

**THE MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATIONAL CHANGES IN PRIMARY
EDUCATION IN TANZANIA**

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that **THE MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATIONAL CHANGES IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN TANZANIA** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Mr RW Chediel
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DEDICATION

This research study is dedicated to my late father Chediel Mshitu and my late mother Pendaël Kauye who took me to school and supported me without any condition. It is also dedicated to my wife Witness, my daughter Pendaël, my sons, Elieneza and Chediel who were so patient while I studied. To them, I believe God is great he will also guide you to fulfil your dreams.

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the study was to investigate the current management of educational change in Tanzania, with specific reference to the Primary Educational Development Plan (PEDP) and relate it to the roles of different stakeholders in education reform in order to determine factors that underlie its success or failure. The problem was investigated by means of a literature survey and an empirical inquiry. The literature survey revealed that educational change management is a social phenomenon whose process is considered overlapping. Implementation of educational change requires knowledge and understanding of the change objectives and the roles necessary to sustain the change. This process requires a shared vision among the educational stakeholders. A qualitative inquiry using in-depth individual and focus group interviews was conducted to explore the experiences of people affected by the implementation of the PEDP in Tanzania. The sample was purposefully chosen and reflected a number of stakeholders on various levels. The empirical study revealed factors outside the country that influence the management of educational change. These include a change in global focus and donors' influence. The implementation of educational change in Tanzania has also depended largely on an understanding of directives and guidelines provided by the headquarters. The achievements that have been made are mainly quantitative and unlikely to be sustained. A lack of motivation among teachers has resulted in their passive participation in the reform. The top-down management of the reform has also adversely affected the sustainability of the reform. The PEDP was intended to have grassroots participation with broad involvement of stakeholders in outcomes. However, PEDP has been top-down, removed from local context. The study concluded that the implementation of reform was done without clear direction and scope. Thus, the sustainability of the reform is uncertain. Following the findings, the study recommends a constant dialogue using interpersonal communication with stakeholders on the purposes, strategies and practical working environment of the reform. The study also recommends change agents operating at district and school levels and the provision of clear roles and functions to specific stakeholders.

KEY TERMS

Change management; Educational change; Primary education; Social systems; Organizations; Reforms; Innovations; Programs; Events; New; Leadership

ABBREVIATIONS

BEDC:	Basic Education Development Committee
CEO:	Chief Education Officer
DAS:	District Administrative Officer
DEO:	District Education Officer
EFA:	Education for All
ESC:	Education Sector Coordinating Committee
ESDP:	Education Sector Development Programme
ESC:	Education Sector Coordinating Committee
ESR:	Education for Self-Reliance
ESWG:	Education Sector Working groups
GER:	Gross Enrolment Ratio
HIPC:	Highly Indebted Poor Countries
IAE:	Institute of Adult Education
ILO:	International Labour organisation
IMF:	International Monetary Fund
IRIN:	International Review of International News
MOEC:	Ministry of Education and Culture
MSTHE:	Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education
NAC:	National Arts Council
NFCB:	National Film Censorship Board
NGO:	Non-Government Organisation
NKC:	National Kiswahili Council
NMT:	National Museum of Tanzania
NPC:	National Sports Council
REO:	Regional Education Officer
SMG:	Sector Management Group
TIE:	Tanzania Institute of Education
TLS:	Tanzania Library Services
TPR:	Teacher Pupil Ratio
UNESCO:	United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural organisation
UPE:	Universal Primary Education
URT:	United Republic of Tanzania
WEC:	Ward Education Officer

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CHAPTER ONE

THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter one provides the country profile of Tanzania and outlines an awareness of the problems, rationale for the research, statement of the problem, aims of investigation, concept definition, methods of research and research programme.

1.2 TANZANIA: COUNTRY PROFILE

The United Republic of Tanzania was formed in 1964 when Tanganyika (Tanzania Mainland) united with the offshore island state of Zanzibar. Tanzania (Mainland) got her independence in 1961, while Zanzibar became independent in 1964. Tanzania is a vast country covering 945 090 square kilometres on the East African coast. Zanzibar alone is 2 460 square kilometres (Berry, 1998:1045). According to the population census conducted in 2002, Tanzania (Mainland) had an estimated population of 36 588 225 (in 2004) while that of Zanzibar is 1 000 000. The country has a high annual population growth rate of 2.9 percent (Mkapa, 2003).

The country is divided into 26 administrative regions: 21 for the Mainland and five for Zanzibar. These regions are sub-divided into 124 districts, which are further sub-divided into divisions and wards are basic administrative units for local government.

Tanzania is composed of over 130 ethnic communities and all speak their vernacular languages as their mother tongue. However, Swahili is the official language spoken by the majority of Tanzanians (90%). Swahili is also the language for instruction in primary schools. English, on the other hand, is an official language taught at school and language of instruction in post primary schools. In Zanzibar, unlike in the Mainland, Arabic is also taught in all government schools.

Tanzania is one of the least developed countries with GNP per capita of US\$ 280 in 1999. Rabobank (2007:2) reports that, 'Tanzania is among the poorest in the world with a GDP per

capita USD 300'. The economy of Zanzibar, like that of Tanzania Mainland, is dependent on the agriculture sector. The economic growth rate in the Mainland was 5.2 percent in 2004, while that of Zanzibar was estimated at 5.5 percent (Planning Commission, 2004). Annual growth rates have been increasing ranging between 6 to 7 percent from 2001 (Robobank, 2007: 2).

Tanzania experienced a serious economic crisis in the late 1970s to mid 1980s. The structural adjustment introduced by the international monetary organisations in 1980s, in most part, has involved removal of capital controls, privatisation and de-regulations of public sector and state-owned enterprises, including education. These policies forced the government to shift its policy from that of the 1960s and 1970s. Instead of placing a strong reliance on government control of the economy and public sector, the government advocated an increased role of the private sector and liberalisation of trade.

The 1990s have been characterised by political changes from a single party system to a multi-party system with general democratic participation and liberalisation of key markets, which called for greater private sector participation. Indeed, there has been a general mushrooming of Non- governmental organisations (NGOs) and Community-based organisations (CBOs). On the whole, the government has continued to give priority to both education and health, and increased participation of the private sector while it checks the expansion of its activities.

The education system: Tanzania (Mainland) has two years of pre-primary, seven years of primary education, four years of lower secondary, two years of upper secondary and a minimum of three years of university education. According to the Education and Training Policy of 1995, primary education is mandatory. It is compulsory and universal, and children generally start primary education at the age of seven.

At the end of primary education, pupils first sit for the Standard VII Primary School Leaving Examination. The examination is used for selection to go on to public secondary schools using a district quota system. However, depending on vacancies available, those who can afford the fees can, as an alternative, enrol in private secondary schools. At the fourth year of lower secondary education, students take the Form IV National Examination, and depending on the vacancies available, those who pass well in the examination, enrol for Form V. The others join tertiary institutions where they can study teacher education, nursing or full

technician certificate courses. Finally, after two years of A-level secondary education, the students sit for Form VI National Examinations. Those who pass well enrol at institutions of higher learning, such as, the universities or professional institutions.

1.3 AWARENESS OF THE PROBLEM

From time immemorial change has been a feature of every aspect of life. Thus, education has also been subjected to constant change. In most cases educational change has stimulated social, economic and political development worldwide and vice versa. Consequently, educational change is a necessary process which no country can avoid.

Changes in a society can lead to major educational changes. For instance, since independence, Tanzania has made deliberate changes in the education system so that it can respond to its vision of socialism and self-reliance. The government aspired to build a socialist country in which all members had basic level materials before any individual became affluent (Nyerere, 1968:340). In line with the vision, Education for Self-Reliance (ESR) was introduced. Among the fundamental principles of the ESR was the organisation of the school. It directed that schools be converted into economic and educational communities, which would be, to a considerable extent, self-reliant.

The aim of ESR was to make each school eventually responsible for the costs of its maintenance. This responsibility was to be accepted as a contribution to national development and national self-reliance. Furthermore, ESR was meant to impart among the pupils knowledge and skills that would help them and society at large to shake off the shackles of poverty, ignorance and diseases and bring about political and economic freedom. However, by 1983, the quality of schooling at all levels was below expectations (Omari and Mosha, 1987). This means that the intended educational change was not as successful as intended. This was not surprising because educational change does not necessarily guarantee success (Campbell, Corbally and Nystrand 1983:205). Instead it is argued that effective management practices are a significance factor in successful educational change (Slater, 1985:449).

From 1985, the government has embarked on the Sector Development approach and the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MOEVT) is currently implementing an

Education Sector Development Programme (Ed-SDP). This is a new strategy of interpreting and implementing the Education and Training Policy (ETP) of 1995. The policy advocates for quality improvement, access, equity and decentralised management of education. This requires ministries responsible with education to devolve their responsibilities of management and administration of education and training to lower organs and communities. Thus, most education management responsibilities and decision-making are being devolved to districts and schools/colleges.

The ongoing reforms in the local government advocate for increased powers and responsibilities for local authorities at district, division, ward and village levels. This is consistent with the ETP and Ed-SDP initiatives to transfer management and administration of education to lower levels. Specifically it is intended to transfer the ownership of primary schools to local communities and their management to school committees.

In response to this initiative the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training has been implementing a “Whole School Management and Development” Programme intended to give more control to primary schools and develop a sense of partnership among all staff members, between staff members and pupils, staff members and parents, staff members and school committees and between school and school.

The Whole School Management and Development involves:

- Whole School Development Planning (WSDP) as well as head teacher training and development.
- Capacity building of the Ward Education Co-ordinators (WECs) to manage and co-ordinate the development of education.
- Training of school committee members in the context of Whole School Development (WSD).
- Sustainable development of whole school development.

The WSDP endorsed in August 1998 is in line with the Education and Training Policy of 1995, which has several objectives in the areas of quality improvement, access, equity, management and financing of education. The government has also issued a social sector

strategy, which advocates the mobilisation of resources towards the provision of social services as a priority of investment. This shows that the government is putting more emphasis on education. Consequently, management of educational changes is a crucial issue to be dealt with.

1.3.1 Understanding change

Change takes place in various areas of life: technological development, politics, education, the environment and so forth. Accordingly, anything new that reflects or implies a departure from the prevailing practice in a given situation may be considered to be a change (Ishumi, 1977:108). In the same line, Stiegelbauer (1994:2) refers to changing the way that people (including students) work; anything new is change. Change, according to a dictionary definition suitable for the context of this study, is defined as something new and fresh used in place of something old (Procter, 1980:170). Thus, change can be intended or unintended and its actual meaning depends on the context in which it is used. Fullan (2000:40) summarises the meaning of change and says that “change is multidimensional and can vary accordingly within the same person as well as within groups”. Consequently, people have different perceptions about the meaning of change.

Mitchell and Bridges (2000:1) contend that innovations are essential and innovation means change. In view of this they argue that yesterday’s assumptions and practices no longer work. According to Lubinski (2001:9), innovation is associated with two different meanings: innovation refers to something newly created or invented, or a new and significant alteration of pre-existing creation on innovation; or innovation is considered more contextual, when something is new to a specific locality.

Lubinski (ibid) elaborates that change includes the important aspect of transition. Transition is the state that propels people into change. Change is external, that is, it involves a different policy, practice or structure. On the other hand, transition is internal; it is the psychological reorientation that people have to go through before the change can work.

1.3.2 Changes in primary education

Following global focus on Education For All (EFA) as reaffirmed in the Dakar 2000 forum, Tanzania decided to re-introduce Universal Primary Education in 2001. Thus, the country implemented a five-year Primary Education Development Plan (2001-2006) (PEDP) in which WSDP was mainstreamed since 2001. The overall objective of the PEDP is to enhance access and equity as well as quality in provision of primary education. PEDP has been implemented within the framework of Ed-SDP and the Local Government Reform Programme (LGRP) to enhance ownership and partnership in primary education management and delivery at the level of the community.

The Public Service Management and Employment Policy of 1999 states clearly that, proper sustainable reforms must emerge from people's needs and must be implemented by the people themselves for their own benefit. Therefore, reforms have to be managed by people with vision and with the capacity to learn. Furthermore, the community should become actively involved in the reform activities.

Given this situation, the most obvious question is: *How is educational change with regard to primary education managed in Tanzania?* To address this question, there was need to investigate the current management of educational change in Tanzania and relate it to the roles of different stakeholders of the education reform to determine factors that underlie the success or failure of educational change and its sustainability in Tanzania.

This study entitled: *The Management of Educational Changes in Primary Education in Tanzania* is an attempt to answer the key question raised. The study focuses on primary schooling in Tanzania.

1.4 RATIONALE FOR THE RESEARCH

Želvys (2000) contends that in the new millennium, the educational domain will expand its influence with the development of new forms of learning and knowledge. Thus, changes will occur more rapidly, more independent decisions will have to be taken and there will be less and less time to adopt changes. In this regard, educational management and educational

change require emphasis. Likewise, Everard and Morris (1990) contend that educators will have to be ready for change in the 21st century.

In Tanzania, rapid educational changes have manifested as indicated by numerous reforms taking place in the country (see section 1.3). Given that of late the quality of education in Tanzania has deteriorated, the main challenge is rooted in the management process of the reforms being introduced to improve the quality of education. The focus is on how the positive post reform achievements can be sustained. Since there is little information on the management process of educational changes in Tanzania, it was deemed necessary to investigate strengths and weaknesses in the management of educational change; how this has affected sustainability of the intended changes; and how the situation in the schools has affected implementation of educational changes.

The findings of this study may assist in the design of effective training programmes for the managers of the educational changes. The information might also be useful to educational leaders, managers and administrators who must reach the aims of educational changes introduced in the country.

1.5 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

From the mid 1980s Tanzania embarked on a radical shift in economic management style with greater emphasis on liberalisation of key markets and a call for greater private sector participation. Since then various reforms in the education sector have been part and parcel of the economic reforms. The achievement of macro level education reforms has been affected by changes in the social, economic and political order. Despite the reforms, fears have been expressed on the basis of various quotas that the quality of education has fallen. This suggests that the envisaged educational changes were not adequately managed.

Currently the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training is implementing a major reform in the education system following political changes introduced in the 1990s which have been characterised by democratic participation, a sector approach and general economy wide transparency. However, education sector reforms need to be continued and managed as this will sustain growth and improvement of the impact of the reform (Galabawa, Katebalirwe and Kilindo, 2000).

Looking at past reform achievements, the present reform process and management styles in education, the management of educational changes in Tanzania reveal certain weaknesses. There is a lack of political and administrative accountability and efficiency in the local authorities as seen by the inability to implement policies and fulfil roles and functions devolved from the centre, such as, collecting taxes and fees/charges payable to the authorities (Galabawa, *et al*, 2000). Yet the current reform is directed at decentralisation and devolution of functions and financing to the district level and lower levels. These aims have consequences for the management of primary education in light of the envisaged educational changes. Želvys (2000) says, “We can change things which we can manage”. Thus, if educational reforms are not managed properly, no meaningful educational change can be realised.

The Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) is intended to encourage strong local roots and broad participation of stakeholders in outcomes, including officials, students, teachers, parents and communities.

In that sense, the reform is not just an event or a moment of change but a process in which the principal challenge is to sustain the involvement of the stakeholders and maintain development in the long term. Thus, mere school management is not capable of solving problems of sustainability.

Following the above discussion the main problem is: *What are the critical challenges facing primary education reforms in Tanzania, according to the stakeholders’ experiences and how can educational change be managed in order to sustain its impact?*

1.6 SPECIFIC RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following main specific research questions were set to guide the investigation:

- 1) What factors influence change in the primary education sub-sector?
- 2) How is change process in the primary education sub-sector done?
- 3) How do stakeholders in the primary education sub-sector experience their involvement or lack of involvement in the management process of educational change in primary education?

- 4) What factors determine implementation of the change in primary schools?
- 5) What factors affect management of educational change in primary education sub-sector?
- 6) How is the success or failure of the Primary Education Development Programme?
- 7) How are changes effected in the Tanzania primary education sub-sector going to be sustained?

It should be realized that unlike quantitative research, there is no overarching framework for how qualitative research should be conducted. Each type of qualitative research is guided by particular philosophical stances taken in relation to the research for each phenomenon (O'Brien, 2006). In this study, the philosophical stance is described in section 4.2 which, elaborate on the focus of the study.

1.7 AIMS OF INVESTIGATION

The general aim of the study was to investigate the extent to which the current educational changes are managed with focus on decentralisation, community participation and the creation of educational changes that are economically viable and sustainable. The study focused on the management of the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) at the district level. This is the level where decentralisation is directed.

The study was also intended to examine the extent to which the stakeholders at district level were equipped and willing to implement educational change as this would provide information on the management of sustainable educational change in Tanzania. Furthermore, the study aimed to determine the meanings of educational changes as experienced by various stakeholders in the Primary education sector. This was done by employing qualitative methodology that included semi-structured individual interviews and focus group interviews, premising itself on phenomenology as theoretical framework. Anthony (2008: 1) asserts that phenomenology is widely used methodology and theoretical approach to social science research questions. This assertion applies to this study that intends to document the feelings and experiences of the people involved in the implementation of primary educational changes in Tanzania as testified in the set research questions (See section 1.6).

