to participate in assessment of the extent students could utilize acquired knowledge and skills in daily lives. This view was not taken on board because HR planning was unilateral, top-down ignoring lower level stakeholders. It was fed from TSM and TSS; comprehensive data collection tools apparently not efficiently analysed and interpreted by MOEVT and PM-RALG to adequately reveal the school level HR requirements. Disuse of data on teaching specializations and students with special needs was noted, for they did not reflect in teachersøprojections for training and deployment.

As noted from Armstrong (2006), Fullan (1991) and Senge (1990) HR planning requires entailing definition of future states, mission, vision and scope, purpose and philosophy of innovations. For practitionersø smooth and efficient participation, HR planning should also appraise their capacities to initiate, develop and adopt innovations, by also taking stock of their subjective views about these innovations. There must be a ±teaching HR strategyøto link the goals, purpose and scope on one hand and the kind of knowledge, skills and competencies required by the HR at school level on the other hand.

Training and Development: This was guide by Education Circular No. 7 of 2007; five years after inception of PEDP and three years after inception of SEDP. The circular demanded the teachers to initiate the process of their own training, as opposed to making training and development integral parts of reforms. Majority of teachers did not identify any programmes for own training. Few that did and were trained mainly chose programmes of own aspirations rather than reform requirements. By PEDP, US $40 was pledged for in-service training of each serving teacher per annum but these were not availed to schools. From this shortage of funds, school based teacher training programmes recommended in ESDP were not conducted. By SEDP there were pledges to accelerate pre-service training of teachers, professional training and strengthening of school inspectorate, apparently ignoring the classroom teachers who were already in the field. Teaching of new subjects was ignored in both sub-sectors. Commerce,

engineering and artistic studies were reported by teachers as relevant subjects for the desired outcomes but were not given prominences in secondary school teacher training. Work skills and ICT were reported by the primary school teachers as relevant to desired outcomes but were not given prominence by teachers because they were not trained in the same, nor were the subjects examinable at the end of the cycle. Teacher training and development policy was far distant from school level teaching and learning realities.

It was therefore concluded that innovations could meaningfully make students learn differently if the subjects were examined at the end of school cycle, because teachersø concentration was usually on examinable subjects. Secondly, teacher training rather than directives from higher levels of administration influenced the teachersøcompliance to implement an innovation, even if other variables like textbooks and physical structures were abundantly available. Thirdly, innovations from national levels could benefit schools and students if they were well understood through timely and proper training of teachers.

Role Profiles, Specifications and Recruitment: It was found that both PEDP and SEDP did not adequately emphasize the ways and ranges of tasks individuals had to undertake in order to realize the reform goals and objectives. Primary school (PEDP) teachersødescriptions of jobs were generic, prescriptive and not focused on outcomes or competences required to achieve them. Secondary school (SEDP) teachersødescriptions on the other hand were clearer and rather focused, but not realistic in some instances due to shortage of teachers for certain specializations and levels. Generally, the teachersødescriptions of reform roles did not facilitate unambiguous performances and outputs. They did not specify the competences required by teachers for required performances, the number of lessons they were to teach in a given time, number of students one had to attend in a class and others.

It was also found that despite reforms, teaching continued to attract the lowest school

achievers because it was still offering the lowest remunerations in the public sector. Teachers were working beyond the prescribed terms without extra pays as were being provided in other careers. Poor housing conditions, teaching allowance, health insurance contributions and other benefits were some of the issues teachers were looking forward for reforms to address but which were apparently not being tackled. The government as the teachersømajor employer was also not appraised for determining the ways through which teacher attraction and retention could be enhanced.

Performance Management: Two parallel performance management systems were found to co-exist in some schools during the reforms, but none was efficiently operated. These were OPRA and Education Form (EF) 117 systems. OPRAS was found to have spilled over to some schools from reforms administered by Public Service Department at the time, thus many teachers and schools were not sufficiently informed about it. EF.117 on another hand was a closed performance management system considered ineffective due to various reasons. First, reforms had made the heads of schools (appraisers) busier with other school development responsibilities than they were to delivery of classroom instructions. Secondly, heads of schools were academically not conversant with some subjects, nor were their selection based on academic excellence. Furthermore, actual classroom performance management was found to rely on devices unilaterally administered by teachers themselves such as the schemes of work, lesson plans, lesson notes and subject logs. These devices were bestowing excessive discretion on teachers to managing their own performances, thus diminishing their thrusts to aim high. Lastly, it was found that teachersøperformances were very frequently interrupted by other social-economic activities which they had to seek in order to make ends meet. These interruptions were not captured in EF.117 although they very significantly reduced the teachersø concentration to teaching. It was therefore concluded that the system of gauging and managing the performances of teachers was not effectively changed, nor was it addressed by reforms.

Reward Management: It was found from the views of teachers that these reforms had brought more and heavier roles but reduced remunerations. They failed to meet the teachersø expectations for reinstatement of suspended allowances and employment benefits, to make remunerations total with a multiplicity of mechanisms operating in unison. Analysis and ranking of (selected) jobs by both paired comparison and point-factor evaluation rejected the notion that remunerating teachers lower than many other cadres was by any rate just. Teaching in the view of teachers, was ranking higher than soldiers, technicians and accountants in terms of demands onto the job-holders, competences required and impacts made to general society. However, soldiers, technicians and accountants were better and more highly paid than teachers. These inconsistencies were attributed to another finding that there was not conducted any job evaluation before or during the reforms to rationalize variations of rewards between cadres.