1.8 LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study is confined in the primary education sub-sector in Tanzania in one district. However, management of educational change in primary education is influenced by the management styles of education at central level. Tanzania is a vast country with geographical, economic and cultural differences within the country. Thus, the situation in one district may not be generalised to other districts of the country.

With regard to the methodology, the interaction of the researcher and the respondents inevitably influenced the responses and their interpretation. However, the researcher constantly reflected on the possible influence of age, gender, and status and made cross checks to avoid subjectivity. Furthermore, the databases of the study may not be strictly comparable within the district.

1.9 CONCEPT DEFINITIONS

The key concepts used in this study are defined and given meaning in the context of the study.

Change is described as innovation or reform, which is a deliberate attempt to improve practice in relation to certain desired objectives (Dalin, 1973:36, 1978:20 in Slater, 1985:447). Thus change, innovation and reform will be used interchangeably.

Sustainability is defined as the likelihood of long term involvement by stakeholders in propagating change and the maintenance of the impact of change after external funding has stopped.

Community refers to a cluster of people with common socio-economic and cultural characteristics or interests, legally and administratively recognised to designate a village or a ward. Thus, **school community** is defined as the catchments areas of the school, that is, the area from which all or most of the students are drawn and where the families and neighbours of the students reside, who assist financially or otherwise with the establishment, maintenance and continuing operation of the school.

Education sector includes all education and training activities including vocational training.

1.10 METHODS OF RESEARCH

Change in education is essentially intended to improve the quality of education provided. This study involves key aspects of quality of education. In this case, the research optimised the use of qualitative methods.

Qualitative methods were preferred because of their power to clarify quality issues. Hancock (2002:1) asserts that qualitative research attempts to answer the question why things are the way they are in our social world and why people act the way they act. Specifically, phenomenological design describes the structure of experiences as they present themselves (Hancock, 1998: 4). This design was deemed suitable for the study of the management of educational changes in primary education in Tanzania. Indeed, phenomenology is linked to the research approach and methodology used in the study because its main concern is with “lived experiences” by stakeholders involved in the change process.

1.11 RESEARCH PROGRAMME

The research programme is summarised below:

Chapter One outlines an awareness of the problem, rationale for the research, statement of problem, aims of investigation, concept definitions, methods of research and research programme,

Chapter Two consists of a literature study, which deals with management of sustainable change in general. The aim of such a literature study is twofold: to create a proper theoretical framework for the study and to have a better understanding of possibilities in the Tanzanian primary education context to enhance sustainable change and growth.

Chapter Three provides, through a literature review, a historical-political background of the changes in Tanzanian education in order to sketch the backdrop of the current changes and more specifically the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP).

Chapter Four provides a description of the research methodology as far as data-collection and data-analysis strategies are concerned (focus group interviews, in-depth interviews, document analysis and observation).

Chapter Five consists of an account of the data, the analysis of the data in relation to the literature and describes the findings of the research in general.

Chapter Six comprises of the summaries of the chapters, conclusions and recommendations as well as the implications of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE WITH A SPECIFIC REFERENCE TO DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter two presents a general review of the literature on the theory of change. The first section defines change and its nature, change processes and features of successful change. The second part addresses issues of change management and discusses organisational change in general within the context of the study. The third part presents a theoretical framework of management of educational change.

2.2 NATURE OF CHANGE

Hardy (1999:6) illustrates the four features of the nature of change: present situation, desired future situation, transitional period, resistance and time. These features indicate that change is a process of transforming a present situation to a future situation. Any change that takes place requires strategies or inputs. According to Walton (1976:95) in Slater (1985:445), there are several components of the intended change process which are logically inter-related. These include research, development, diffusion or dissemination, adaptation and implementation.

Research is intended to clear doubts and exploit success. For example, in businesses there is need to conduct market research. However, to be realistic, the intended change has to be tested on a small scale to clear anticipated problems and exploit opportunities that nobody anticipated. This makes the risk of change very small. As pointed out earlier, planned change cannot just happen. Change has to be developed by planning carefully the details of change and by establishing a communications plan explaining the change in place.

Dissemination of planned change is to let people understand that change has come. People should be provided with constant information and communication that emphasises connections with the concern of the people. There is also a need to have change agents to

help people launch the new beginning by articulating the new attitudes and behaviours needed to make the change work.

After coaching for change, it is assumed that people will adopt and practise the change. This process involves continuous improvements that eventually lead to fundamental change. However this process is not simple. Drucker (1999:1) points out, “Change is like death and it should be postponed as long as possible, and no change would be vastly preferable.” Accordingly, change is said to be painful and risky, and above all it requires a great deal of hard work. This means that people do not like change. However, change cannot be avoided.

2.3 POLITICAL AND SOCIAL CONTEXT OF CHANGE

Schick (1996: 13) in Perris (1998: 4) underscores that; economic conditions in a country may dictate change. For example, structural adjustments introduced by financial institutions in developing countries are a response to poor economic situations. However, change should have a mastermind (Perris, 1998), that is, those individuals who see the need for change. For example, in many countries, political leaders have masterminded successful transformation of the economy and the state sector.

Gained knowledge from elsewhere may also influence change. The political and economic changes that took place in the former USSR inevitably prompted change in many other socialist countries. After learning that socialism was losing credibility in Eastern Europe, it was difficult for any argument in support of direct state intervention or the provision of public services in countries, which followed socialism. Thus, change going on elsewhere, inevitably creates a climate of public opinion. This may also result in the review of education, which necessitates change in the formal education in a country. For example, Tanzania reviewed her education system in the 1990s after the introduction of liberalisation policies which were influenced by the changes that took place in USSR. This means educational change in Tanzania should also be seen in relation to political and economic changes taking place in the country.

2.4 CHANGE PROCESS

According to Stiegelbauer (1994: 2), change is no longer an event that is selected and announced; change is approached as a process. He argues that many of the changes required by current societal and educational demands go deeper than expected. Cuban (1988) in Stiegelbauer (1994: 2) elaborates that such changes go deep into the structure of organisations and the ways in which people work together. This kind of change is multifaceted, slower, and means changing attitudes, perceptions, behaviours, relationships and the way people collaborate.

Attempts have been made by social scientists to develop conceptual models to understand the change process. The first major attempt to categorise and discuss models of educational change was done by Havelock (1971). Havelock suggested a classification based on three categories, which reflected different approaches that different projects may take. These include the fact that institutions can be varied in the adoption and implementation of change. Likewise, interactive approaches extend and transform instrumental approaches by concentrating on and ensuring the spread of a change.

A number of studies have stressed the role of change agents and client participation at the formulation stage as prerequisites of successful change implementation (Chambers, 1997: 226; Ahmed, Kai Ming, Jalaluddin and Ramachandran, 1991). Change agents are seen as important in diagnosing problems consciously and competently. This is based on the reasoning that, although members of a system may be aware of their circumstances and problems, they are unable, or find it difficult to approach their problems in a realistic or competent manner. Outside change agents with expert knowledge may and frequently do have the ability to approach situations in a more objective, more analytical and more sophisticated manner.

Subsequently, these can motivate the needed amount and flow of communication among the clients, which results in their greater awareness of the need for change and ultimately their greater commitment to proposed change. However, changes do not exist in any unchanging or objective sense. They are constantly being defined, changed and re-defined as a result of experience and the differing perceptions of the people who handle them (Bola, in Slater, 1985: 454). Furthermore, whether a change is perceived as good or bad depends on the

values and social formation of the individual. Thus, the clear presentation and transmission of the context of a proposed change is necessary to communicate during the adoption and implementation of the change. Gross, Joseph and Bernstein (1971: 30) summarise factors that facilitate successful internal and external support for change. These include: adequate funding, adequacy of plan for meeting organisational members' needs and the organisational problem under consideration, member acceptance of the change, retraining of members for new tasks and the presence of a change agent to give needed support and advice.

2.4.1 Change process: Linear vs overlapping

According to Fullan (2000: 6), in the early 1970s change in schools was viewed primarily as classroom change, that is, one teacher, one classroom and one innovation. During this period innovations were implemented without any one asking why and no forethought was given to follow through. Change was made for the sake of change. Fullan (2000: 4) summarises research paradigms used for planned educational change through the early 1980s as an innovation focussed perspective on the implementation of single changes in the curriculum and instruction. Fullan (ibid.) asserts that innovations were developed to meet the needs and outcomes already defined. Thus, thinking about change was linear. In these circumstances change was described as an event and it was assumed that change would simply happen. However, he contends that in many cases desired results did not occur. Stiegelbauer (1994: 2) underscores that this was not surprising because there was lack of match to the environment, lack of follow-through, lack of definition and lack of practice and training in the innovation.

Change according to the overlapping approach is approached a bit differently. The research on change has generated an emphasis on process and its context. Effective change no longer affects one teacher in one classroom but the very culture of the organisations. As Cuban (1988) in Stiegelbauer (1994: 3) says, many of the early efforts at change might be called "first order changes". They address more superficial elements of the classroom and the organisational system and do not stream the organisation to any meaningful degree.

Grandall, Eiseman and Louis (1986) in Stiegelbauer (1994: 3) note that the goal of institutionalisation is often tantamount to routinization, which decreases the capacity of organisations to integrate responses to new needs and issues. The assumption is that renewal rather than institutionalisation, is a more appropriate focus for organisational improvement.

Renewal implies an organisational culture geared toward continuous learning and improvement rather than completing the implementation of individual changes (Stiegelbauer and Anderson, 1992).

Fullan and Hargreaves (1991) point out that in current models for change, the organisational capacity for continuous renewal and growth points toward the direction of the future and changing the culture of organisations, what organisations do and how they work. Planning for individual change is only part of changing the educational environment as a whole. Figure 2.1 and 2.2 depict linear and overlapping processes of change.

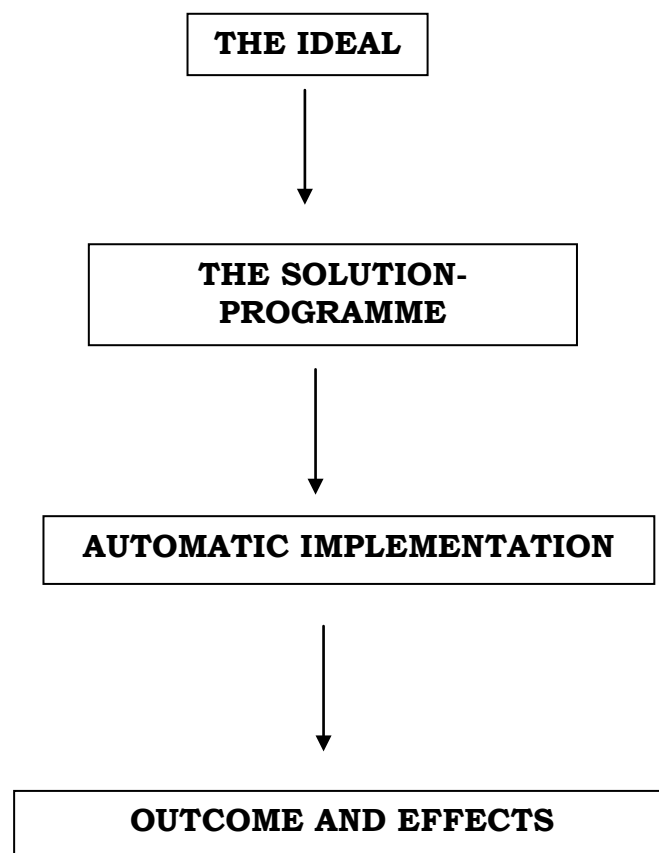


Figure 2.1: A linear view of the change process

The overlapping view of the change process takes into consideration transition in the change process.

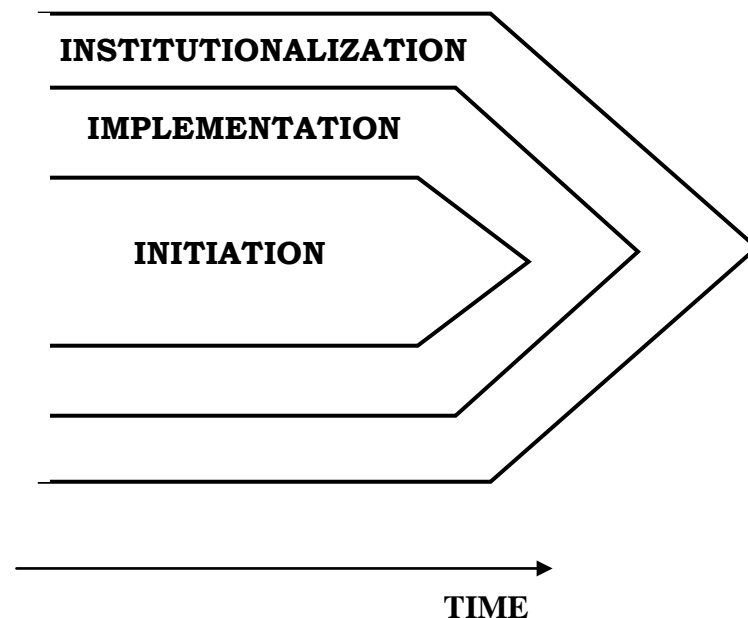


Fig. 2.2: Overlapping phases of the change process

Source: Fullan (1993) in Stiegelbauer (1994: 3)

The models of the linear and overlapping processes of change are not the same. The linear view propagates abrupt change while the overlapping view has some elements of transition. This consideration is preferable because whenever change occurs so does transition (Mitchell and Bridges, 2000: 2). This means some phases of change always overlap. Sometimes even after people have let go of their old ways, they find themselves unable to start new ways. Some people fail to get through the transition because they do not let go the old ways and make an ending; others get through the first phases of transition, but they freeze when they face the new beginning. Thus, the linear view might work well in an authoritarian organisation, while the overlapping view might work well in a democratic situation such as found in Tanzania where implementation of liberalisation policies is taking place.

2.4.2 Characteristics of change process

The change process is not a simple exercise. Fullan (1993) underscores the complexity of the change process and argues that there are always forces that come in during the process of implementing productive change. He cites unplanned factors, such as, policy changes during the process of implementing educational change. In view of this, Fullan (ibid.) strongly emphasises that the educational change process should be seen as an overlapping series of dynamically complex phenomena. He concludes that since change is dynamically complex, in any circumstance it is non-linear. Thus, the process of change cannot be predicted or guided with any precision.

Fullan (1993: 22) came up with new paradigm of dynamic change and illustrates eight basic lessons that characterise the change process. These lessons include the following key issues that are discussed in chapter three because they have relevance for educational change in Tanzania:

- The more complex the change, the less you can force it;
- Neither centralisation nor decentralisation works;
- Both top-down and bottom-up strategies are necessary;
- The best organisations learn externally and internally;
- Every person in the organisation is a change agent.

These lessons appear relevant in studying educational change management in Tanzania and elsewhere.

2.5 IMPLEMENTING SUCCESSFUL CHANGE

In trying to bring about change, a number of issues should be considered which are not specific to change itself, but which are necessary for the change to be implemented successfully. Perris (1998: 12) identifies three sets of issues: societal, infrastructural and personnel. He argues that in a peaceful and homogeneous society accustomed to the rule of law and to accepting government decisions as legitimate, there is no likelihood that the government's decisions will be disobeyed. In such a case civil disobedience in the public

service is rare. Public servants are expected to work to implement the government's decision even if that means eliminating their own jobs.

In this context change implementation in the public service requires the design and communication of the guidelines and circulars and their communication to implementers to get their feedback. Likewise, financial systems have to be developed to cope with the required change.

The change process also depends on not only on the loyalty of personnel, but also on their willingness to take part in the change, and on their expertise. A suitable person is required to lead the implementation of change, someone whose attention will be concentrated on the change. Perris (1988:13) contends that it is not an easy task to select a change agent and cites this example:

The state services commission was responsible for his appointment and wanted someone who would drive through the changes which Ministers were in the process of deciding they wanted. The job was a hard one to fill.

A change agent role is usually responsible for translating the vision into a realistic plan and carrying out the plan. Change also depends on change leaders who understand the transition process and can balance change and continuity. They need to know the people they work with. However, balancing change and continuity requires constant work on information flow.

2.6 CHANGE MANAGEMENT

Nicklos (2004: 1) defines change management in three areas: the task of managing change, an area of professional practice and a body of knowledge. According to him, managing change itself refers to the making of changes in a planned or systematic fashion. In this regard, changes to be controlled lie within the control of the organisation. However, internal changes might be triggered by events originating outside the organisation. In this case managing change is defined as the response to changes over which the organisation exercises little or no control. Consequently, managing such a change requires a reactive response or a proactive response.

The second definition of change management is an area of professional practice. In this kind of change management, independent consultants manage change for their clients as change agents. The process of change is treated separately from the specifics of the situation. It is expertise that matters in the task of managing the general process of change laid down by professional change agents. However, Fullan (1993: 22) argues that change is too important to leave to the experts. He suggests that every person in the organisation should be a change agent. This suggestion assumes that every one in the organisation has knowledge and skills of the required change.

The third definition stems from the view of change management as an area of professional practice, that is, the content or subject matter of change management. This consists chiefly of the models, methods and techniques, tools, skills and other forms of knowledge that go into making up any practice.

Inevitably, the content or subject matter of change management is drawn from psychology, sociology, business administration, economics, industrial engineering, systems engineering and the study of human and organisational behaviour.

For many practitioners, these component bodies of knowledge are linked and integrated by a set of concepts and principles known as General Systems Theory (GST) (Nicklos 2004: 2). This has a somewhat eclectic body of knowledge underlying the practice. In the light of the foregoing definitions of change management, a definition that suits the context of this study refers to making changes in a planned or systematic fashion. In this case it becomes easy to determine success or failure during the change process.

2.7 ORGANISATIONS AND CHANGE

Organisations are highly specialised systems and there are many different schemes for grouping and classifying them. Some are in the retail business, in manufacturing and distribution. Some are profit-oriented; others are not for profit. For example, some educational organisations are service providers like public schools; some private schools are profit making. No two organisations are exactly alike.

Change taking place in an organisation have both content and a process dimension. It is one thing, for instance, to introduce a new claims processing system in a functionally organised health insurer. It is quite another to introduce a similar system in a health insurer that is organised along product lines and market segments. It is yet a different thing altogether to introduce a system of equal size and significance in an educational establishment that relies on a matrix structure. The languages spoken differ and values differ. The cultures also differ. At a detailed level, the problems differ. However, the overall processes of change and change management remain pretty much the same, and it is this fundamental similarity of the change processes across organisations, industries, and structures that makes change management a task, a process, and an area of professional practice (Nicklos, 2004).

2.7.1 The change process: Unfreeze – change –refreeze model

According to Nicklos (2004: 3), the process of change can be characterised as having three basic stages: unfreezing, changing and re-freezing.

This framework gives rise to thinking about a staged approach to changing things. The practice in this approach sounds like looking before you leap. In other words, the beginning and ending point of unfreeze - change –refreeze model is stability, which for some people and some organisations is said a luxury. For others, internal stability may spell disaster, to them challenge from the people is an input for improvement.

2.8 PLANNED CHANGE MODEL

A very useful framework aspect of the planned change model is that the change process is problem solving. Managing change is seen as a matter of moving from one state to another, especially from the problem state to the solved state. Diagnosis or problem analysis is generally acknowledged as essential. Goals are set and achieved at various levels and in various areas or functions. Ends and means are discussed and related to one another. Careful planning is accompanied by efforts to obtain support and commitment. The net effect is transition from one state to another in a planned, orderly fashion.

2.8.1 The change process and change problem

The word, problem, carries with it connotations that some people prefer to avoid. However, Nicklos (2004) asserts that a problem should be seen as an opportunity for searching for a solution that will bring about desired change. He elaborates on a change problem and argues that, in any change management, there is a change problem, that is, some future state to be realised, some current state to be left behind, and some structured, organised process for getting from the one to the other. The change problem might be large or small in scope and scale, and it might focus on individuals or groups, on one or more divisions or departments, the entire organisation, or one or on more aspects of the organisation's environment.

In line with Nicklos (2000), Louis and Miles in Fullan (1993: 26) found that the least successful schools they studied engaged in "shallow coping": doing nothing, procrastinating, doing it the usual way, in other words, avoiding problems. They found that successful schools went deeper to probe underlying reasons and to make interventions like re-designing programmes, comprehensive re-staffing, continuous training, and the like. They concluded that successful schools did not have fewer problems than other schools; they just coped with them better. These findings illuminate ideas to be considered in the management of educational change.

Nicklos (ibid.) describes the change problem at a conceptual level as a matter of moving from one state to another. He elaborates that this movement is typically accomplished as a result of setting up and achieving three types of goals: transform, reduce, and apply. Transforming goals are concerned with identifying differences between the current state and the future state. Reducing goals is concerned with determining ways of eliminating these differences. Applying goals is concerned with putting into play operators that actually effect the elimination of these differences and attain the intended future state. This description is similar to that of the change process as described elsewhere in this chapter (see section 2.4)

The analysis of a change problem will, at various times, focus on defining the outcomes of the change effort, on identifying the changes necessary to produce these outcomes, and on finding and implementing ways and means of making the required changes. Nicklos (2004: 5) analysed the change problem in simpler terms as smaller problems having to do with the how, what, and why of change. Posing questions such as:

- How do we decentralise decisions to district level?
- What indicators will signal success?
- Why have we failed?

These questions are also relevant to the present study and have been dealt with in chapter one.

Nicklos (ibid.) concludes, “A person’s placement in the organization typically defines the scope and scale of the kinds of changes with which he or she will become involved, and the nature of the changes with which he or she will be concerned.” This means all people in all units must concern themselves with all three sets of questions otherwise the changes made will not stand the test of time. Therefore, it is important to involve all the concerned people in any change and in all stages of the change from planning, implementation and evaluation.

2.9 IMPLEMENTING CHANGE: SKILLS AND STRATEGIES

Managing the kinds of changes encountered by and instituted within organisations requires a broad and specific set of skills. The following are summarised by Nicklos (2004: 8-9):

Political skills: Organisations are first and foremost social systems. Without people there can be no organisation. Organisations are hotly and intensely political. It is said that the lower the stakes, the more intense the politics. Therefore, change agents should understand this situation so that they make judgments and change their tactics accordingly.

Two particular sets of skills believed to be very important here include workflow operations or systems analysis, and financial analysis. In this regard, change agents must learn to take apart and reassemble operations and systems in novel ways, and then determine the financial and political impacts of what they have done in order to determine the foreseeable future.

People skills: As stated earlier, people are the *sine qua non* of the organisation. Moreover, they are characterised by all manner of the dimensions along which people vary. In this case, all people should be dealt with accordingly, using skills that will convince them about the change needed. This in turn will reduce resistance.

The skills most needed in this area are those that typically fall under the heading of communication or interpersonal skills. A situation viewed from a marketing frame of reference is an entirely different situation when seen through the eyes of a system's person. Part of the job of a change agent is to reconcile and resolve the conflict between and among disparate points of view.

System skills: Most people employed in today's world of work need to learn about computer-based information systems. A system is an arrangement of resources and routines intended to produce specified results. To organise is to arrange. A system reflects organisation and, by the same token, an organisation is a system that has to be understood for efficient and effective management.

A word processing operator and the word processing equipment operate from a system. So do computers and the larger, information processing systems in which computers are so often embedded. These are generally known as "hard" systems. There are "soft" systems as well: compensation systems, appraisal systems, promotion systems, and reward and incentive systems.

Four basic change management strategies: These strategies are based on making and adopting changes on behalf of the organisation. There are also elements of empirical-rational and power-coercive strategies at play. This makes the point that successful change efforts inevitably involve some mix of these basic change strategies, a point that is elaborated on below.

Empirical-rational strategy: People are rational and will follow their self-interest once it is revealed to them. Change is based on the communication of information and the proffering of incentives.

Normative-reductive strategy: People are social beings and will adhere to cultural norms and values. Change is based on redefining and reinterpreting existing norms and values, and developing commitments to new ones.

Power-coercive strategy: People are basically compliant and will generally do what they are told or can be made to do. Change is based on the exercise of authority and the imposition of sanctions.

Environmental-adaptive strategy: People oppose loss and disruption but they adapt readily to new circumstances. Change is based on building a new organisation and gradually transferring people from the old one to the new one.

Factors in selecting a change strategy: Generally speaking, there is no single change strategy. But, for any given initiative, it is recommended to use some mix of strategies (Nicklos, 2004: 11). According to Nicklos, (ibid.) the mix of strategies is a decision affected by a number of factors. Some of the more important include:

Degree of resistance: Strong resistance argues for a coupling of power-coercive and environmental-adaptive strategies. Weak resistance or concurrence argues for a combination of empirical-rational and normative-re-educative strategies.

Target population: Large populations argue for a mix of all four strategies, something for everyone.

The stakes: High stakes argue for a mix of all four strategies. When the stakes are high, nothing can be left to chance.

The time frame: Short time frames argue for a power-coercive strategy. Longer time frames argue for a mix of empirical-rational, normative-re-educative and environmental-adaptive strategies.

Expertise: Having available adequate expertise at making change argues for some mix of the strategies. Not having it available argues for reliance on the power-coercive strategy.

Dependency: This is a classic double-edged sword. If the organisation is dependent on its people, management's ability to command or demand is limited. Conversely, if people are dependent upon the organisation, their ability to oppose or resist is limited. Mutual dependency almost always signals a requirement for some level of negotiation.

2.10 ADKAR – A MODEL FOR CHANGE MANAGEMENT

The ADKAR model is built on the people dimension of change. That is how employees experience the change process. Research shows that problems related with this dimension of change are the most commonly cited reason for project failures (Prosci, 2004: 2).

According to Prosci (ibid.), effective management of the people dimension of change requires managing five key phases that form the basis of the ADKAR model. These include:

- Awareness of the need to change
- Desire to participate and support the change
- Knowledge of how to change and what the change looks like
- Ability to implement the change on a day-to day-basis
- Reinforcement to keep the change in place

It is assumed that, successful change happens when both dimensions of change occur simultaneously. The ADKAR model is said to be a tool to understand and facilitate the people dimension of change.

In a work scenario each of the five elements in the ADKAR model directly affect an employee in an organisation undergoing change, his/her reaction to change and how the organisation views its employees.

Natural reaction to change, even in the best circumstances, is to resist (McNamara, 1999: 1). Therefore, awareness of the required change must come first. Second is the desire to participate or support change. In addition, given proper motivation to change, employees need role models to understand the proper skills needed. They need knowledge of the correct skills' practice to develop new skills and habits. They also need time to develop an ability to act in a new way. Finally, employees need reinforcement to keep good change going. This may be in form of positive encouragement or other types of rewards.

2.11 ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE

In trying to understand change management one important aspect is said to be organisational change. McNamara (1999: 1) refers organisational change to organisation-wide change, as opposed to smaller changes such as adding a new person and modifying a programme. He provides examples of organisation-wide change that include a change in mission, restricting operations, new technologies, mergers, major collaborations and so forth. The term is used to designate a fundamental and radical change in the way the organisation operates.

Usually organisational change is provoked by some major outside driving force. Examples are substantial cuts in funding, addressing major new markets, need for dramatic increases in productivity or services and so forth. Consequently organisations must undertake organisation-wide change to evolve to a different level in their cycles.

However, McNamara (1999) argues that organisational change is difficult to accomplish because people are afraid of the unknown. He elaborates that many people think things are already just fine and do not understand the need for change. Thus, organisation-wide change often goes against the very values held by members in the organisation, that is, the change may go against how members believe things should be done.

McNamara (1999: 1) asserts that the best approaches to address resistance are through increased and sustained communication and education. For example, the leader should meet all the employees to explain reason for the change, how it generally will be carried out and where others can go for additional information. A plan should be developed and communicated. Forums should be held for organisational members to express their ideas for the plan. They should be able to express their concern and frustration as well. To sustain change, the structures of the organisation itself should be modified, including strategic plans, policies and procedures. This change in the structures of organisation involves an unfreezing, change and re-freezing process as discussed earlier (see section 2.7.1).

An implementation unit as a change management team may be necessary for successful implementation. The team includes leadership outside the circle of officials, the leaders of the stakeholders. It is argued that to be successful in the initial design, experts, people with practical skills and people with practical administrative expertise are necessary.

In order to promote the change, other people outside the government and official circles have to be convinced of the value of change and people who can influence their opinion are needed on the government's side. These are lobby groups such as business leaders, respected educators and opinion leaders. They are important in promoting change and may also help to soften resistance from stakeholders.

Perris (1998) argues that changes in education will gain credibility more easily if there are other big changes taking place in the country at that same time. However, for successful change, Barr (1996) in Perris (1998: 25) points out that good policy design, political will and institutional capacity are all essential for success. Barr concludes that where one is missing, change will fail.

In dealing with problems, experience shows that political problems can be solved by instituting legislation that governs the change timetable. In addition, administrative structures are necessary for implementing the intended change. If the change has gone through the legislative process, this shows that the government is serious. Political leaders need to become personally involved in crucial activities of change implementation (see also Perris, 1998).

Perris (1998) draws some more lessons from successful change applicable to Tanzania and elsewhere. These include:

Use of the communication media: Communication media appropriate to the country and using communication experts can help to communicate with the wider population, especially parents, in order to win and maintain a groundswell of support.

Speed up change: Rapid change and sticking to announced timetables for change is very strong upfront evidence that the government is serious about the changes and will not be deflected from them.

The longer that proposals for change drag on, the less likely it is that they will ever be agreed upon and put into place. Appoint a specialist change manager with authority to speed up change.

Take action to gain the cooperation of staff: If staffs are going to lose their jobs or have their jobs changed as part of a change, they may sabotage the change as means of self-protection. Change leaders will need to set up a system to provide job protection or to ease the transition for the staff affected.

Appoint new people with fresh ideas and energy: People who would be enthusiastic about change, and who would use the new opportunities to the full. Negotiate with and involve or isolate the pressure groups; some of the key pressure groups have to be drawn into the change process.

Ideal but unrealistic change is one where no one loses and everyone gets more. In practice most changes produce some 'losers' who can be expected to oppose their own loss.

Allow for mistakes: Recognise that mistakes will be made, but do not allow mistakes to frustrate the general plan or hamper the change timetable. Identify mistakes as soon as they are found, report them immediately and take steps to correct them. Staff need to know they will not be blamed or fired for honest mistakes.

If change is considered new as pointed out earlier, then change processes involve old ways coming to an end and new ways starting. In this case there is need to have clear end points or close off dates for the 'old'. For example, in Tanzania the government is implementing a Civil Service Reform Programme. In so doing, ministries are required to implement changes in line with the Reform Programme. The installation of these changes in the Ministry of Education and Culture started with a Strategic Plan for the Ministry showing deadlines for old systems. For instance, the dates for starting an open appraisal system, and introducing hired services were scheduled for July 2004 (URT, 2004a: 48). In practice the open appraisal system was not introduced as planned, while hired services were introduced as planned. This experience indicates that to stick to timetables for change requires extra effort.

2.12 SUSTAINING CHANGE

Broadly, the actual work of change includes people, processes, practices and policies. However, Stiegelbauer (1994: 2) admits that the long term commitment necessary for successful implementation and continuation of change is hard to keep. In addition, it is even

more difficult to keep funded, although the real goal of change remains always to have impact on outcomes.

The role of the leader: Leighton (1996) writes that sustaining change demands new skills and knowledge different from abilities required to establish and maintain predictable routines or to sweep away the old and install the new. Sustaining change, according to Leighton, means finding ways to renew energy and enthusiasm and stay focused on a vision that is continuously adapting to new and sometimes unforeseen developments. It is a sustained partnership effort that often includes the type of improvements in teaching, learning and community support needed.

In light of the meaning of sustaining change, key leadership qualities for sustaining change have been categorised into five dimensions, namely, partnership and voice, vision and values knowledge and daring, savvy and persistence and personal qualities (Leighton, 1996). The leadership qualities are described below.

Partnership and voice: Effective change leaders cultivate a broad definition of community and consider the contribution that every member can make to help the organisation meet challenging standards. They hear the voices of many stakeholders' families, businesses, and other groups and institutions. Their ability to develop plans that reflect the legitimate influence of others draws in many authentic partners whose personal convictions as well as community spirit energise participation. They look for evidence of widespread participation in important aspects of change, establishing partnerships, listening to voices and leadership skills that permeate many aspects of change.

Vision and values: Effective change leaders are dependable and committed 'keepers of the dream'. These are leaders with a vivid mental image of change, who can guide their people to implement and sustain change.

They know that realising the dream hinges in part on applying certain agreed upon values to decision-making. This means having moral ethical concern for the people. They know that the dream is continuously evolving and that it belongs to everyone. In different ways they ask themselves daily: does this decision help realise the dream?

Knowledge and daring: Effective change leaders develop relevant information bases and cultivate human resources to minimise failure while encouraging risk taking. They study, count, send staff to workshops, bring in experts and mentors, consult their own insight and experience, and in a hundred other ways increase capacity to make good decisions. Then they step into the unknown and encourage staff to do likewise. Their risks are carefully calculated to push the boundaries of what is known and commonly done without threatening long-term success.

Savvy and persistence: Effective change leaders know how the system works. They know how to interact with the central office, the local community, and others outside the organisation. They know how certain organisation structures nurture or discourage attitudes and behaviour. They can put up with resistance inside or outside the building, but they eventually find ways to win co-operation. They are good managers. They monitor their understanding of the nature and operations of systems, and they maintain a network of supporters to lean on in times of particular stress.

Personal qualities: Effective change leaders put to good use an array of personal qualities that many feel may be innate, but are often under-utilised. A well-developed sense of humour is often mentioned as a priceless asset. Leaders use language that signals their understanding of human variation and the ways their own gifts can be used well.

2.13 MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATION AND EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

The term, management, is and remains connected with the idea of value-free executive responsibility, in the sense of organisation according to already preconceived aims (Hinrichs, 1999: 73). From such a viewpoint, the term means “the process of securing decisions about what activities the organisation (or unit of an organisation) will undertake and mobilising the human and material resources to undertake them”. It should be noted that the pioneering works on the management and functioning of organisations were written by engineers, managers and industrial consultants who were very familiar with practical problems encountered in operating large productive organisations. These ranged from scientific management to human relations theory. Thus, management of education differed from other kinds of management until the mid-1950s when the New Movement in educational

administration emerged. The movement aimed at providing coherence in educational management by emphasising the importance of theory.