It was noted that remunerations of teachers were made even smaller in these reforms due to employersø frequent frustration of employment contracts, particularly in relation to workloads. Assignments exceeding the standard prescriptions, teaching classes above set PTR or beyond official work durations were always not transformed into additional remunerations as was done to other cadres. The PTR in the primary schools of the sample was noted as increasing with years of PEDP implementation, with same remunerations for teachers. Furthermore, teachers were frequently asked by employers to participate in activities such as elections, national census or malaria and ‑Kilimo Kwanzaøcampaigns in which they could not bargain for remunerations.

It was found that employee- benefits related policies that were in use were incapable of attracting and retaining high quality teachers. Workers, including teachers could curb the shocks emanating from inequitable pays by acquiring financial loans from government owned banks and institutions. These were NBC and NMB which were charging very high interests, although there were employee-owned PSPF, PPF and

NSSF therefore likely to also extend loans to workers by charging lower interests. The policy was therefore viewed to be for benefits of government and employers rather than employee benefits because it diminished the income of the worker even further.

The assertion that PEDP and SEDP were not realizing the set goals and objectives for culture-for-job-creation, merge of theory and practice and use of acquired knowledge in day to day lives of students due to inefficient participation of teachers was confirmed and attributed to inadequate HR management strategies. This could improve by changes in training and development, recruitment and selection, performance and reward managements of teachers who were one of critical practitioners at school level.

6.3.2   RECRUITMENT AND INDUCTION OF HEADS OF SCHOOLS

The second task aimed to examine if the strategies for recruitment and induction of heads of schools could ensure effective management of reforms at school level. This was studied by looking into the ways they were selected, engaged and given orientations to competently manage change at school level, as well as the ways they could practically and competently lead the reform process to desired changes.

Recruitment, Selection and Inductions: Selection and recruitment of heads of schools was found as characterized by a gap between related policies on one hand, and practice (implementation) on the other hand. In practice, the process neglected the academic and administrative criteria upheld in related policies; giving prominence to working experience as a major criterion. Related policies had suggested the possession of education management and administration credentials as some of criteria for school headship, but these were found not to be in operation. Furthermore, application of open, transparent and competitive principles was replaced by patronymic closed procedures to select and recruit the heads of schools. Selection and recruitment of heads of schools that neglected merit, academic and administrative criteria were found to be in misalignment with the reform objectives for quality improvements. School inspectorsø

reports and WECsø recommendations on which these selection and recruitment were practically based maintained the *status quo* and were short of strategic definitions for requirements, quality and orientation of school headships sought by reforms.

Furthermore, it was found that on being appointed, heads of schools were inducted in a way which was neither systematic nor intensive. Little that was offered was about school finance, reporting systems and procedures. The programmes paid little importance to quality objectives, resulting to recruitment, selection and induction sidelining the improvement of academic leadership and management in schools.

Managerial Roles: In assuming these roles, it was found that the heads of schools were only scantly familiar with policies, procedures and practices related with involved responsibilities which ideally were involving scheduling, programming, supplying, managing and monitoring the activities of others. Furthermore, practice of heads of schools in these areas was limited to enforcing the decisions and directives of the central level (MoEVT). The schools were characterized by overcrowded classrooms, shortage of desks, semi-finished building projects, and inefficient instruction delivery of compulsory subjects like ICT, Work Skills, General Studies, Social and Physical Sciences. Supplies of necessary resources and facilities were far below expectations although ETP (URT, 1995) and PEDP (URT, 2002) and SEDP (URT, 2004) were clear on policies and procedures through which required practices would be determined. Heads of schoolsø competes to schedule, manage, evaluate and translate curriculum into school visions and missions were blocked by targets set centrally which they could not relax. School based teacher in-service training and development programmes were neither designed nor administered as planned because relevant procedures were too unrealistic for the heads of schools to apply for securing required resources (TSh.30,000/- per teacher per annum) from the centre. Generally, the administrative practices of heads of schools adhered to the dos and donøts dictated from the centre seeking to enforce substantial uniformities between schools. The heads of schools

managerial roles were characterized by resistance to changes and enforcement of central directives and policies. The practices did not transcend to codifying, up-grading, restructuring and innovating levels on a continuum of organizational behaviour which in this case were considered higher order administrative skills. These would entail working beyond the directives from the centre, consider the dictations of local environments and allow heads of schools to actively participate in goal-setting, policy making, planning and budgeting.

Leadership Roles: These were heads of schoolsø responsibilities in educational, symbolic or cultural dimensions of school headship. In the educational dimension, the competences of heads of schools were impinged by the limited infrastructure of communication of education information. MoEVT headquarters was a sole source of education information although it did not give importance to curriculum related reform objectives. Heads of schools as leaders failed to competently obtain information about emerging educational issues that could affect schools, and think analytically about teaching and learning.

In the symbolic dimension, it was found that as leaders, the heads of schools were gradually loosing their symbolic traits as they gradually disembarked from routine teaching duties. Otherwise, active participation in teaching assisted the heads of schools to communicate meaning, value and focus to teachers and others they lead. Effective communication of meaning and requirements which others had to emulate were noted as necessitating full participation in teaching and merging of theory and practice; practical resolution of challenges that arise from large class sizes, inadequate supply of resources and other factors frustrating the performance of teachers in the delivery of classroom instructions. Heads of schools as leaders, disembarked from symbolizing required performances in classroom instruction deliveries.

In the cultural dimension, PEDP and SEDP directive and policies were found short of

values, norms, artefacts and leadership styles that school cultures had to entail. Analysis of cultures in the sample schools revealed leadership styles and artefacts as attributes of culture that distinguished schools in terms of implementation of reforms. Generally, heads of schools were autocratic, controllers or transactional rather than democratic, enablers or transformational. They therefore were less visionary, achievement-oriented, calculated risk-takers, good communicators, inspirational and encouraging others to participate in reforms. In regard of artefacts; mottos, vision and mission statements were employed to express the cultures heads of schools sought to achieve, but these statements were often misaligned with actual conditions and practices in schools. Such a misalignment was a reflection of weakness of heads of schools as leaders, to efficiently formulate artefacts and translate them to actions.