Fullan (2000: 4) underscores that educational change is a socio political process, in which making sense of educational change is central. He admits that managing social change is a multivariate business that requires thinking and addressing more than one factor at a time. Fullan (*ibid.*) argues that if reform is to be successful, people should find what should change as well as how to cope with and influence it. He points out that while the theory and practice of successful educational change make sense and point to clear guidelines for action, particular actions in particular situations require integrating knowledge of the politics, personalities and history peculiar to the setting in question.

The new development has brought challenges and opportunities which emerge in the management of education and in the increasing complexity and diversity in education (Hughes *et al*, 1985: xi). Thus, managers and administrators of education, whether their work is based in the classroom or lecture room, in the study of the head teacher or college principal or in the local authority office or national department, all face major and generally increasing pressures from change demands. A number of factors have been found to put pressure on educational change. These factors include the ever-widening horizons of education itself, the rapidly changing economic, social and political context of educational management and the continuing significant change in social expectations concerning education services. Thus, management of educational change is essentially management of education.

2.14 FACTORS THAT FACILITATE EDUCATIONAL CHANGE: FOCUS ON DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Educational change cannot work in a vacuum; thus, a variety of mechanisms are needed to support the change. Shaeffer (1994: 24) points out that essential to the success of many innovations has been the presence of some kind of parent, parent-teacher or community/village committee focused on the organisation. Shaeffer (*ibid*) emphasises that there must be specific legislation, policies, procedures and guidelines related to the functions and responsibilities of the participatory mechanisms. This must be done first at the macro-level to ensure greater inter-sectoral and inter-departmental collaboration in education, to establish the precise nature of decentralisation and to define the role of NGOs, community

associations, teacher organisations, and private organisations in the national education system. But it must also be done at the micro-level, relating to the responsibilities and functions of parent-teacher associations, organisation management committees, and/or village education committees, including procedures for involving the community in curriculum development activities.

Other factors which facilitate educational change are knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours of managers in the education system. For educational change to be successful, teachers, parents, community, business partners, administrators, and students must share leadership functions. Parents and communities may begin their involvement in very simple ways, but as their knowledge, skills, and experience grow, their involvement will considerably increase. However, one observer noted that other tasks of educating the communities toward participation is less difficult than that of educating administrators to accept it as a strategy for successful educational change (Shaeffer, 1994: 25).

Community participation has real and practical meaning because its contribution is vital for realising educational change even when adequate financial resources are provided by the local or higher levels (Ahmed, *et al*, 1991). However, in Tanzania participation has been seriously constrained by several things, such as, belief that education is essentially the task of the state. Furthermore, there is resistance of community involvement in what are often seen as specialised and professional matters and poor motivation of teachers leading to low community confidence in teachers. Obanya (1999: 83) observes that attempts of educational change in developing countries, particularly in Africa, have focused on the training of educational managers. Yet, genuine educational changes have to emphasise efficient educational services, such as, helping schools accomplish their goals more effectively by replacing some structures, programmes and practices with better ones (Fullan, 2000: 15).

2.15 TEACHERS AND EDUCATIONAL CHANGE

School improvement begins with teachers and not specific ideas such as the curriculum and structures of governance. Fullan (1982: 117) puts it bluntly, “Educational change depends on what teachers do and think – it’s as simple and complex as that”. Without improving the quality of teachers, efforts to introduce innovations are but vain attempts. The quality of teaching cannot be improved and eventually student performance will not be improved.

The teacher is the key to effective functioning of an educational programme (Ahmed, *et al* 1991: 89). Furthermore, almost all the major problems in basic education relating to goals, learning achievement, organisation of educational programmes and performance of the system require dealing with the performance, behaviour, motivation and skills of teachers and how they are utilised by the system.

In changing societies like Tanzania, individual cultural level and capacity to learn have to be enhanced. The teacher's task is therefore more important than ever before. However, while the key place occupied by teachers is coming to be re-emphasized, their status and professional standing are still under-rated in most aspects. In this connection there is a need to assess teacher training, its relevance and capacity to handle the new role of teachers in the school.

2.16 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE SCHOOL CHANGE

School culture develops as staff members interact with each other, the students and the community at large. If the staff members are committed to the reform introduced, then the culture will be conducive to change. In order for a change to occur, schools should be places that stimulate and support teachers.

This may involve a new outlook on school governance and organisation. Traditionally, schools do not have the organisational capacity to formulate the goals and vision necessary to bring about an effective change in a culture. The input of practitioners in schools is crucial in creating lasting change. However, typically, policy-makers set the conditions for the administration of change, without allowing teachers and other staff a voice in the policy-making.

Another factor that influences school change is the emotional aspect of change. This facet of change is often overlooked when a reform is initiated, which has often led to the reform's failure. When upsetting feelings associated with change are managed and given credibility, then change is more likely to proceed.

Vital to the emotional aspect of change is the nurturing of relationships among school personnel. Teaching is not only an emotional profession; it is a social one as well. Teachers

need to relate to colleagues who are in similar situations and involved in similar reforms in order for them to reflect on the changes.

Although defining the effects of best practices research on teachers' decisions to change is an indefinite science, it is clear that classroom teachers often change their practices as a result of workshops or classes that they attend where they are given information on best practices. There is a pronounced relationship between specific teaching practices and student achievement and these practices are related to teacher learning opportunities. At the risk of pointing out the obvious, teachers cannot change their practices if they do not learn new ones.

Research suggests that teachers will adjust their pedagogy as a result of professional development opportunities that reflect best practices (Mhando and Mrimi, 2004: 18). However, change occurs only when the teachers can directly apply what they learn to the contexts in which they are teaching. In other words, if the teachers cannot conceptualise themselves and apply what they are learning to their students or to their current or projected teaching circumstance, they tend to dismiss the change.

2.17 MANAGING SCHOOL CHANGE IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Managing school change and improvement is one of the most complex tasks of school leadership. Fullan (1993) and Spark (1993) in Leighton (1996) point out that school leaders need to understand the change process in order to lead and manage change and improvement efforts effectively. Holly and Southworth (1989: 24) argue that during the early days of the change process, continuity, synthesis and instrumentalism are vital factors in developing school change. That is, anticipated change occurs as planned. However, emergent changes may arise during the process. It is also argued that opportunity-based changes are introduced during the process in response to an opportunity. The three types of changes overlap and have to be synthesised and improved continuously.

It is essential that school improvement efforts link to others in the school and district and connect the school's goals to the broader and deeper mission of providing high-quality learning for all students. Senge (1991) in Fullan (1994) contends that for school improvement efforts to be successful, teachers, parents, community and business partners,

administrators, and students must share leadership functions. Likewise, the head teacher's role must change from that of a top-down supervisor to facilitator, architect, steward, instructional leader, coach, and strategic teacher. Holly and Southworth (1989) also agree that change that bubbles up from the grassroots has staying power. This means if the people on the ground, such as teachers, learners and parents are enthusiastic, sustainable change will take place.

It is also argued that the mass of teachers are most likely to embrace a change if, among other things, it enhances a respect for their autonomy with regard to classroom practice and reinforces their professional identity (Macdonald and Walker, 1976 in Slater, 1985: 460). In this connection the skills and attitudes of the teachers influence the process of change negatively or positively.

Community participation: In traditional thinking, the school and community are said to be separated by a wall. Interaction between the two is practically non-existent. Another concept of school community is that which considers the school as an ideal community where the school contributes its knowledge, findings and skills to the community. The school plays an active role, and the community is passive and receptive. However, studies elsewhere in developing countries show that rural communities tend to ignore the school if it does not cater for felt needs or cannot be absorbed into its culture (Dove, 1986). Dove observes that it is difficult to adapt the school to local needs because of the misidentification of the needs of the community, incapacity of the school to reach rural skills effectively or lack of opportunities in the community. Thus, the economy cannot absorb skills learned at school.

Studies of rural community (Dove, 1986) show how villagers enthusiastically sent their children to school once they observed that success in the school could lead to high income, occupational status and land ownership. Even in an increasingly difficult job-market, they continued to send their children to school because of the very high value they had come to place on occupational status.

However, in the African context, even at present there are disparities in educational opportunities and not all societies put high value on schooling. For example, the Masai in Tanzania and other nomadic tribes do not value schooling. Some kind of force is employed by the government to make sure that parents send their children to school. Obanya (1999:

87) says that employment, whether self-employment or in a job, is a function of the state of society's economy, skills and products. Skilled work cannot be sold in a situation where very few people can afford to buy them.

If the mission of the school is different from the community and its ideas, the community may reject the school's influence. In other words, the changes they brought may have been beneficial to the individual but on the whole they did not enhance the well-being of the communities. Consequently, the community rejects the school by refusing to become its client and refusing to send their children to school. This can neutralise the effects of the school if it has nothing new to offer to the community. If, for example, the school is viewed by the community as offering what they knew already, if teachers were so poorly trained and lacked a professional background, the community may reject the school.

Dove (1986) concludes that the influence of the school in social change is greater when it is promoting knowledge, skills and values which the community either actively welcomes, or, at least accepts as part of an inevitably changing way of life. Thus, for instance, Tanzania has insisted on Education for Self-Reliance (ESR) in schools, which attempt to put into practice mutual help and co-operation. However, there is evidence that the communities reinforce competitive and elitist values.

Ahmed *et al* (1991) delineated three aspects to community participation in education programmes in developing countries:

- Participation in the services and activities by those for whom these are intended.
- Participation in designing, managing, setting goals and evaluating programmes.
- Contributing financially or otherwise to programmes with or without sharing in the benefits but with little say in planning or managing the programmes.

The current practices of management in Tanzania show that there is no sufficiently supportive or meaningful participation of interested parents and community members in planning and managing educational programmes in the community. Decisions that are of some significance are generally made away from community at higher levels of the administrative hierarchy. The mechanism which could conceivably be a vehicle for

community involvement in substantive matters, such as school committee or community education committee, is given an advisory or consultative role. In many cases it depends on the local administration and educational functionaries to determine whether and to what extent the community bodies might become involved in decision-making and how much importance is given to community views.

Dove (1986), Ahmed, *et al* (1991) and Chambers (1997) contend that communities are not necessarily homogeneous entities with common concerns, interests and visions for the future. Conflicts and factionalism arise from various traditional and newer forces of division: class, caste, religion, uneven ownership of land and other assets, control of political power, age, gender and poverty. Studies done in India conclude that social and caste characteristics constitute the major determinants of the quantity and quality of education received by individuals (Ahmed, Kai Ming, Jalaluddin and Ramachandran, 1991). This generalisation appears not to apply in Tanzania where, since independence, deliberate changes in the education system have been made to abolish racism, division of classes and other discriminatory practices in society by nationalizing schools and introducing one official language, Swahili, which has united most Tanzanians.

Chambers (1997: 183) laments that outsider professionals treat communities as homogeneous while, within the communities, there are many obvious differences. He further argues that those whom outsiders meet and interact with are most likely to be middle-aged or youths, male, from dominant groups and economically well off. Often their criteria, preferences and priorities are taken as those of the whole community. However, the community also includes those who are weak and worse off, children, the very old, females, social inferiors, subordinate groups, the disabled and those who are vulnerable and poor. This argument calls for involvement of all stakeholders when introducing and implementing educational change.

2.18 CONCLUSION

The literature review presented in chapter two has provided a wealth of information on change and its processes. Although the real goal of change remains an impact on outcomes, yet reaching outcomes requires keeping up the pressure and sustaining the real work of change. Successful implementation and continuation of change is hard work and requires skills in change management.

In new models for change and change management, emphasis is placed on the process and its context, while organisational capacity for continuous renewal and growth points toward the direction for the future. Lessons from literature provide something about strategies and processes that can be applied to good effect. Change is viewed as a series of overlapping processes instead of linear processes.

Interventions which have a top-down linear approach usually hope or assume that intentions and innovations will be applied in practice at the implementation level. However, experiences from reform indicate that initiatives from only the top will succeed if the actors in the field embrace the reform.

The ownership of the intervention further will be sustainable if the initiatives have taken the reverse, a bottom-up direction. This development is in line with the general government policy in Tanzania that emphasises decentralisation, local ownership of education and the transference of responsibility to schools, local communities, districts and regions (URT, 1995). However, education systems are structures with built-in deep rooted traditions. Thus, it is necessary to have a realistic perception of the outcome of the intended changes, that is, the ideal parallel change in all components in the education system. The components include educators, teachers, students, parents and community members.

Successful change management requires problem finding and solving techniques. This means if people in an organisation lack knowledge and skills, the impact of implementing change process will be poor. Although the literature shows that the process of educational change is complex, there is also recognition that educational change has a link with past history and the future path of development. This shows that it is important to have a plan for implementing an educational change process.

Successful change management requires problem finding and solving techniques. Inevitably all changes of value require new skills, behaviour and beliefs or understandings (Fullan, 1991 in Fullan, 1993: 22). The literature shows that a vision is also important in implementing a successful change process. However, the intensity of the change process is reduced by factors, such as, the re-definition of policy, policy change, negative attitudes towards the intended change, lack of knowledge, skills and resources.

The literature suggests that a suitable model for the study of management of educational change in Tanzania is one which considers change as overlapping processes, where the interplay of problem understanding, vision, planning and implementation guide the change process. The success of the change process is measured by the intensity of the impact brought about by the change process in the education system.

The next chapter reviews the literature on specific educational changes in Tanzania linking them with experiences elsewhere as derived from the literature review.

CHAPTER THREE

EDUCATIONAL CHANGES IN TANZANIA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Since independence in 1961, the Tanzania Ministry of Education has been implementing a number of reforms in the political, economic and social domains. These reforms have inevitably necessitated change in the education system (Nyerere, 1968: 340). The chapter reviews educational reforms in the country and analyses the reforms with a view to evaluate the management of the intended educational changes. This chapter draws lessons from elsewhere to substantiate its arguments on the reforms. The first part deals with the background of educational reforms in the country; the second part deals with past reforms; and the third part deals with current reforms, development and the aftermath of the reform, taking into account management aspects. The aim of this chapter is thus to examine the educational change process in Tanzania and identify what has worked and why in order to gauge the management of educational change in primary education.

3.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF EDUCATION IN TANZANIA

The government of Tanzania monopolized the provision of education immediately after her independence in 1961. The purpose, among other things, was to abolish racial discrimination in the provision of education, streamline the curriculum and examinations, as well as the administration and financing of education (URT, 1995). Furthermore, it was intended to promote Kiswahili as a national language by making it the medium of instruction in schools and make local authorities and communities responsible for the construction of primary schools and for the provision of primary education.

In this regard, the government assumed responsibility for the allocation of funds for ensuring fair distribution of opportunities with a purpose of preventing the waste of talent. However, it was still legally possible for private schools run by communities and voluntary agents to operate outside the government aided schools.

These new policy measures did not make significant changes in the goals and objectives of education until 1967, when the philosophy of Education for Self-Reliance (ESR) was introduced to guide the planning and practice of education.

This was in response to the move taken by the government that emphasized the formation of a socialist oriented state. Indeed, education played an important role in the reforms that Nyerere proposed after independence. Nyerere saw education as closely tied to social commitment (African Studies Centre, 2004). Furthermore, he believed that it should encourage both self-reliance and cooperation with others.

A number of changes were implemented in the education system and the school system. Some of these include the following:

- More emphasis was given to the provision of primary education by introducing Universal Primary Education (UPE).
- Self-reliance work was made an integral part of education.
- Voluntary agency schools were nationalized.
- Local education authorities were formed to run and manage primary schools.
- School boards and committees were established for secondary schools teachers' colleges and primary schools respectively.

Policies on universal education led to improvement in school enrolments and education standards. The literacy rate in 1986 was 96.8 percent (URT, 1995). This confirms the observations made by Van Niekerk (1996:445) that educational reforms are associated with a rapid increase in enrolment. She cautions that an increase in enrolments requires both financial and human resources.

Indeed, the achievements made in Tanzania were not sustained due to severe economic difficulties in 1980s including foreign debt. Thus, the primary school Gross Enrolment (GER) dropped from 98 percent in 1981 to 76.4 percent in 1988 (URT: 2000). This indicates that sustainability of educational reforms in Tanzania is contingent on economic conditions. This phenomenon occurs in most countries. The case of Tanzania is exceptional where during the past ten years the rate of the economy has grown steadily to 6 percent (Planning

Commission, 2004) and the country is taking forward an education reform that seems to have an impact in the education sector.

The changes made between 1967 and 1978 were legalised through the Education Act No 25 of 1978. The changes legalised by the act included:

The establishment of a centralised administration of schools, instituting restrictions on the establishment of schools, centralisation of school curricula and syllabi, the establishment of school boards and committees and empowerment of the commissioner of national education to make regulations for implementing the provisions and objectives of the Act.

These changes clearly show the monopoly of the government in the provision of education. However, Van Niekerk (1996: 445) maintains that a new education Act does not mean an automatic appearance of a new system of education. Furthermore, Johr (2003: 2) asserts that reform cannot occur unless there is passionate commitment to a vision which is passionately furthered by leaders who are willing both to provide direction that unites people and to work for the needed change.

In the case of Tanzania, past educational policies were based on the philosophy of President Nyerere who articulated the vision of the required change. Nyerere aspired to build a socialist oriented country where all members have equal opportunities and enjoy basic level material welfare before any single individual achieves a life of affluence (Nyerere, 1968: 340).

The restrictions on registration and operations discouraged the creation of new private schools especially at primary level. However, the student flows from the primary schools forced the government to allow non-government schools at secondary level in the 1980s and they accounted for half the enrolment.

Following the economic liberalisation in the mid 1980s, the government introduced a macro-policy which emphasised the increased role of the private sector, continued liberalisation of the economy, provision of essential resources to priority areas, increased investment in the infrastructure and social services, and the introduction of cost-sharing measures. These changes necessitated a review and restructuring of the education system which resulted in the 1995 Education and Training Policy. Among other things, the policy intends to decentralise

education and training by empowering regions, districts, communities and educational institutions to manage and administer education and training.

The previous commitment of the government immediately after independence to guarantee free primary education subject to the community building the school was not financially feasible, but created a mentality that parents should only contribute to the school's construction and uniforms. The cost sharing policy caused resentment among parents, as they were obliged to pay tuition fees, textbooks, stationery and other user fees.

In order to implement the policy, the government introduced the Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) in 1997. The aim was to involve all the stakeholders in the provision of education. Within this Programme a number of sub-programmes were introduced. These included the Whole School Development sub-programme that was endorsed in 1998. The overall intention was to improve management and administration of primary schools as one of the major component of improving the quality of primary education, through proper head teacher training and development of career incentives as well as involving community members in the provision of quality primary education.

In 1999 the ESDP was appraised and, on the whole, found that it had a stronger emphasis on the development of organisational management procedures than on quality improvement (URT, 1999b). Thus, there was need for giving the programme the perspectives of teaching and learning processes.

The appraisal observed that major lesson from change programmes in all countries and all sectors is that, however much those at the top believe they are communicating fully, openly and frankly, those at the bottom are convinced that they are not kept properly in the picture. Communication needs to go upwards, downwards and sideways.

In the year 2000, the government through donor support developed and started implementing the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP): 2001 – 2006. At this time the overall situation of the education system was characterised by very low enrolment rates: in primary education the gross enrolment rate was 78 percent and the net enrolment rate was 57 percent in 1998. This meant a drop from the levels of mid 1970s and early 1980s before introduction of tuition fees in government schools.

The objectives of PEDP were to increase enrolments in primary education, improve the quality of primary education, improve the teaching and learning environment as well as improving the institutional arrangement (URT, 2001a: 4).

The result of the plan was the re-introduction of Universal Primary Education (UPE). In an effort to meet international requirements for all countries, the government re-introduced free primary education when parents became used to cost sharing. Within two years of implementation, the cross enrolment rate rose to 103.6 percent and net enrolment rose to 78 percent (URT, 2004b). Since this plan is heavily donor funded, it is obvious that the financing of the plan will not be sustained. It will take time to convince parents to start cost-sharing again.

3.3 CURRENT EDUCATIONAL REFORMS IN TANZANIA

3.3.1 The Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP)

The 1995 Education and Training Policy gave direction to provision of education in the areas of quality, access and equity as well as in improved management of education through decentralisation to enable quick, efficient and effective delivery of education including broadening the financial base of education.

This policy and other subsequent sub-sector policies for higher education and vocational education formed the basis for recent education reforms in Tanzania.

Given the diverse areas stipulated in the policy the design and implementation of the policy apparently required a diverse management system. In 1997, such a process was initiated and culminated in the Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP). The ESDP was intended to be a sector-wide approach which was adopted in a worldwide wave of change in developing countries following the fall of communism in the 1980s.

One of the main features of the ESDP is devolution of powers of decision-making, planning, implementation, monitoring and supervision to local authorities. This desire on the part of the government can only be fulfilled if there is a clear and accessible legal framework, which

defines roles, duties and responsibilities across the whole sector in order to minimize chances of conflict, duplication and neglect of existing opportunities.

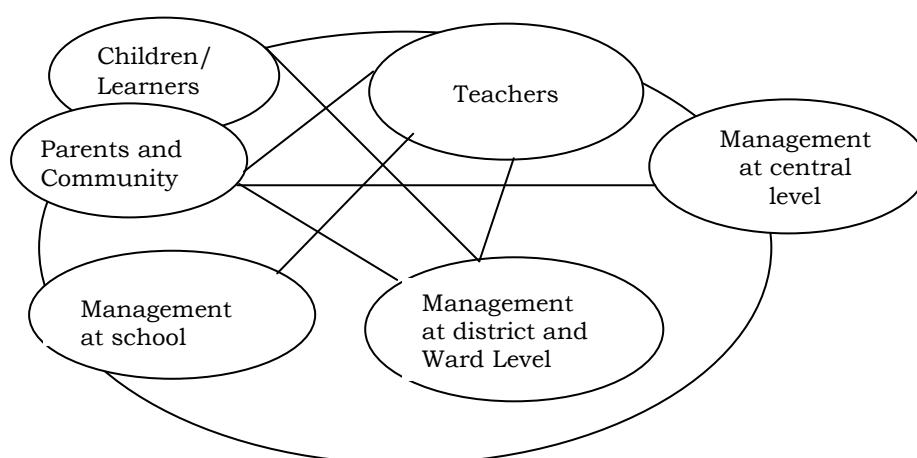


Figure: 3.1: The scope of ESDP

Decentralisation, empowerment and participation go from the central level (1 entity) to the districts (121 entities), onward to the schools (12 649 entities) (URT, 2004c). Key entities, that is, teacher/pupils, parents and the community, include 113 980 teachers and 6 531 769 pupils by 2004 (TPR is 1:57). This shows the need to focus on capacity building at the district level in order to bring about the target scenario of quality teaching and learning and subsequently increase participation and contributions among the key entities.

Studies elsewhere reveal that districts have an active role in policy shaping and are a significant positive force for change (Furham and Elmore in Anderson, 2003: 4). Tennison (1999:2) emphasises that parents, teachers and other interested parties should be aware of who brings about education change. Furthermore, Tennison (ibid.) asserts that reforms affect not only pupils and classrooms, but also the homes and other stakeholders. She goes on to say that education reform is about more reforming the academic education system; they are about the total and complete restructuring of society, beginning with children. UNESCO and ILO (2003:6) argue that social dialogue is a key to successful educational reform.

UNESCO and ILO (ibid.) define social dialogue as all forms of information sharing, consultation and negotiation between educational authorities, public and private, and teachers and their democratically elected representatives in teacher organisations. Consequently they alienate enabling conditions for social dialogue in education that include the following:

- Strong independent organisations of teachers and where appropriate, organisations of private educational employers, with technical capacity and access to the relevant information to participate in social dialogue.
- Political will and commitment to engage in social dialogue on the part of all the parties.
- Respect for the fundamental rights of freedom of association and collective bargaining.
- Appropriate institutional mechanism and support.

Shaeffer (1994) in UNESCO-IICBA (2004: 2) defines several degrees of participation and describes a ladder of participation which leads from passive parent and community involvement, such as manipulation and mere use of service to increasingly participatory activities where participants are consulted. Thereafter, they share decision-making in activities initiated by others and finally decide on direct activities they initiate themselves. The last stage implies the leader taking full responsibility for considering the rationale, implications and potential outcomes of educational programmes.

The ESDP appraisal indicated that the initial phase of decentralisation of decision-making to the school's community and councils failed to produce significant widespread gains in student learning. The appraisal also shows that the ESDP puts a strong emphasis on development of organisational and management procedures that relates to the Ministry of Education and Culture and to its functions in the sector development process (Kinunda, Omari, Robinson and Sarvi, 1999: 10).

Experience from elsewhere shows that though institutional change is necessary, it takes more to bring about pedagogical transformation (Tedesco, 1998: 2). Thus, it was not surprising for the appraisal to recommend an appropriate balance that is constant in the strategic thinking and planning of the programme by giving high priority to the perspectives of teaching and learning processes at an early stage. Apparently, this requires a change in the education sector planning process from the current rather top-down approach towards a two-way approach. Such an approach is essential for building synergy between new roles and responsibilities of actors and stakeholders at all levels in the direction of the decentralised sector.

3.3.2 The Whole School Development Programme (WSDP)

The WSDP is one of the elements of the Education Sector Development Programme intended to improve management of primary schools. It is believed that this will boost morale, increase motivation and restore public confidence in primary education (URT, 1998: 3). Furthermore, the distinctive feature of the WSDP is the realisation that schools must have a plan. The school plan is defined as an ongoing process whereby head teachers in consultation with their staff review and evaluate the effectiveness of the range of educational experiences and opportunities provided for children in their schools (URT, 1998: 1). In this regard the schools will be able to prepare for the production or assessment of their own curriculum guidelines, plans, policies, school organisation, administration strategies, evaluation and assessment procedures, all in the context of schools' unique social economic and other circumstances.

The process of planning offers an opportunity for involving the school committees, the head teacher, the staff and parents in a collaborative exercise aimed at:

- Defining the school mission.
- Formulating long terms aims and short-term objectives.
- Reviewing all curricular areas and prioritising those in need of urgent attention.
- Reviewing all organisational areas and prioritising those in need of urgent attention.
- Establishing effective internal and external networks of communication with special emphasis on parent involvement.

UNESCO-IICBA (2004: 3) argues that successful schools are usually schools, which are fully supported by their communities. This support does not mean only financial support. The aim should be to strengthen the connection between the school and community and attract community participation and support in the development of education. The community through their committee should advise the school authorities, supervise and evaluate schools and suggest about teaching materials not only raising funds from the community. To perform such a role, the committees need knowledgeable people. Anderson (2003: 3) found that multi-stakeholders (district officials, teacher unions, principals' steering committees) played a significant role in the implementation of a decentralised reform effort

that emphasised teacher empowerment. He concluded that policies that emphasised decentralisation and school-based management were the engine for change. Within this context the WSDP stands a chance to succeed.

3.3.2.1 The conceptual framework for the WSDP

The conceptual framework for the Whole School Development Plan is derived from the universally accepted belief that schools are unique entities in the education system. Thus, their functioning plays a significant role in the improvement of education. The WSDP is intended to change the schools' management from the one-person show of the head teacher to more participatory management.

Figure 3.2 shows the relationship between elements of the WSDP to achieve an efficient and effective school.

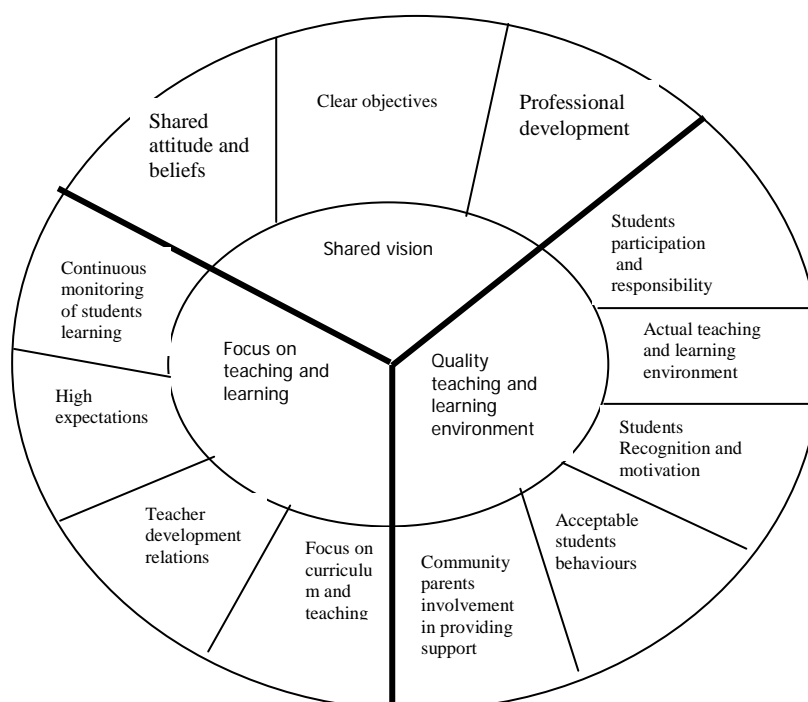


Figure 3.2: Whole School Development conceptual framework

Derived from: Fink (1994) in URT (1998: 6)

3.3.2.2 Rationale for the WSDP conceptual framework

There are a number of factors that contribute to student achievement. Apparently, parent attitudes to education on the part of local communities are an important factor in performance

of schools. Community contribution in primary schools is also an important element for efficient and effective schools.

The WSDP is a strategy for decentralizing education to lower levels. However, decentralisation of education is essentially related to household and community participation, cost sharing and accountability. All in all, it should be understood that the extent of parental involvement appears to be related to community awareness and wealth. Studies conducted in schools and communities in Tanzania reveal that communities differ in the speed of responding to sensitization campaigns and thus to their level of participation and involvement in school finance (URT, 1999b: 16). Rural communities require more sensitization campaigns using several approaches unlike those used for urban communities.

3.3.3 Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP)

Achievements in Tanzanian education have not survived the country's economic difficulties. Social services including education have suffered from shortages of financial resources and at some stages enrolments have declined. The share of budgetary contributions to education fell below 4 percent by the early 1990s (Johnson, 2004: 2). Furthermore, other forms of public commitment in the social sector in Tanzania were also affected under the impact of fiscal retrenchment.

The government has been striving to achieve the Education for All goals since the conference on Education for All held in Jomtien in 1990. However, problems facing primary education persisted because of lack of funds. There were variation in regional enrolment patterns, shortage of essential resources including dilapidated school buildings, irrelevant curricula, late school enrolment and a lack of qualified teachers (IRIN News, 2002: 1).

Tanzania's trade record of reform restored donor confidence and paved the way for a new three-year structural adjustment support programme from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 2000 and considerable debt relief through the High Indebted Countries Initiative. Johnson (2004: 1) provides an impact assessment of structural adjustments and educational reforms across Sub-Sahara Africa from 1980s to 1990s and asserts that structural adjustment programmes were intended to facilitate the repayment of Northern bank loans. He further argues that the central ideological underpinnings of structural adjustment reforms still drive

education policy in Africa and the developing world, especially those countries that have increasingly come to rely on multi-lateral support for macro economic sustainability.

Galabawa, Katebalirwe and Kilindo (2000) argue that the decline in Tanzania government spending on education coincided with a period of structural adjustment reforms to restore economic growth. Inevitably the shift has influenced the form and direction of education and training policies, which has paved the way to the re-introduction of private education in the country. This shows that in developing countries, external forces may even change the priority of the country. UNESCO (2004: 37) concludes that governments of developing countries must learn to adopt the trend of financing donors.

Tanzania seems to have adopted the financing trends of donors since, after receiving a boost of finances through the High Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative; the country introduced the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP).

The highest priority for the PEDP is to increase overall gross and net enrolment of girls and boys. The second primary education policy priority is to revitalize and improve the quality of primary education focusing on teachers, availability of quality teaching and learning materials, as well as ensuring the necessary support for maintaining educational standards. The third policy priority is to strengthen the institutional capacity and competence of the central and local government authorities and on school levels. The last strategic priority in the PEDP is to optimise the use of human, material and financial resources. The introduction of the PEDP actually signified the re-introduction of universal primary education in the country following worldwide Education For All initiatives.

Johnson (2004: 4) confirms this by saying, “The need for educational change in much of Sub-Saharan Africa and the developing world is sentiment, which reaffirms Jomtien declaration of 1990 that education in the modern age is not a privilege, but a basic human right”. However, it should be recalled that the commitment of decision-makers at the highest level in favour of change is the key to success, but there is no guarantee with regard to external financing, which may adversely affect the sustainability of the change.

The Institutional Framework for the PEDP implementation is built on the existing management structure of primary education in the country which involves the two Ministries

concerned with the management of primary education. Figure 3.3 shows different levels of PEDP implementation.