It was concluded that inductions which were offered were not efficient enough to assist heads of schools establish adequate initiating structures, organize and define group activities, tasks and plans for getting things done; it was difficult to realize the reform objectives. Furthermore, the heads of schoolsømanagerial competences were too low to realize desired objectives due to practices which were both misaligned from policies and procedures, and divorced from higher order administrative skills. In regard of leadership competences, heads of schools were impinged by the limited infrastructure of education information communication, disembarking from classroom teaching, and school cultures which did not correspond with requirements, conditions and practices in schools.

6.3.3 CONSTITUTION AND EMPOWERMENT OF SCHOOL COMMITTEES AND BOARDS

In the third task, the strategies through which the school committees and boards were constituted and empowered to effectively monitor reforms were examined. In respect of compositions, concerns were on the criteria upon which the members were selected or appointed. In respect of empowerment, concerns were on the provision of inductions to

the members and the codes of conduct which were in use. The members were also assessed of the extent they possessed participation-related and information-gathering knowledge, skills and strategies to efficiently take part in reforms.

Constitution of Committees and Boards: It was found that the guidelines prescribed by MANTEP (1995) and the Education Circular No. 14 of 2002 that school committees had to draw their memberships from the civil society, teachers and parents with specific knowledge and skills were not adhered. The school managements lobbied to acquire members of their own choice, usually the -havesø and public service retirees potential to providing material and financial contributions, and assumed knowledgeable about schools and education. -Well-to-doømembers could more easily contribute and donate for others. Gradually, the membersø conversance and interest in schools and education were superseded and replaced by economic well-being. This shift in determination of membersø recruitment qualifications was not in alignment with reform goals, that it consequently retained the status-quo in the *modus operand* rather than facilitating changes. Involvement of committees and boards in implementation of instructional objectives remained marginal; school decisions were made without parents and communitiesø consents; and feedbacks of school programmes were not adequately conveyed between parents and communities.

Inductions and Codes of Conduct: It was also found that there were no formal inductions offered, nor were any codes of conduct to enable members smoothly take up their responsibilities. Funds for induction of committees and boards were timely released but utilization was delayed at district level because they were not accompanied with required instructions. It was also found that the reforms were conducted with absence of clear and exhaustive code of conduct for members of committees and boards. As a result, member involvements were often haphazard and not clearly focusing to vision and goals set. Reforms were perceived variably; some interpretations with sharp contrasts from intended meanings. Implementation and member involvements skewed to access at the

expense of other quality and equity objectives. Effective participation was impeded by knowledge and skills gap emanating from uninformed interpretation of roles, position and obligations. Committees and boards did not work closely and interactively with district and regional staffs. Generally, schools were under-supported by districts and regions in a unidirectional system of information communication; not conveying subjective views of school actors to district, regional and other senior levels.

It was concluded that committee and board efficient involvements in school programmes depended on the extent they were efficiently inducted, and the extent they were guided by clear codes of conduct showing how they would deal with parents, communicate with stakeholders, gather parentsø views about school programmes and convey feedbacks between parents and schools. This further suggested that committee and board capacities to participate in school programmes would be enhanced if they were trained in gathering and communication of information about schools and education, planning and interpretation of school plans, and various techniques for intervening in instruction related school programme objectives.

6.3.4   THE POSITION AND ROLE OF REGIONAL AND DISTRICT EDUCATION STAFF

The position and role of regional and district staffs were studied in task number four. The task sought to assess the extent to which the staffs supported schools for effective implementation of PEDP and SEDP. It sought to establish ways and conditions in which regional and district roles were restructured to better support studentsø improved and sustainable learning at school level.

School Level Creation of Awareness of Change: It was found that changes were introduced in a top-down, rigid and hasty process which could not thoroughly identify and discuss school level crises and opportunities, or test for need and priorities of proposed changes. The booklets and brochures which regions and districts received from

the Central Government for introducing the changes were limited to purchases, procurement and management of funds, and later on training of school committees. Important ideals were ignored or inadequately handled. Aspects of reform relevance; for example utility of involved innovations, need and actorsøclear understanding of changes were not addressed. Individual capacities were not assessed to identify the extent they were ready to initiate, develop or adopt the change. Schools were not sufficiently supported through seminars, workshops and or resources required to popularize and execute changes, particularly in the instruction (curricular) related objectives.

Committing People to Action and Focus, Process and Monitoring of Reforms: Teaching methods, contents and school realities and needs were not critically analyzed to influence and inform the regional and district advocacy and support to schools. Problems of overstaffing, understaffing, inadequate infrastructures and supplies variably but persistently characterized the reforming schools, thus threatening the realization of equity and quality objectives. Transformational leadership competency was not emphasized among regional and district education staff, to otherwise enable effective motivation of other school level actors to strive for higher order goals like culture-for-job-creation and merge of theory and practice. In-service trainings, one-to-one technical help and peer interactions to and with teachers were not actively provided. Frequent instructions from the centre limited the regional and district staff focus and emphasis to short-term day-to-day management problems like expanded enrolment, school furniture, textbooks and school toilets, at the expense of middle and long term second order changes.

Information Communication System: It was found that a tailor-made reporting system was designed to provide the centre with information it was requiring about expenditure of resources by districts and schools. Reports were addressed to Regional Administration and Local Government department in the Prime Ministerøs Office (PM-RALG) and copied to MoEVT - apparently a lead ministry in these reforms. Understanding of the feelings and reactions of some members affected by change were not enhanced by the

system. Such understanding presupposed precision which could ensure the regional and district superintendents, reform guiding teams and participants were all furnished with clear, accurate and prompt information and instructions. Smooth implementation and monitoring were not guaranteed by rigid system of information communication utilized in these reforms.