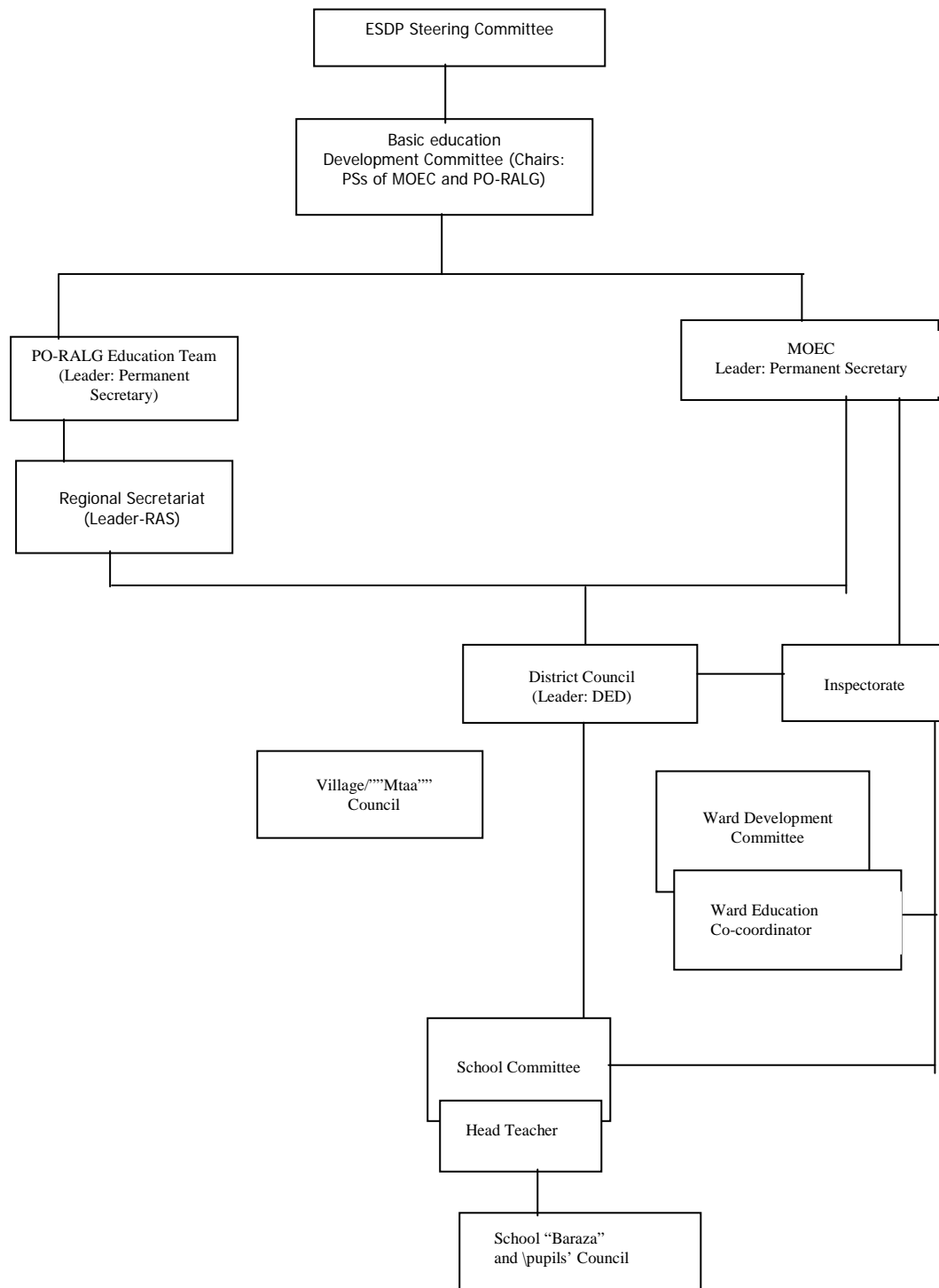


Fig. 3.3 Institutional Framework for PEDP Implementation

Source: URT (2001a: 32)

When the PEDP started implementation in the year 2002, the plan appeared very ambitious. IRIN (2002: 1) reported that efforts by the Tanzanian government to offer free basic education to the country's school-age children were being hampered by a serious shortage of education facilities, including variation of regional enrolment patterns, an irrelevant curriculum, late school enrolment and lack of qualified teachers.

Despite the difficult start, by 2004 the PEDP had registered some achievements. Between 2002 and 2004 several new structures were established to expand access to primary education. These included 45 000 classrooms, 8 527 teachers' houses, 285 898 desks and the number of primary schools increased from 11 654 in the year 2000 to 13 689 by the year 2004.

Educational statistics show that net enrolment in primary schools increased from 58.8 percent in 2000 to 90.1 percent in the year 2004. The gross enrolment increased from 85 percent in 2000 to 106.3 in year 2004 (URT, 2004d: 9-10).

Given that Tanzania is one of the poorest countries in the world (see section 1.2), it had no capacity to establish the infrastructure to meet the demands of UPE. Foreign money enabled the country to start implementing PEDP (IRIN, 2002: 2).

Quantitative achievements gained do not necessarily guarantee quality education. Given that of late the quality of education in Tanzania has been deteriorating, the main challenge is rooted in the sustainability of the reforms being introduced to improve both access and quality of education, that is, how the positive past reform achievements can be sustained in the long run without foreign support.

The massive expansion at the primary school level has a direct bearing on secondary education. Furthermore, the secondary education sub-sector has a great role in attaining the vision 2010 (URT, 2004c), which is intended to eradicate poverty (URT, 1988). Recently, the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MOEVT) emphasised the need to expand secondary education and formulated the ambitious goal of increasing the entry of primary school leavers to secondary schools to 50 percent by 2005. Secondary education plays a major role in the supply of primary school teachers as well as the supply of human resources in the lower cadres of the formal and non-formal sectors. However, expansion of secondary

education is not only meant for meeting the demand, but rather, whether or not this expansion is addressing the issues of equitable access, quality curriculum management and financing. Equitable access might be gained through private education provision.

At the secondary level, in 1998 there were 781 secondary schools in Tanzania (Mainland). Of these, 374 were privately built and managed, while 315 were community built and managed by the government and 92 were government - either built or nationalized and managed by the government. This indicates that the contribution of the government in building secondary schools has been very minimal. In 2004, the number of secondary schools allowed a transition rate of only 21.7 percent from primary schools (URT, 2004c: 6).

The Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) for lower secondary has also remained low increasing from 6.9 percent in 1990 to 7.4 percent in 2000. Those for upper secondary have also increased from 0.87 percent in 1990 to 1.6 percent in 2000. At higher education level, the GER has increased from 0.27 percent in 1990 to 0.79 percent in 2000 showing that higher education is catering for a selected few.

These trends may explain the impact of the restrictive policies and negligible role of the private sector in the provision and expansion of education in the 1970s and 1980s and the limited government ability to provide enough resources for expansion of secondary school capacity. This situation calls for complementary provision of education to that of the government. Tanzania has been noted as one of those countries where the existing and projected supply of public education provision is insufficient to meet the ever-growing demand (Kitaev, 1999: 14). Thus, the role of private education in Tanzania appears crucial as a means of increasing access to education especially secondary education and higher education.

3.4 MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION OF THE EDUCATION SECTOR

Education in Tanzania is managed at various levels of the education system from central, district, ward, village and school. Each level has some designated functional roles. This section examines the institutions and actors that are responsible for managing education in Tanzania at various levels.

In Tanzania the management and administration of the education sector at central level as a whole is a shared responsibility among the three ministries. The Ministry of Regional Administration and Local Government manages the primary education, adult literacy and non-formal education, while the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training has the responsibility of policy formulation, coordination and evaluation. The Ministry also manages secondary, teacher education, vocational education, post secondary education and, provides inspectorate services.

The Permanent Secretary (PS) and the Chief Education Officer (CEO) are key actors in the management of education. The Permanent Secretary is responsible for all the employees and finances of the Ministry. The CEO is the technical arm of the Ministry. He is responsible for the implementation of educational policies. His powers are clearly stated in the Education Act No.25 of 1978. The Directors of Policy and Planning; Manpower Development and Administration; Primary, Secondary, Higher Education, Vocational Training, Teacher Education and the Inspectorate, support the Chief Education Officer. All these direct the execution of the day-to-day activities of the Ministry.

Some powers to run primary and adult education have been devolved to the regions, districts and wards under the decentralised system. The directorates of Primary Education act mainly as coordinator of educational provision by the local authorities. Their contact at the regional level is the Regional Education Officer (REO) who is administratively answerable to the Regional Administrative Secretary (RAS) and professionally to the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training.

At the district level, the District Education Officer (DEO) is administratively responsible to the District Administrative Secretary (DAS) or Town Director and professionally responsible to the REO. Officers responsible for academic matters, logistics, statistics and adult education, assist both the REO and DEO. The inspectorate is answerable to the CEO. Apparently, this arrangement makes it difficult for the REO and DEO to supervise and ensure sustainability of acceptable performance standards in schools.

The Ministry of Science and Technology created in October 1990 is responsible for the promotion of Science and Technology. A minister heads it. A Permanent Secretary who is the custodian of financial resources and the chief executive administrator for the Ministry assists

the Minister. He or she oversees the commission for Science and Technology Education, Planning, Statistics and Research.

Within the context of the education sector reform some sector management arrangements have been put in place to usher in and nurture a sector approach to education. Some of these are: the Education Sector Coordinating Committee (ESC); the Basic Education Development Committee (BEDC) and the Education Sector Working Groups (ESWG).

Various autonomous Institutions support the education functions of the Ministry/Ministries: the Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE) specialises in curricula development; the Institute of Adult Education (IAE) is concerned with literacy and lifelong learning; the Tanzania Library Services (TLS); the National Examinations Council of Tanzania (NECTA); the National Kiswahili Council (NKC); the National Arts Council (NAC); the National Films Censorship Board (NFCB); the National Museum of Tanzania (NMT) and the National Sports Council (NPC). These institutions are autonomous in matters of their specialisation. However, what they do must be endorsed by the Ministry. For example, when TIE develops a curriculum, before it is printed it must be endorsed by the CEO. Likewise, examination results by NECTA must be endorsed by the Ministry before they are made public. This shows that most of the decisions concerning education are still being made from the central government.

District level

Management of basic education and community secondary schools is decentralised (URT, 1999b). The management of secondary, tertiary and higher education is centralised. The power and authority to make decisions in the decentralised system is vested in the District Council as well as School Boards and Committees. District Councils are responsible for effective management of funds and appointment of DEOs subject to broad endorsement by central authorities. It is also responsible for discussing and endorsing district Education Plans. The District Executive Director (DED) is the overseer of the maintenance of financial discipline in the district.

Ward level

The ward is the smallest administrative unit in Tanzania. A ward is made up of five 5-10 villages. Generally each village has at least one school. Each ward has one Ward Executive Secretary and one Ward Education Coordinator. The ward has been recognized as a potential structure to manage the implementation of education at the grass root level. But the institutional arrangements at this level is still weak, one of the major recommendations of the Local Government Reform is for decentralisation of educational functions to focus more on the ward.

School level

The school is the structure where all the educational inputs: children, teachers and materials, converge. It is also where the inputs are mixed for the transformation of children. The head teacher is responsible for the overall management of school. The teachers, parents, children and the school committee assist him or her. These are the critical actors at this level.

Power and decision-making

Power and decision-making in MOEVT remain heavily concentrated at the higher echelons of the organisational structure (URT, 1998). While the government in principle has agreed with the principles of decentralisation of responsibilities, powers and resources, top-down patterns of control and communication of decisions still persist with limited delegation of power and authority.

The above situation exists because there are no formal delineation of roles and responsibilities for most education managers. The roles of the Directors, REOs, Ward Education Coordinators (WECs), Head teachers, and school committees are not defined in the Education Act No. 25 of 1978. Decentralised systems do not have full autonomy in the management of financial and human resources. Such powers are either reserved at the central directorates or are wielded by the RAS or DAS.

3.4.1 Primary school management in Tanzania

The national Education Act No. 25 of 1978 and its amendments of 1995 sub-section (60) provide that every school must have a governing board of four people appointed by the Minister, five persons nominated by the school owner, the Regional Education Officer, the head of the school, one staff representative and, where applicable, an NGO Education Secretary.

The functions and responsibilities of the board include discipline of pupils, advising the owner of the school on matters relating to the management and administration of the school, bringing to the attention of the owner of the school crucial issues in the development of education, advising both the Chief Education Officer and the head teachers and establishing programmes for improving the quality of education and the welfare of the school. These functions are specific to the primary school but also apply to secondary schools. In practice, some of the school committees are weak, due to various factors, such as, poor education of some of the committee members and inadequate funds.

The head teachers are expected to run their schools according to guidelines published by the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training. The head teacher is an important actor in the whole primary education system although he holds responsibility to his school only. Head teachers report directly to the DEO. The head teacher in Tanzania has numerous tasks and roles that include: chairing school meetings, preparing school development plans, community sensitization and mobilization, monitoring school developments, information management, financial/resource mobilization and utilization, guidance and counselling, teaching-learning monitoring, professional development of teachers and their clinical supervision, and book keeping and accounting tasks.

Although the head teacher in Tanzania has these tasks and roles, his or her functions and authority are limited in terms of either imposing sanctions or giving reward to teachers especially where finances are involved because he or she must first get permission from the school committee. The head teacher has authority to decide over certain issues such as conduct and behaviour of students and teachers. However, in small and simple organisations like the school, the personal mode of control which tends to be more regularly used is that of structuring the activities of the school, because there are few hierarchical levels compared to big and complex organisations.

3.5 FACTORS INFLUENCING EDUCATIONAL CHANGES IN TANZANIA

As the Tanzanian government is increasingly implementing decentralisation policies and embraces the role of facilitation as its core role, it becomes critical to understand conditions and structures that promote change.

Lubienski (2001) examines public choice theory regarding innovation as applied to education, including market-oriented reforms that might help to understand the factors influencing educational change in Tanzania.

The public choice approach is essentially apparent in areas involving state provision of social services such as education. Lubienski (2001: 3) argues that parents choose schools for different reasons and with different preference. For example, some parents prefer boarding school to day school. Other parents prefer day schools that offer transport to their children; others prefer English medium schools to Kiswahili medium schools. By so doing the parents compel providers of education, including the state to reflect a wide range of preferences for education to satisfy the public. This consideration creates ground for educational change.

In Tanzania, for example, over almost two decades, the dominant public view has been that the quality of education has been deteriorating dramatically (URT, 2003a: 8). Consequently, some parents have been sending their children abroad to private schools in search of quality education (Chediell, Sekwao and Kirumba, 2000: 16). To win over the parents who send children abroad, education providers are compelled to establish schools that match those found abroad and which are preferred by the parents.

Indeed, in market-oriented reforms, competition is central to change. Competitiveness driven reforms aim primarily to improve economic productivity by improving the quality of labour (Carnoy, 1999: 37). The most important factor for consumers is adding value through production processes in the education system. This is associated with innovation. Lubienski (2001: 10) defines innovation as the creation of something new, or a new and substantive alteration on previous practices in the broader context of education. In Tanzania the curriculum has been reviewed and English medium primary schools as well as high cost secondary schools have been allowed, apparently to make primary and secondary education

marketable to parents who normally send their children abroad. This curriculum review is an attempt to lure these clients back to state education in Tanzania.

3.5.1 Social, political and economic factors

The shift in economic management style in mid 1980s, which gave emphasis on liberalization of key markets, called for greater private sector participation. This shift necessitated a review of the education system, which resulted into the 1995 Education and Training Policy (URT, 1995).

The policy encourages religious and other non-government organisations whose schools were nationalised to start providing private education again. Furthermore, the government introduced cost sharing in the social service provision including education where private schools were nationalised by the government between 1960s and 1970s under the slogan of free and universal public education (Chediel *et al* 2000: 9).

The previous commitment of the government to guarantee free primary education subject to community building a school was not financially feasible but created a mentality that parents should only contribute to the school construction and uniforms. Thus, the reverse policy towards cost-sharing of the 1990s caused resentment by parents as they were obliged to pay the newly re-established tuition fees, textbooks, stationery, transportation as well as all other user fees. The introduction of free primary education in 2001 through the PEDP appears to be an effort made by the government to motivate parents to send their children to school.

3.5.2 Globalisation and educational change in Tanzania

Carnoy (1999: 38) defines globalisation as increased competition among nations in a more closely intertwined international economy, a competition that is continuously enhanced by more rapid communication and computer technology and by a way of business thinking that is increasingly global rather than regional or national. Choy (2004: 2), on the other hand, defines political globalisation as increased movement of people, ideas, services, investments, commodities and other things from one country to another. Thus, the source of globalisation is business competition that has promoted free market and international business.

In view of this, globalisation is driven by competition or vice versa. Carnoy (1999: 37) underscores that the human factor is fundamental to economic activity, competitiveness and prosperity. This view shows that globalisation requires improving economic productivity by improving the quality of labour. This means educational changes should be introduced to cope with globalisation requirements. However, this also poses a 'vicious circle' dilemma. If the economy does not sustain the change, the latter cannot be improved without donor assistance. This leads to a situation where the government is also going to 'dance' according to the preferences of the donor. UNESCO (2004: 36) reporting on this situation in developing countries has this to say: "The problem linked to the preferences of donors in education aid sometimes take the form of conditions linked to objectives or procedures of management of payments of aided programme."

In Tanzania decentralisation of education is being implemented with a belief that it increases productivity in education and, hence, contributes significantly to improving the quality of a nation's human resources, largely through bringing educational decision-making close to parents' needs and giving local authority greater autonomy.

3.5.3 Donor influence

International aid agencies have played a key role in educational development in Tanzania since independence in 1961. For instance, representatives of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) had advisory functions already at independence. UNESCO and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) played an important role in advocating and designing mass education programmes before and after independence (Buchert, 1997: 11). After independence, the number of international aid agencies involved in education development greatly increased. These included Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), church organisations, and the World Bank. Their presence contributed to the large number of educational reforms, such as the functional literacy programme in 1970s as well as the primary education reform programme of 1969.

The conditions for agency participation in the development process after the national development strategy in 1967 (Socialism and Self-Reliance), was primarily seen as supplementing the government's own capacity, both in terms of resources and expertise.

From 1980s through 1990s, the government was faced with deteriorating quality of education at all levels. This included serious under funding of the whole sector, declining enrolments and retention rates at the primary level, increasing illiteracy and the lowest transition rates to secondary education in Africa (Kitaev, 1999: 14). Apparently these conditions increased the relative impact of the outside agencies in the education sector. The reliance on foreign aid and inadequate government resources has also influenced sector allocations to the education sector. Thus, not only will the Tanzanian government have to convince communities to take part in education provision and financing, but will also have to negotiate with donors who have their own preferences and do not necessarily understand the local circumstances. In analyzing policy formulation in Tanzania, Buchert (1997) points out that external experts and agency representatives have interacted differently in policy formulation process and hence in the change process.

The major contrast in the context for education policymaking in Tanzania during the 1967-1990s is the move from emphasising the formation of a socialist state and public responsibility in education to emphasising the development of a market economy, which blends public and private initiatives.