Quick Wins/Assessment of the Change Process: Quick wins and change process indicators were national by outlook. The targets showed the direction where changes had to move without showing how the progression of its occurrence would be monitored. They did not focus on actual instructions, teaching and learning, but on ratios and quantities to be achieved in provision of different supplies and services. Focus on instructions, teaching and learning did not adequately target and assess professionalization of critical participants like teachers; identify services bureaucrats had to provide; and develop structures for effective and efficient provision of those services. Teachers, heads of schools, committees and boards and district and regional education staffs were not clear of performance standards (quantity and quality) which they had to achieve at every stage of change.

It was also found that mapping the desired learning outcomes backwards could serve as a technique for targeting and assessing the change process. Monitoring indicators would then trickle from culture-for-job-creation and merge of theory and practice to inform on targets in learning styles and processes, e.g. learning by doing, participatory and constructivism methods. Learning styles and processes would later inform on teaching styles, school organization and structures, and lastly leadership, management, resources, culture and climate. The indicators set in these reforms mainly fell in the last tier of this analysis, ignoring the indicators for learning and teaching styles and strategies.

Supportive Organization and Structures: It was found that assessing the extent students could utilize acquired knowledge in day to day lives required reorganization of teaching to extend beyond the walls of a normal classroom. In turn, it entailed a revision

of school-home partnerships to allow parentsø active involvement in assessment of practicals in the studentsø homes, provided efficient supervisory and reporting mechanisms were also put in place. It also entailed a thorough analysis and description of areas, nature, scope and goals of parent involvements, noting that some parents were not interested in their childrenøs academic work, and some schools and teachers would not seek involvements of parents.

School Management, Leadership and Resources: It was found that PEDP and SEDP schools by design were collegial organizations requiring involving committees and boards in the management of resources. The heads of schools were to integrate and coordinate the contributions of each member into a ÷team workø Notwithstanding the institutional arrangements in which all decisions and directives were issued from the centre, the regional and district education staff were required to support school management teams contextualize decisions and policies to local environments. By default, school managements did not have mandate to make policies nor did regional and district staff support them with skills and competences for making adjustments. As such, schools were not effectively managed as collegial organizations.

Furthermore, schools failed to work as collegial organizations because different involved stakeholders did not have similar vision of reforms. Bureaucrats on one hand had the government vision of improved access, equity and quality through cost sharing and partnerships, but parents on another hand envisioned relief and subsidy to schooling expenses, yet politicians envisioned a social capital for use in elections.

6.4   RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the findings and conclusions deriving from there, the following recommendations are given as an attempt to increase the utility and effectiveness of school level human resources in the conduct and implementation of education reforms.

6.4.1 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ACTION

i.   Planning of sustainable change in education requires an HR strategy. As noted by Stringfield (1994) and Grout and Perrin (2002), education change required garnering and consumption of several resources but humans were indispensable and a powerhouse over other resources. Planning of education change would therefore be effective if it entailed a strategy for managing and developing humans. At school level, the critical actors include classroom teachers, heads of schools, members of committees and boards and the regional and district education superintendents. In case of reform management and development of classroom teachers, the strategy requires planning which links goals, purpose and scope on one hand, and knowledge, skills and competences required for achieving them on the other hand. In turn, such linking requires adjustments in teacher training and development for matching with involved innovations; revision of role profiles, specification and recruitment procedures for engagement and retention of competent teachers, and redefinition of required competences and workload standards; revision of the system for gauging and managing the performances of teachers so that the methods which coach, guide, motivate and reward individuals are adopted to unleash their potentials and improve their performances; and determination of rewards after thorough evaluation of teaching in context of other occupations so that payments which are total in nature are provided to attract and retain high quality teachers, and rationalize variations between their remunerations and those of other occupations.

ii.   Educational reformsø management and leadership at school level should entail strengthening the heads of schools through proper induction and recruitment procedures. Requirements for heads of schools should be defined depending on specific tasks, goals and objectives to be accomplished, but also noting the general observation that meaningful reforms had to enable leading and managing the process for studentsø improved learning. Recruitment, selection and induction of heads of schools in the reform

process should therefore attract and select candidates potential to giving prominence to academic leadership and management in schools. Incumbents of school headship should be strengthened in managerial roles to ensure they are familiar with policies, procedures and practices relating to changed responsibilities and practice of higher order administrative skills like codifying, up-grading, restructuring and innovating from their local environments. In their leadership roles, incumbents should be strengthened to model out required behaviour and performances, demonstrate democratic, enabling and transformative leadership of schools and utilize artefacts which enhance achievement of set goals and objectives.

iii.   For effective link of schools and communities, committees and boards should be composed by members who are conversant and interested in education, schools and society. The member practice should be guided by clear codes of conduct to show how they should deal with parents, communicate with stakeholders, intervene in school programmes, interact with district and regional levels and communicate feedback to parents. Member capacity to efficiently carry out these responsibilities should be appraised prior to appointments in order to design and administer inductions which timely and adequately address the shortfalls if any.

iv.   Regional and district education staffs should support the occurrence of changes at school level. As Fullan (1991) noted, these staffs must lead the process that tests out the need and priority of change, determine the appropriateness of innovations, and clarify, support and insist on the roles of different participants. At school level, this would in turn require regional and district staffs that are capable of introducing national level changes by relating them to school level crises and opportunities. School level actors should also be committed to action and focus by the regional and district provision of in-service trainings, one-to-one technical helps, peer interactions and other fora that can efficiently equip participants with higher order skills and capacities to initiate, develop and adopt second order changes. For school level actorsøefficient participation, regional and district

levels should establish an information communication system furnishing all participants with clear, accurate and prompt information about roles, responsibilities and progresses made. Communication should be cyclic between and among different participants rather than top-down, unilinear system of information flow.

Regional and district education staff should therefore be able to determine the Quick-Wins indicating direction and content of change upon which monitoring of the occurrence of change can be made. This is a checklist indicating the actual instructions, teaching and learning; professionalization of critical participants; goods and services bureaucrats should provide and structures for putting in place for effective provision of those services; and performance standards (quantity and quality) to be achieved. The quick-wins are more effective if they are deduced from desired learning outcomes cascading to learning styles, school organization and lastly leadership, management, resources, culture and climate. Lastly, organizational structures supportive to desired teaching and learning should also be established to facilitate smooth interaction of participants. In this case, such structures would facilitate parentsø involvements in school academic programmes, for example in supervision and assessment of studentsøutilization of acquired knowledge and skills in day to day lives and practices.

6.4.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

i.   The argument put forward by MoEVT officials in Tanzania that school level actors, parents and local communities were ignorant and unable to assume roles and responsibilities devolved to them requires to be reexamined. This argument was first reported by the Task Force for 21st Century Tanzania Education System (URT, 1993) and later Galabawa (1997) and Galabawa and Agu (2001). It is observed from ETP (URT, 1995), ESDP, PEDP and SEDP that by design, more roles and responsibilities would be devolved to schools and local communities. The programmes are all creatures of the central government which by default and findings in this study, still resists to effectively

decentralizing roles and responsibilities to local and school levels. The paradox requiring a thorough study is the reasons for apparent gap between decentralization policies formulated by the central government and the actual practice which its officials advocate.

ii.　　The study was designed to examine and appraise the effects of school level human factor in the management and conduct of Education Reforms with the aim of identifying the strategies for management and development of classroom teachers, recruitment and induction of heads of schools, empowerment of committees and boards and support provided by district and regional levels to enable schoolsø efficient and effective implementation of reforms. However, data and analysis were drawn from a small sample of four primary schools, four secondary schools, and four districts from two administrative regions. It would be appropriate if the study is replicated using a larger sample and/or schools from more regions for the purpose of comparing and generalization of the findings.

REFERENCES:

Altheide, D. L. (1996) **Qualitative Media Analysis**, Thousand Oaks California: Sage Publications

Armstrong, M., (2006) **A handbook of Human Resource Management Practice**, London: Kogan Page Limited.

Au, K., Vertinsky, I. and Wang, D. (2007) õThe Social, Political and Economic Determinants of the New Public Management in Hong Kongö Available: www.worldbank.org/html/dec/Publication, Accessed 15.08.2007.

Babyegeya, E.B.M. (2002) **Educational Planning and Administration**, Dar es Salaam: Open University of Tanzania.

Babyegeya, E.B.M. (2007) õHuman Resource Management and Development in Education,ö Unpublished Training Manual for Undergraduate Students, Open University of Tanzania.

Bana, B.A., (2007) Human Resource Planning in Organizations, Unpublished Training Primer for Senior Management Police Officers.

Bana, B.A. (2007) ÷Developing Institutional and Human Capacity for Public Sector Performance in Tanzaniaø, Unpublished.

Bana, B.A. and Ngware, S.A., õReforming the Public Service: The Tanzania Experienceö in Kiragu, K. and Mutahaba, G. (eds), (2006), **Public Service Reforms in Eastern and Southern Africa: Issues and Challenges**, Dar es Salaam: Mkuki na Nyota.

Beer, M., Eisenstat, R. and Spector, B.(1990) õWhy Change Programs Donøt Produce Changeö, **Harvard Business Review**, November/December, pp 158-66.

Bond, S., (2006) õShared Values, Shared Successö, Available: www.njsba.org/school-leader/mayjune07.html, Accessed: 04.07.09

Bouma, G.D., (1996) **The Research Process**, New York: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A., (2004) **Social Research Methods**, Oxford: Oxford University Press

Burns, J.M.,(1978) **Leadership**, New York: Harper and Row.

Caldwell, B.J. and Hayward, D.K., (1998) **The Future Schools: Lessons from the Reforms of Public Education**, London: The Falmer Press.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K.,(2000) **Research Methods in Education**, London: Routledge Falmer

Fraenkel, J.R. & Wallen, N.E. (2000) **How to Design and Evaluate Research in Education**, Boston: McGraw Hill.

Fullan, M.G. (1991) **The New Meaning of Educational Change**, London: Cassell Educational Limited.

Galabawa, J.C.J. (1997), ‒Issues and Strategies for Primary and Secondary Education Decentralization in Tanzaniaø in *Papers in Education and Development* No. 18, pp. 66-83.

Grout, J. and Perrin, S. (2002) **Recruiting Excellence: An Insider's Guide to Sourcing Top Talents**, London: McGraw Hill

Heaton, J. (2004) **Reworking Qualitative Data**, London: Sage Publications.

Huberman, M. & Miles, M. (1984) **Innovation up close**, New York: Plenum

Katz, D. & Kahn, R. (1966) **The Social Psychology of Organizations**, New York: John Willey

Kiel, L.D. (2007) õEmbedding Chaotic Logic into Public Administration Thought: Requisites for New Paradigmö Available: www.campaignforeducationcanada.org, Accessed: 04.09.2007.

Kreitner, R. & Kinicki, A. (2001) **Organizational Behaviour,** Boston: Irwin McGraw Hill.

Kuye, J.O. õPublic Service Reforms in Kenya: Lessons and Experiencesö in Kiragu, K. and Mutahaba, G. (Eds) (2006) **Public Service Reforms in Eastern and Southern Africa: Issues and Challenges**, Dar es Salaam: Mkuki na Nyota.