Since 1984, cost-sharing, partnership and devolution of responsibility to lower levels have been central education policy themes which have all been reinforced internationally since the conference on Education for All held in Jomtien in 1990. There has been a continuous emphasis on the need for vocational, technical and science education and training, including the development of entrepreneurial skills, with key managerial issues for the education system as a whole being those of cost, management and quality. This situation has attracted international aid agencies to interfere in education policies in the name of development partners.

The impact of international aid agencies on policy formulation and implementation is seen in their use of a wide range of co-operating ministerial partners. Different agencies have used different ministries as their entry point to working in education in Tanzania, which has increased the number of ministerial actors in the education sector. However, it should be realised that partnerships must function under the authority of the government (UNESCO, 2004: 37). This indicates that there is a need to have a strong leadership that will establish a

relationship of mutual trust and respect between national representatives and those of agencies.

3.5.4 Change process in Tanzania

Tanzania is experiencing a period of rapid political and economic change. International financial Institutions and bilateral donors heavily influence the changes. The process of change encompasses both political pluralism and economic liberalisation. In the early years reforms were highly centralised. The single party system meant weak civil society institutions and an economy largely dominated by state-owned industrial, financial and marketing monopolies. The change process was determined by the magnitude of these conditions.

Most of the changes introduced before the introduction of liberalisation policies in the country were top-down. The ESR and the Musoma resolution of 1974 that introduced Universal Primary Education are examples of top-down educational changes introduced in the country.

Tedesco (1998: 2) sums up reform processes in Tanzania by saying that the education reform process in Tanzania has always followed the same pattern. Priority has gone to institutional reform and in particular to installation of decentralisation processes and the creation of systems to measure outcomes on various levels.

In order to implement and manage sustainable changes to the Primary education sector one need to establish the particular meaningful experiences of stakeholders involved in primary education. Phenomenology as a theoretical framework underpins the Qualitative Research Approach which is specifically suitable for the purpose of investigating “lived experiences”. Thus, it is assumed that phenomenology will inform the theoretical base of educational change management practice on which the education reform is based. In the next chapter the specifics of qualitative approach and its concomitant research designs and methodology will be described in detail.

3.6 CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of chapter three was to examine the educational change process in Tanzania and identify what influences educational change in the country. The literature shows that past educational change has been influenced largely by Nyerere's philosophy of socialism and self-reliance. This philosophy puts emphasis on equal opportunity for all. Since the philosophy was conceived from above, consequently the related reforms have been top-down characterised by directives from above. Achievements made could not be sustained due to economic hardships, showing that sustainability of educational reforms in Tanzania is contingent on economic conditions.

On the other hand, current reforms in Tanzania have been influenced by worldwide reforms in socio-economic structures in developing countries that include economic liberalisation policies. Educational reforms have also been made in response to international calls, such as, the 1990 Education Summit on Education for All held in Jomtien and re-affirmed in the Dakar Year 2000 World Conference on Education.

Education reforms in Tanzania rely very much on donor assistance. Consequently, they face challenges of sustainability as donors come in with their interests. Poverty inevitably compels the country to rely on foreign aid to implement educational changes. In the light of this, the effects of educational change in primary education among different groups in the education system and its stakeholders should be investigated. Apparently the investigation requires qualitative approach.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH APPROACH, DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four provides an outline of research approach, design and methodology of the study. The first part of the chapter highlights the focus of the study and introduces the area of study. The second part presents the approach, design and data collection methods in general followed by a discussion on how the specific methodology was employed in the present study.

4.2 THE FOCUS OF THE STUDY

The study focuses on primary education sub-sector in Tanzania. The education sector consists of five sub-sectors: primary, secondary, adult, higher and vocational education. The primary education sub-sector is undergoing reform following the implementation of the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP). The study was conducted within the Ministry concerned with primary education. The Ministry headquarters, the district and the primary school areas were involved in the study to obtain data and information on the management of educational change in the primary education sub-sector.

The study is intended to explore the management of educational change in primary education in Tanzania. Apparently, this requires answers to the following three pertinent questions.

- How is educational change with regards to primary education managed in Tanzania to sustain its impact?
- What are the different roles of different stakeholders of the education reform?
- What factors underlie the success and sustainability or failure of educational change in Tanzania?

The first question seeks to establish the practice of management of educational change in Tanzania. This includes people's knowledge and experiences of the reform, their skills, behaviours and attitudes towards the reform. The value of these aspects is thus embedded in

the practice. The second question seeks to explore the participation of stakeholders in the reform and establish their response to the reform. The third question is intended to gauge the impacts of the reforms.

The Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) is being implemented in all the districts in Tanzania. However, the Whole School Development Plan (WSDP) discussed in chapter three of this study has been disseminated to 32 districts (URT, 2006c). See also section 3.3.2 of this study. The Primary Education's ongoing projects and programmes including WSDP were mainstreamed in the PEDP. It is therefore assumed that WSDP is being implemented within PEDP.

The study involved one district (Kisarawe) purposely selected because it is known for good performance in implementing WSDP. Thus, it was assumed that it would have more information than other districts in implementing primary education reform programmes including PEDP. The district level was preferred because, according to the decentralisation policies in Tanzania, this is where decentralised activities started taking place and were then shifted down towards the ward and communities. The lowest level of the government operations is the ward. In this case the study also involved wards, primary schools and communities.

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACHES

4.3.1 Overview of research approaches

Broadly there are two types of research approaches, namely quantitative research and qualitative research. The focus of quantitative research is on the quantitative and aims at testing theories that have been proposed. Qualitative research focuses on the qualitative aspects. Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004: 3) argue that qualitative studies usually aim for depth rather than breadth or quantity of understanding. Hancock (2002: 2) explains further that quantitative research is concerned with developing explanations of social phenomena. He asserts that qualitative research describes social phenomena as they occur naturally. No attempt is made to manipulate any situation under study, as is the case with experimental quantitative research. Preissle (2007: 1) summarises what is qualitative research by providing

a fourfold meaning; that is, interpretative research, and naturalistic research, phenomenological and descriptive research.

The focus of the present study clearly shows that the quantitative is not the main focus of the study as shown by the main questions of this study, which requires in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. Thus, the description of qualitative research applies to the present study which aimed at exploring the practice of individuals in dealing with educational change.

Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004: 1) provide reasons for working with either quantitative and/or qualitative approaches. They argue that the decision to work with qualitative or quantitative data is linked to the type of inquiry that a researcher conducts and what the researcher would like to find out in the inquiry will direct the researcher to use certain methods, techniques and tools.

On the other hand, Audet and Amboise (2001) point out that qualitative research approaches have traditionally been favoured when the main research objective is to improve understanding of a phenomenon, especially when the phenomenon is complex and deeply embedded in its context. This complexity has been defined by Neill (2003: 2) as the world of human experience, which requires an extensive commitment in terms of time and dedication to understand and describe.

4.3.2 The choice of qualitative research approach

The study on management of educational change requires more of a qualitative research approach, because this study focuses on the experiences of educational change by stakeholders in the primary sector. Cassell and Symon (1994:1) in Kohlbacher (2006: 9) judge qualitative methods to be very appropriate to research questions focusing on organisational process, outcomes and trying to understand both individual and group experiences of work. Accordingly, organisational dynamics and change are major areas of interest in organisational research where qualitative methods are sensitive enough to allow the detailed analysis of change in terms of what processes were involved or in terms of circumstances.

The qualitative approach applies to qualities of entities and processes. Thus, the qualitative approach is suitable for the present study that focuses on the qualities of the educational change process. Neill (2003: 2) supports the use of qualitative approach and says, “A major strength of the qualitative approach is the depth to which explorations are conducted and descriptions are written, usually resulting in sufficient details for the reader to grasp the idiosyncrasies of the situation”.

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGNS

Hartely (2004) in Kohlbacher (2006: 5) define a research design as an argument for the logical steps which will be taken to link research questions and issues to data collection, analysis and interpretation in a coherent way.

Neill (2003: 2) delineated five main types of qualitative research designs: case study, grounded theory, phenomenology, ethnography and historical research. This section discusses four types of qualitative research designs that have great bearing to the focus of the current study with a view to alienate a suitable type of qualitative research design for the present study.

Preissle (2007) provides characteristics of qualitative research design models that elicit all data in the form of descriptive narratives, such as, field notes, recording or transcriptions from audio and video tapes and other written records, including pictures and films. These characteristics show that qualitative design includes exploratory, descriptive and contextual designs.

Exploratory research design seeks to find out how people get along in the setting under question, what meaning they give to their actions and what issues concern them (Wikipedia, 2007). Therefore, an exploratory research design is suitable for this study that seeks to reveal how employees and administrators as well as other stakeholders participate in implementing educational change, that is, the implementation of PEDP and its concomitant processes.

Descriptive design: It is said that descriptive research is the most commonly used qualitative design because it helps to identify the cause of something that is happening (Wikipedia, 2007). In the present study, it is therefore suitable for finding out what makes educational

reforms in Tanzania succeed or fail. Thus it becomes necessary to have a detailed description of how the implementation of PEDP has been accepted and experienced by the people at grassroots level.

Contextual design: Good (1989) asserts that the context is important in understanding human behaviour. Furthermore, contextual interviews reveal consumers' ongoing experiences of a system. In the present study the context in which educational change is implemented is very important in understanding the extent to which stakeholders performed different roles assigned to them. This study is furthermore context-bound as it sets out to reflect on Tanzania's education system in general and its Primary Education sector in particular.

Phenomenology: Hancock (1998: 4) defines phenomenology as the study of phenomena. He explains further that phenomenology is a way of describing something that exists as part of the world in which we live. Accordingly, phenomena may be events, situations, experiences or concepts. Neill (2003: 2) points out that a phenomenological study describes the structures of experience as they present themselves to consciousness, without recourse to theory, deduction, or assumptions from other disciplines. This description is convincing for the present study that, among others, focuses on people's knowledge, attitudes and behaviours about reforms.

According to Lester (2005: 1) the purpose of the phenomenological approach is to illuminate and identify the phenomena through how they are perceived by actors in a situation. Hancock (1998: 4) elaborates that we are surrounded by many phenomena, which we are aware of but not fully understand. Our lack of understanding of these phenomena may exist because the phenomena has not been overtly described and explained or our understanding of the impact it makes may not be clear. For example, in the current study it is known that the Primary Education sector has been implementing PEDP. But how has it been implemented and what does the intended change mean to the people in terms of experiences? Thus, phenomenological research is said to begin with the acknowledgement that there is a gap in our understanding and that clarification or illumination will be of beneficial. Clearly phenomenological study will not necessarily provide definitive explanations but it does raise awareness and increases insight.

Phenomenological study requires a good rapport and empathy of the researcher in order to gain depth information for illustrating or describing well the corresponding phenomena. Accordingly, Lester (2005: 2) provides a variety of methods that can be applied in phenomenological study such as the present one. The methods include; interviews, conservations, participant or situation observation, focus group interviews and analysis of personal texts.

Whittaker, (1996: 310) argues in the same line and point out that qualitative methods are suited to describing phenomenological perspectives of people through the generation of rich detailed accounts which leave participants intact. However, it is argued that any exploration of phenomenology as a research method needs to be set in wider context of research paradigm shift. The research paradigm change concerns major shifts in the way knowledge is constructed and created. What Henning et al (2004: 19) calls ‘interpretivism’ as opposed to ‘positivism’ as elaborated in section 4.5.4 of this study.

One of the critical constraints in phenomenological study is said to include time and opportunities to strike a balance between keeping a focus on the study issues and avoiding undue biases of the researcher. In the present study the researcher avoided biases as described in section 4.5.6. Inevitably phenomenological research generate a large quantity of interview notes, tape recording, jottings or other records all of which have to be analysed. In the present study the quantity of the information collected was adequately analysed through several steps (See section 4.5.5).

In this study the aim was inter alia a subjective account of the stakeholders’ unique experiences of implementation of the PEDP. To use phenomenology as part of the theoretical framework for this study is to explore the meaningfulness behind the management of educational changes. The ‘lived experiences’ of people involved in Primary Education in Tanzania, particularly focussing on the changing environment in Primary Education as a result of the implementation of the PEDP form part of the key elements of this study.

4.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY FOR THIS STUDY

This section describes the study methods in relation to the research designs that include selection of participants, strategies for data collection, presentation, analysis and discussion. The section also provides procedures for maintaining validity and reliability in data collected.

4.5.1 The population of the study

The population of this study included all the stakeholders involved in the implementation of the Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP), namely; Ministry of Education and Vocational Training officials, primary education leaders, teachers, students and parents.

4.5.2 Selection of participants for the current study

Hancock (1998: 3) points out that, qualitative sampling techniques are concerned with seeking rich information from specific groups and sub groups in the population. Since the present study is qualitative, the selection of respondents was not done according to a probabilistic sampling method as would have been in Quantitative Research. Merriam (1998: 61) in Audet and Amboise (2004: 4) supports this when he argues that probabilistic sampling is not appropriate or even justifiable in qualitative research. On the other hand, Henning (2004: 71) says that in selecting research participants the driving consideration should be getting relevant people who can talk about what they do and in the process, provide rich data.

Warren (2002: 87) in Henning *et al* (2004: 71) mentions three approaches to sampling: theoretical sampling, snowball sampling and convenience sampling. Henning *et al* (ibid.) add a fourth approach called purposive sampling which she says has elements of theoretical sampling and explain further that theoretical sampling requires most suitable people who are the spokespersons for the topic of inquiry. Respondents selected purposively are not representation of a population and the findings from the interviews cannot be generalised to a population. Snowball sampling is a technique in which data collected thus far indicate which other interviewees are needed. All the above-mentioned approaches require suitable people to respond at the time they are needed.

In this study purposeful sampling was mainly employed. The sample of participants was drawn from eight categories of people in the primary education sub-sector, namely, heads of primary schools and teachers, Ward Education Officers, District Education Officers and Primary Education Administrators at the Ministry headquarters as well as parents and pupils. The school heads and administrators were included in the study because they hold key positions in the primary education sub-sector and thus their experiences might be different to those who are at the lower levels of the Education Sector. According to Peil, Mitchell and Rimmer (1982: 102), people's attitudes and behaviours are often a result of their position in the society. Thus, it was assumed that the administrators and heads of schools would provide reliable information as far as management of educational change in primary education sub-sector was concerned.

4.5.3 Selection of specific participants

The participants were drawn from eight categories of people in the primary education sub-sector. The participants included educational officials, teachers, parents and students. Section 4.5.3 describes the characteristics of the participants.

The educational officials

Two Ministry officials were purposely selected for the study: the Director of Primary Education Sub-sector and the Co-ordinator for the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) based in the Ministry headquarter. The age of the Director was 50 years at the time of the study and she had worked in the Ministry for more than ten years. The PEDP coordinator was 45 years old with work experience of more than 15 years.

Other educational officials involved in the study were: one Regional Education Officer, three District Education Officers and eight Ward Education Supervisors (six were women). Each of the officials had experience of five to 20 years and was aged between 30 to 50 years. The educational officials were interviewed to obtain information on their participation in the primary education change process, their readiness for educational change experiences and how PEDP implementation has fared.

The teachers

The teachers included the head teacher and ordinary teachers. Eight head teachers and sixteen ordinary teachers were involved in the study. Each participant had experience of five to 20 years aged between 25 and 55 years. In total there were 18 women and 14 men.

Firstly, two focus group interviews were conducted with teachers to highlight their experiences in implementing the educational reform. These interviews were supplemented by individual in-depth interviews. The latter were used to allow the head teacher and other teachers to report their experiences and reflections in their own terms.

The parents

Eight parents who had children in the primary schools were involved in the study: four fathers and four mothers aged between 36 and 50 years. The parents were interviewed to obtain information on their knowledge of primary education reform and their role in implementing primary education reforms, specifically the PEDP.

The students

Sixteen primary school students participated in the study: eight were girls and eight were boys, all from standard five and six. Their ages ranged between 11 and 14 years. Two focus group interviews were held with the students to collect information on their awareness of PEDP and the benefits accrued during PEDP implementation. Table 5.1 shows the number of responses with respect to the participants of the study. In total, seven focus group interviews and 26 individual interviews were conducted.

The number of participants depended on the number of key people at each level. However, it should be understood that the number is not very important. What is important is the depth of getting rich data (Henning, 2004: 3). Thus, the sample size of 62 respondents of eight categories of people is assumed to be effective for the current study as they all produced very rich data when analysed (See chapter 5 section 5.3)

Table 4.1: Sample Size

CATEGORIES OF PEOPLE	Ministry Officials	REO	DEOs	WECs	HTS	Teachers	Parents	Students	Total
NUMBER	2	1	3	8	8	16	8	16	62

- REO – Regional Education Officer
- DEOs – District Education Officers
- WECs – Ward Education Coordinators
- HTS – Head teachers

4.5.4 Specific data collection methods used in this study

This section discusses the data collection methods that were applied in qualitative research and specific methods that were used in the present study.