Lema, V.I., (2004), **OED 103 General Psychology**, Dar es Salaam: The Open University of Tanzania.

Lindlof & Taylor (2002), õSemi-Structured Interviewsö Available: www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki, Accessed 09.09.09.

Marton, F. & Saljo, R. (1997) õApproaches to learningö in Marton, F., Hounsell, D., & Entwistle, N. (eds) **The experience of learning**, Edinburgh: Scottish Academic Press,

Merrian, S. (2002) **Qualitative Research in Practice: Examples for Discussion and Analysis,** San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

Miles, M. and Huberman, M.A. (1994) **Qualitative Data Analysis**, Beverly Hills: Sage Publications

Molander, B. O., (1997) **Joint discourses or disjointed courses: A study of learning in Upper secondary school,** Stockholm: Stockholm Institute of Education

Morgan, D.L, (1988) **Focus Group as Qualitative Research**, Beverly Hills: Sage Publications

Mulengeki, F. (2005) Local Community Capacity and Primary School Functioning, Unpublished M.A. (Education) Thesis

Murgatroyd, S. & Morgan, C. (1993) **Total Quality Management and the School**, Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Mushi, P.A.K., Mlekwa, V.M. and Bhalalusesa, E.P. (2004), õPoverty Reduction in Tanzania: Searching for a Basic Education Modelö in Galabawa and Narman (Eds), *Education, Poverty and Inequality,* Dar es Salaam: KAD Associates.

NAS (2007) **Rising Above the Gathering Storm: Energizing and Employing America for a Brighter Economic Future,** Washington DC**:** The US National Academy of Sciences

Ndoye, M. (2007) õAfrica building the foundations for sustainable developmentö in **IIEP Newsletter** Vol.XXV No.3 July-Sept 2007

Nyerere, J.K. (1975) õA decade of Progress 1961-1971: Ten Years Afterö in **Tanzania Notes and Records**, Dar es Salaam: Tanzania Society.

Owen, R. G., (1998), **Organizational Behaviour in Education,** Allyn and Bacon, Boston.

Patton, M. Q. (1990) **Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods**, Newbury Park California: Sage Publications.

Rajan,R.(2007)   õEducation   Policy   Dialogueö   Available:
        www.campaignforeducationcanada.org, Accessed 04.09.2007.

Senge, P. M. (1990) **The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of Learning
        Organizations**, Sydney: Random House Australia Pty Ltd.

Sergiovanni, T. (1994) õSchool Leadership Framework: Performance Standards and
        Capabilitiesö, Available: www.eduweb.vic.gov.au , Accessed on 03.07.09.

Silverman, D. (1993) **Interpreting Qualitative Data: Methods for Analysing Talk,
        Text and Interaction**, London: Sage Publications.

Stringfield, S. (1994) õEducation Reform and Students at Risk: A Review of the current
        State of Artö, Available: www.ed.gov/pubs/EdReforms, Accessed on
        25.09.2007.

Sumra, S. (2007) õIRIN Reportö Available: www.rinnews.org/Report.aspx Accessed:
        29.09.2007

Tandari, C. K., (2004) õThe Tanzania Development Vision 2025ö Available: www.fes-
        tz.de/doc/bot-tz-development-vision, Accessed: 31.10.09.

U.N. (2009) õThe Millennium Development Goals Report 2009ö, Available:
        www.un.org/milleniumgoals, Accessed: 23.10.09.

URT (1993), **The Tanzania Education System for 21st Century**, Dar es Salaam:
        Ministry of Education and Culture & Ministry of Science, Technology and
        Higher Education.

URT (1995), **Education and Training Policy**, Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Education
        and Culture.
URT (2002) PEDP Stocktaking Workshop Report, Unpublished

URT (2003) Mpango wa Maendeleo ya Elimu ya Msingi (MMEM) Marekebisho ya
        April 2003, Unpublished.
URT (2003-b) Mpango wa Maendeleo ya Elimu ya Msingi (MMEM): Mwongozo wa
        Ununuzi wa Vifaa, Marekebisho ya April 2003, Unpublished.

URT (2003-c) Mpango wa Maendeleo ya Elimu ya Msingi (MMEM): Mwongozo wa
        Hesabu na Usimamizi wa Fedha, Marekebisho ya April 2003, Unpublished.

URT (2003-d) Joint Review of PEDP (MoEC) ó Final Report, Unpublished

URT (2004) Joint Review of PEDP-Final Report, Unpublished.

URT (2005) **Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania 1995-2005**, Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Education and Culture.

URT (2007-a) Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP): Primary Education Development Programme II (2007-2011), Unpublished.

URT (2007-b) Updated Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP) 2004-2009, Unpublished.

URT, (undated) Uimarishaji wa Uwezo wa Wajumbe wa Kamati za Shule za Msingi ó Moduli ya Kwanza, Unpublished.

U.S. Office of Personnel Management (1999) õStrategic Human Resources Management: Aligning with the Missionö Available on: www.opm.gov, Accessed on 13.01.09.

Wikipedia Encyclopedia (2008) õConceptual Frameworkö Available: www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki, Accessed: 10.11.08.

World Bank (2000), õEducation for All (EFA)ö Available: http://go.worldbank.org/I41DLBA8C0, Accessed: 31.10.09.

Yin, R. K. (1994) **Case Study Research: Design and Methods**, Thousand Oaks California: Sage Publication

APPENDIX I: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR CLASS-ROOM TEACHERS

SCHOOL LEVEL MANPOWER PLANNING FOR TEACHERS:
1. How does PEDP/SEDP define future teaching levels to you as a classroom teacher?
2. What core competences/skills does the programme require for you to achieve the goals?
3. What specific knowledge and skills does the programme offer for you to effectively participate in change process?
4. What assessment can you make of the working environment and the extent it enables the use and development of skills required for the changes?

TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT:
5. What training programme were you involved in before you participated in PEDP/SEDP?
6. What assessment can you make of the relationship between knowledge, skills and competences required by the programme and those offered in training?
7. Can you briefly describe the shifts in teaching approaches which were addressed in training programmes offered?
8. Can you briefly describe the extent at which teacher training and development is an integral part of the change programme?
9. What shortcomings can you identify in the training programmes? What strengths?

RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION:
10. What new job description and specification in practice does the change programme introduce?
11. Are there any changes in the terms and conditions of service which you experience as a teacher participating in this reform programme?
12. How much do you think the changes ensure the retention of motivated and competent individuals in the teaching profession?

TEACHER REWARD MANAGEMENT:
13. How can you assess the proportionality of the teaching roles and reward packages after introduction of the reform programme?
14. What adjustments in reward policies, practices, process and procedures do you think are necessary for realization of reform objectives?

PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT:
15. How much do you think the programme has made coaching, guiding, motivating and rewarding the integral parts of performance management processes?
16. Can you briefly describe the mechanisms for determination of the key result areas of your teaching, and the support you should get for maximum performance?
17. What role do you play in preparation of action plans and assessment of school

progress and achievement?
18.   How does the school management actively support and encourage you towards realization of performance agreements?

APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR HEADS OF SCHOOLS

SELECTION, RECRUITMENT AND INDUCTION OF HEADS OF SCHOOLS

1.   Can you briefly describe the process through which you were recruited into PEDP/SEDP school headship?
2.   What job descriptions and specifications were you given as a head of school in PEDP/SEDP implementation?
3.   What terms and conditions of service are there for you as a PEDP/SEDP head of school?
4.   Can you describe the way you were inducted into the school headship? What basic information and special instructions were you given?

MANAGERIAL ROLES: *TECHNICAL DIMENSION*

5.   Which key result areas do you consider most important in PEDP/SEDP mission as a change strategy?
6.   How would you assess the availability of necessary resources for obtaining desired PEDP/SEDP results at your school?
7.   How would you assess the adequacy of PEDP/SEDP policies, procedures and practices as tools for management and evaluation of curriculum at your school?

MANAGERIAL ROLES: *HUMAN DIMENSION*

8.   What activities do you exactly do to manage the human resources in your school?
9.   How do you ensure these practices adhere to PEDP/SEDP vision and mission?
10.   How do you ensure quality and quantity human resources are available for PEDP/SEDP mission at your school?
11.   How much is staff training and development integral elements of PEDP/SEDP implementation?
12.   How would you describe the participation and involvement of various teams and parents in PEDP/SEDP implementation at your school?

LEADERSHIP ROLES: *EDUCATIONAL*

13.   How do you ensure expert-knowledge about teaching and learning prevail in your school?
14.   How would you assess the quality of teaching and learning environment created under PEDP/SEDP at your school?

LEADERSHIP ROLES: *SYMBOLIC*

15.   How would you assess your demonstration of own relevant skills to model out important PEDP/SEDP goals and behaviour to the school, community and general network?

LEADERSHIP ROLES: *CULTURAL*

16.   How would you describe the values and beliefs the school leadership articulates as supportive to desired PEDP/SEDP results?

17. How do you ensure the school organizational climate is supportive for teachers to teach differently for students learning differently?

APPENDIX III: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION SCHEDULE FOR

COMMITTEES AND BOARDS

SELECTION/ APPOINTMENT OF MEMBERS
1. How does one become a member of school committee/board?
2. What are the criteria/qualifications for becoming a member?
3. How are the members inducted to efficiently address specific PEDP/SEDP problems?
4. Does the committee/board have a code of conduct and operational guidelines?

PARTICIPATORY KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS
5. How do committee/ board members understand and interpret the Education law?
6. What are the committee/board∕s rights and obligations in PEDP/SEDP mission?
7. How does the committee/board assist the cause of teaching differently for students learning differently?
8. How would you assess the mechanisms for gathering of accurate information about PEDP/SEDP and the system it tries to change?
9. What mechanisms are in place for the committee/board∕s skillful intervention in PEDP/SEDP?
10. How close does the committee/board work actively and interactively with district and regional education administrations?
11. How would you assess your capacity to effectively function as a group?

SUPPORT FROM DISTRICT AND REGIONAL LEVELS
12. How frequent and relevant are the seminars and workshops about participation and monitoring knowledge and skills?
13. How frequent and relevant are other support services (if any) to enable effective participation?

APPENDIX IV: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR THE DISTRICT AND REGIONAL OFFICE SUPPORT STAFF

SCHOOL LEVEL AWARENESS OF CHANGE

1. How does the district/regional level introduce and interpret change to school level?
2. How is the school level supported to identify the crises and opportunities in the education sector which the change process is required to address?
3. What vision does the district/region create for schools to direct the change?
4. What strategies are schools required to employ to achieve the visional change?
5. How does the region/district ensure school level accurate re-definition of the vision?

COMMITMENT OF PEOPLE TO ACTION AND FOCUS, PROCESS AND MONITORING

6. How are the school level human resources requirements determined and addressed?
7. How are the stakeholders empowered to act on visional change?
8. What new approaches and behaviours are articulated and institutionalized in respect of reform specific objectives at school level?
9. How does the region/district ensure the provision of direct school level implementation support like quality materials, in-service training, one-to-one technical help and opportunities for peer interactions etc?
10. How efficient is the information gathering system for monitoring and correction of implementation problems?
11. How is the support to parents, committees and boardsø involvement in school change communicated and maintained?
12. What measures does the district/region take to ensure the school level change process focuses on instructions, teaching and learning?
13. What conditions does the district/region establish at school level to make them innovative for continuous and long term improvements?

QUICK WINS/ASSESSMENT OF THE CHANGE PROCESS

14. What indicators did the district/region establish to assess the achievement of educational change at school level?
15. What achievement has the district/region so far registered in relation to projected changes?

16. What do you consider are the factors behind this level of achievement?
17. What suggestions can you make to improve this achievement?

APPENDIX V: SCHEDULE FOR RECORDING DATA OBTAINED FROM

DOCUMENTS

The categories of data that guided collection:

a.   *Teachers' management in the reform process.*
- Teacher manpower planning
- Recruitment and selection
- Training and development
- Performance management
- Reward management

b.   *Selection, recruitment and induction of heads of schools.*
- Heads of Schoolsø selection, recruitment and induction process.
- The heads of school managerial and leadership dimensions.

c.   *Appointment and empowerment of school committees and boards.*
- Selection/Appointment of members.
- Exposure/Participation knowledge and skills.
- Capacity building and support from district and regional levels.

d.   *Support of district and regional levels to schools.*
- School level awareness of change efforts.
- Exposure/ participation knowledge and skills.
- Critical implementation considerations.

Name of School/ Office_____ Date_____				
District_____Region_____			
Category of Data	Documents availed	Data obtained	Remarks

APPENDIX VI – EDUCATION CIRCULAR NO.7 OF 2007

JAMHURI YA MUUNGANO WA TANZANIA
WIZARA YA ELIMU NA MAFUNZO YA UFUNDI

Anwani ya Simu: "ELIMU"   S.L.P. 9121,
DAR ES SALAAM   DAR ES SALAAM.
SIMU: 2110146-52
Telex: 41742 Elimu Tz
Fax: 255-22-2113271

Tafadhali unapojibu:

Kumb. Na. ED/OKE/C.2/4/V/7   Tarehe: 16/6/2007

Makatibu Tawala wa Mikoa,
Wakaguzi Wakuu wa Shule wa Kanda,
Wakuu wa Shule za Sekondari,
Wakuu wa Vyuo vya Ualimu,
Wakurugenzi Watendaji wa Halmashauri,
TANZANIA BARA

WARAKA WA ELIMU NA. 7 WA MWAKA 2007
UTARATIBU WA WALIMU KUJIENDELEZA KITAALUMA NA KITAALAMU KWA MUDA MREFU

Walimu wengi, wamekuwa wakiomba kwenda masomoni kujiendeleza kitaaluma na kitaalamu zaidi ya miezi mitatu katika vyuo mbalimbali ndani na nje ya nchi. Hatua hii ni nzuri na inastahili kupongezwa na kuungwa mkono. Hata hivyo baadhi ya walimu wanaopata nafasi ya kwenda kusoma wamekuwa wakiondoka vituoni kwao bila kibali rasmi cha Wizara. Huu ni ukiukwaji wa taratibu za kiutumishi na unaipa wizara matatizo ya kuratibu na kuhakiki utoaji wa huduma ya elimu.

Wizara ya Elimu na Mafunzo ya Ufundi imeamua kuweka utaratibu ambao utarekebisha hali hii kama ifuatavyo:

1.   Mwalimu ashauriwe kujiendeleza katika fani na masomo yatakayomwongezea taaluma na ujuzi katika kufundisha masomo yake. Iwapo mwalimu atakwenda kusoma fani au masomo yasiyo husiana na taaluma ya ualimu, cheo chake hakitabadilika baada ya kuhitimu masomo yake kulingana na **taratibu za Tume ya Utumishi ya Walimu** (TSD)

2.   Barua zote za maombi ya kwenda kusoma zipitishwe na wakuu wa vituo vyao vya kazi.

3.   Mwalimu anayeomba kwenda kusomea Shahada ya kwanza awe amefanya kazi miaka isiyopungua miwili na awe amepata ajira ya kudumu. Anayeomba kwenda kusomea shahada ya pili awe amefanya kazi siyo chini ya miaka miwili baada ya kupata shahada ya kwanza.

4.   Mwalimu akipata nafasi ya kujiunga na masomo anapaswa kuomba kibali cha Katibu Mkuu. Maombi hayo yaambatishwe na uthibitisho wa barua ya kujiunga na mafunzo, na mfadhili wa mafunzo yanayokusudiwa.

5.   Walimu walioko katika Halmashauri/Manispaa za Wilaya watapata kibali toka kwa mwajiri wao.

6.   Mwalimu anapaswa kubaki kituoni hadi atakapopata kibali cha kwenda masomoni. Kuondoka kituoni bila kibali ni ukiukwaji wa taratibu za kiutumishi na hatua za kinidhamu zitachukuliwa kwa mwalimu yeyote atakayefanya hivyo.

7.   Maombi ya ruhusa ya kwenda kusoma yawasilishwe Wizarani angalau miezi mitatu kabla ya kwenda chuoni ili kutoa nafasi ya kuyashughulikia. Mwalimu apate kibali kabla hajaondoka shuleni.

8.   Wizara itagharimia mafunzo kulingana na mpango wa mafunzo uliopo wa bajeti ya kila mwaka.

9.   Walimu hawaruhusiwi kuendelea na kozi nyingine mara baada ya kukamilisha kozi aliyoombea kibali.

10.   Mwalimu anayeomba kwenda masomoni atalazimika kusaini mkataba na Wizara wa kumtaka kurudi kufanya kazi kwa muda wa miaka miwili baada ya kuhitimu mafunzo yake.

11.   Waraka huu unafuta barua kumb. Na. SYCB/250/312/01 ya tarehe 18/11/2002 na utaanza kutumika tarehe 1, Septemba 2007.

Imesainiwa na:

R.A. Mpama
AFISA ELIMU KIONGOZI