A variety of data collection methods can be used in qualitative research, including interviews, conversations, observation, focus group interviews and review of documents. Henning *et al* (2004: 5) elaborate on categories of data collection: “In qualitative studies the analytical instrument is largely the researcher”. This means the researcher should be well versed with qualitative methods. Henning *et al* (ibid) provide three categorises of data gathering in qualitative research: observation, artefacts and document studies as well as interviewing. Henning *et al* (2004: 19) show that there has been a shift away from positivism to ‘interpretivism’. She elaborates that in the past the studies were mostly descriptive, trying to present the reality of participants from their own views while today it is assumed that knowledge is constructed not only by observable phenomena, but also by descriptions of people’s intuitions, beliefs, values, reasons, meaning-making and self-understanding. Methodological implications include unstructured observations, open interviews and idiographic descriptions (ibid: 20).

Neill (2003:2) groups qualitative data collection into three main types: interactive interviewing where people are asked to verbally describe their experiences of phenomena, written descriptions by participants where people are asked to write descriptions of their experiences of phenomenon and observation.

Hancock (1998:9) maintains that qualitative approaches to data collection usually involve direct interaction with individuals on a one to one basis or in a group setting. The benefits of using these approaches include richness of data and deeper insight into the phenomena under study. Specifically this study employed the following four methods:

Observation

In this study, observation was applied to obtain information about the behaviour of reform implementers. Techniques for collecting data through observations included written description of day-to-day activities undertaken by different stakeholders, including their work environment.

Observation is defined as descriptive observations of verbal and non-verbal behaviour (Neill, 2003:2). However, it is argued that not all qualitative data collection approaches require direct interaction with people (Hancock, 1998:11). Observation also serves as a technique for verifying or nullifying information provided in face-to-face encounters.

In this study the observation was done using an observation schedule (See Appendix H). The observation was made two schools. The head teacher was observed the whole day to confirm the extent of his/her involvement in academic and non-academic activities. Furthermore, the observation made in the school was intended to confirm the information obtained during the interview with the head teacher, teachers and students

Structured interviews

Interviews can be highly structured, semi structured or unstructured. Structured interviews consist of the interviewer asking each respondent the same questions in the same way (Henning *et al*, 2004: 59). Structured interviews were preferred in this study because they are easier to prepare and manage while at the same time providing detailed information on the problems raised.

Hancock (1998: 10) argues that the interview schedule should not be too tightly structured to enable the phenomena under investigation to be explored in breadth or depth. Structured interviews are said to work well when the interviewer has already identified a number of aspects he wants to be sure of addressing. The structured interviews together with field notes

were used to obtain information on the areas of focus in this study. (See Appendices C, D and E).

Focus group interviews (FGI)

This method is useful in obtaining in-depth qualitative information about groups' perceptions, attitudes and experiences on a defined topic. Focus group interviews are also used to discover what users want from the system, their thoughts and preferences (Nielsen, 1997). Hancock (1998: 10) argues that group interactions among participants have the potential for greater insights to be developed. There are several characteristics of focus groups that make them meaningful. These include:

- One group is not enough for any study. At least three focus groups can be convened. There is no upper limit on the number of focus groups interviews that could be held although this will be limited by resources.
- The members of the group should have something in common, characteristics, which is important to the topic of investigation.

In this study seven focus group interviews were used (see Table 5.1) to collect qualitative information on participant's feelings, perceptions and opinions as regards educational change in primary education sub-sector in Tanzania.

Documentation

Tellis (1997: 7) define documents as communications between parties in the study the researcher being a vicarious observer. He observes that to avoid being misled by documents, the researcher needs to know that not all documents are reliable in order to be careful with misleading documents.

Documents could be letters, memoranda, agendas, administrative documents, newspaper articles, or any document that is germane to the investigation. The documents serve to corroborate the evidence from other sources. Documents can also be useful for making references about events. Hancock (1997: 13) admits that there is a wide range of written

materials that can produce qualitative information. These include policy documents, mission statements, annual reports, minutes of meetings, notice boards and so forth. He asserts that written materials are particularly useful in trying to understand the philosophy of an organisation as may be required in action research and case studies.

In this study the following documents were reviewed: policy documents on primary education, guidelines and procedures on PEDP implementation, as well as implementation reports of primary education reform. The documentary review was used to obtain information on the primary education change management process and implementation status.

4.5.5 Presentation of data, analysis and discussion

In this study data collected were transcribed and subjected to a series of procedures, including analysis of content and themes of narrative responses. Transcribing is the procedure for producing a verbatim version of the interview (Hancock, 1998: 14). Documented data were grouped together to show trends of educational change management process in Tanzania over the years.

Analysis of data included inductive analysis that means interpreting the transcribed data. Content analysis was made on condensed and grouped content. Henning *et al* (2004: 109) support the use of content analysis and argue, “Content analysis is an important tool and the template from which synthesis of data can be made to create a new whole”. Thus, the trends, patterns and the content formed the basis for discussions, conclusions and recommendations.

4.5.6 The role of the researcher

The main instrument in qualitative studies is the researcher (Henning, 2004: 6). However, Peslikin (1998) in Kilbourn (2006: 9) suggests that it is important to be aware of ones subjective selves and the role that this subjective self plays in research since being aware is better than assuming we can get rid of the subjectivity.

Being aware of my subjective self in this study, I was aware of the qualities that enhanced my research and those that could have skewed my interpretation of data if I were not aware of them. My personal history includes more than 25 years of service as a secondary school

teacher and teacher trainer including leadership roles in the teacher education department in the ministry headquarters. These qualities could have biased my interpretation of data if I were not aware of them. Eisner (1988) in Kilbourn (2006: 9) elaborates that the way in which we see and respond to a situation, and how we interpret what we see will bear our own signature. This unique signature should not be a bias but a way of providing individual into a situation.

In this study I realised that the language and active listening skills I had previously developed in my leadership roles were very applicable to interview settings. However, moving from my personal experiences as a teacher and education administrator to a situation of listening to educational explanations given by teachers and the other participants, apparently affected my analysis and interpretation.

4.6 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY IN DATA COLLECTION

4.6.1 Validity

Validity is the extent to which a measurement measures what it is supposed to measure and reliability is the extent to which a measurement procedure yields the same results on repeated trials in a qualitative study (Carmines and Zeller, 1979).

Most of the literature shows that validity can be classified into two areas, namely, content and construct validity. The content validity refers to consensus of the community of scholars on a particular instrument on whether or not is appropriate to measure a particular entity. Construct validity refers to the extent to which a measure relates to other measures consistent with theoretically derived hypothesis concerning the concepts being measured (Carmines and Zeller, 1979: 1).

However, Henning *et al* (2004: 147) elaborate the term validity more qualitatively by saying, “We ask the question whether, by using certain methods, we are investigating what we say we are investigating.” By saying this Henning *et al* (*ibid.*) refer to the trustworthiness of the research and its findings. She elaborates further that the truth has to correspond with reality, be coherent and have pragmatic utility. She argues that validity in research has to be assessed by the three criteria. She concludes that validity subsumes reliability.

Since the approach of the current study was mostly qualitative, the validity and reliability of the study were based on the foregoing definition provided by Henning *et al* (2004).

4.6.2 Validity and reliability of data collected

In this study reliability was maintained by checking the procedures and documentation so that they are precise. Data collection was done bottom-up, starting from school level to ministry level. It was assumed that this model would provide an opportunity to check precisely the information provided by participants at different levels, thus assuring validity in data and information collection.

Triangulation of data and information was made to cross-check the validity and reliability of data collected. Triangulation of methods is the use of a variety of data collection methods and sources (Henning *et al* 2004: 103). This includes data and information collected from different sources and methods which are crosschecked by the use of member checks and verbatim quotes of transcribed interviews to maintain their validity and reliability. Any information or data that was inconsistent or doubtful was discarded.

In this study the following measures were taken to ensure trustworthiness. More than one method was used to gather data, such as, structured interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis. Furthermore, member checks were performed by making the report available to the participants for comments. Both individual and focus group interviews were tape recorded and transcribed verbatim. The evidence provided was prudently assessed and alternative explanations were given for patterns discovered.

4.7 CONCLUSIONS

In this chapter the qualitative research approach, design and methodology were presented. The main area of the study includes the primary education sub-sector. The participants have been selected purposely. Because the study focuses on the primary education sub-sector, the population of the study included stakeholders of primary education, namely the Ministry officials in the primary education department, the regional and district officials concerned

with primary education, ward education coordinators, the primary school head teachers, parents, teachers and students.

The literature showed that qualitative research was suitable for the present study which is concerned with the experiences of stakeholders with regard to the management of educational change in Tanzania, which is a social phenomenon.

Clearly the choice for qualitative study is linked to the type of inquiry that a researcher conducts. Qualitative methods were found suitable to the present study, which also focused on organisational process, outcomes and an understanding of individual and group experiences of implementing educational change in Tanzania. One of the main concerns of this study was to describe the experiences of the people involved in the management of educational changes in the Primary Education Sector in Tanzania and on the basis of their experiences decide on the successfulness of the PEDP implementation. For this purpose the researcher felt that the qualitative methodologies used served the aim of the study adequately.

The selection of respondents was done purposely to include relevant people who are involved in implementing primary education activities. These include key stakeholders in the primary education sub-sector ranging from teachers, managers, department officials, parents and students.

The research design of this study can be described as exploratory, contextual and phenomenological by nature. The data collection methods are discussed from a theoretical perspective and a description is given of actual methods used in the present study. These include individual interviews, focus group interviews, observations and document analysis.

The validity and reliability in data collections rely on being precise in the methodology and member checks. The use of more than one method is intended to crosscheck the trustworthiness of the data collected.

Procedures for data presentation, analysis and discussions are discussed. The procedures include tape recording of interviews, verbatim transcribing and qualitative data according to emergent categories. Content analysis is one of the procedures used for analysing condensed

and grouped content. The discussions, conclusions and recommendations were made on the basis of determined trends, and patterns, which emerged from the findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the key research findings, as a result of the data analysis and discusses the implications of the findings on the management of educational change in the primary education sub-sector in Tanzania. The presentation is done in four main sections based on the research questions. The aim of the research questions was to guide data collection. The presentation of the data analysis under three broad categories follows hereunder.

- The process of educational change in primary education sub-sector in Tanzania.
- The participation and roles of different stakeholders on the education reform.
- Factors that underlie the success and sustainability or failure of educational change in Tanzanian primary schools.

The three broad categories were synthesized from the specific research questions set to guide the research (See Section 1.6). The broad categories were preferred because of the nature of qualitative data that involves huge amounts of raw data or information. The broad categories were used in data analysis process to sub-divide the huge amounts of raw information. However, the data analysis was done to answer all the research questions as presented in the coming sections.

It should be realised that in contrast to quantitative research methods, qualitative research focuses on the exploration of values, meanings, beliefs, thoughts, experiences, and feelings characteristics of the phenomena under investigation (Wong, 2008: 1). In this regard, qualitative research, work with an emergent research design and does not necessarily have to rigidly refer to initial questions posed. Indeed, the initial research questions stated in the chapter one (see section 1.6) were meant to merely guide the research and not to form part of the findings from the open-ended questions asked in the interviews. Indeed, qualitative research does not use concepts such as hypothesis and assumptions, nor using direct causal links to specific questions as asked during interviews. Neill (2006) argue in the same line that phenomenological qualitative research design such as the one used in this study (see section

4.4) describes the structures of experiences as they present themselves to consciousness without recourse to theory, deductions, assumptions from other fields.

The process of analysing the qualitative data pre-dominantly involved categorising the data. Basically it involved making sense of huge amounts of raw information followed by identifying significant patterns and finally drawing meaning from data and subsequently building a logical chain of evidence based on the research questions.

5.2 PARTICIPANTS AND DATA COLLECTED

The participants drawn from eight categories of people in the primary education sub-sector included educational officials, teachers, parents and students. Table 5.1 shows the type of participants and data collected.

Table 5.1 Number of responses

TYPE OF PARTICIPANTS	NUMBER OF FGIs	NUMBER OF INTERVIEWS
Ministry officials	0	2
Regional Education Officer	0	1
District Education Officers	0	3
Ward Education Supervisors	1	2
Teachers	2	8
Head teachers	0	8
Parents	2	2
Students	2	0
TOTAL	7	26

The Focus Group Interviews (FGIs) involved four categories of purposely selected participants namely, Ward Education Supervisors, Teachers, Parents and Students (See section 4.5.2). These categories involved more than five participants (See Table 4.1). In this case the FGIs were efficient in taping qualitative information or data from many people at a time (See Section 4.5.3). The in-depth interviews worked well with categories of few participants namely, Ministry officials, Regional Education Officer, District Education Officers and the head teachers.

5.3 MAIN CATEGORIES EMANATED FROM THE DATA ANALYSIS

The data were transcribed and analysis of content and themes of narrative responses was made. After the data obtained from interviews, observations and document analysis had been transcribed, the transcripts were read repeatedly to identify answers to the questions and narratives. The answers and narratives were read carefully focusing on the purpose of the study. Rough categories of answers were sorted into broad categories and sub-categories, grouping those that seemed to belong together. The following broad categories with their sub-categories emerged as presented below.

5.3.1 Factors that influenced change in the primary education sub-sector

This study explored the views of educational leaders, teachers, pupils and parents on the educational change process in primary education in Tanzania.

From the personal accounts provided in the interviews and in the group discussions, the government was identified as the main source of educational change in the country. However, there were other conditions that promote change such as those discussed in the public choice theory (Lubienski, 2001) presented in chapter two of this study which include: social, political and economic factors. This means that the government has monopoly in the provision of education. These findings confirm other findings from the country which indicate that, in Tanzania, the government monopolized the provision of primary education since independence (Kitaev, 1999: 43).

The foregoing discussions also show that educational changes were top-down. The reasons for the reform were viewed differently from the viewpoints of the school site stakeholders and the educational leaders. The educational leaders at the headquarters identified the source of educational change as the response of the government to the international call for Education for All. This finding confirms the general contention that change can be influenced by change taking place elsewhere as discussed in section 2.3 of this study.

5.3.2 The process of educational change in the primary sub-sector.

The educational change process in Tanzania was planned as discussed in chapter 3 of this study. The Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) was the focus of this study. Like other planned reforms, the PEDP was also a planned educational change. The present study sought information on how the educational change was conceived and communicated to the other stakeholders for implementation. The following sections provide evidence on the process of PEDP implementation.

5.3.2.1 Preparations for PEDP implementation

The present study sought information on how educational change was conceived and communicated to the other stakeholders for implementation.

In-depth interviews with the educational officials at the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (MOEVT) revealed that education reforms in the primary education sub-sector were developed by a team involving external teams and internal teams consisting of members of the donor community. The team generally conceives the reform design and develops the principles, implementation strategies and materials to be used in the reform process. Explaining why donors come in from the start, an official at the Ministry had this to say, “All education reforms need funding from outside to implement them, so donors have to agree on what you want to reform before they give you funds to implement the reform”. The explanation given is evidence that the reform was influenced by donors as well.

In the case of the PEDP, the discussions with the two Ministry Officials revealed that the team had prepared the plan which was finally presented to the World Bank for funding. When the funds were made available, preparations started. These involved preparation of guidelines and directives for implementation. A coordinating team was formed, which provided training to regional and district education leadership to implement the reform. One official explained that the district leadership was purposely focused to implement the reform because the district was the point on which decentralisation focuses according to the decentralisation policies implemented in the country (as described elsewhere in chapter three of this study).

The review of documents indicates specifically that basic education was being decentralized as elaborated in one of the documents as follows:

All basic education based interventions are gradually being realised to correspond With the Local Government reform system The new Local Government System is based on political devolution, decentralization of functions and Finances within the framework of a unitary state (URT, 2001a: 9)

5.3.2.2 Awareness of the reform

Knowledge has an influence on attitudes, which, in turn, has an influence on the actual practices that take place. Many meaningful actions in human behaviour have a motive or attitude attached to them. Thus, participation of stakeholders in the change process was dependent on the understanding of the change. This study explored the views of stakeholders, teachers, students and parents to capture indicators of perception and understanding of the PEDP.

The general findings indicated that broad awareness of the PEDP was high with more than 90 percent of participants recalling having read or heard of the educational reform. However, awareness of the objectives of the reform was limited, yet the majority of the participants conceded that the PEDP was likely to improve education in Tanzania.

One of the head teachers, when responding to how PEDP has helped to solve educational problems, had this to say:

For sure PEDP has solved a lot of problems. We had problems of low enrolments, now it is solved. There was a problem of dilapidated school buildings, now we have new classroom buildings. We did not have enough textbooks now we have enough supply

The PEDP Coordinator at the Ministry headquarters had similar feelings,

A lot have been done through PEDP but not all problems were solved through, especially quality related problem such as teacher commitment and motivation. The coming PEDP 2 will try to solve these problems.

These findings show that the participants were aware of the quantitative achievements made through the reform.

School visits also revealed that simple ways of raising awareness and disseminating information were practised in most schools. These included publishing information on school notice boards and the head teachers' office notice boards which were also observed by the researcher during school visits.

The review of literature revealed that information sharing is an important aspect in the management of educational change. Leaders need to share detailed information with those under them regarding change of policy including financial guidelines.

The findings through in-depth interviews with head teachers indicated that they rarely shared detailed information on school finances with ordinary teachers. These views were also echoed by teachers during the focus group interviews. One of the teachers explained that the head teachers were not transparent on financial matters because they feared that their bad financial management practices might be exposed. Another teacher insisted that, "If you want to quarrel with your head teacher, just ask her about school finances". These findings indicate that the head teachers did not share all information in the implementation of the reform.

This study also revealed that there was laxity in disseminating change information. During school visits in two schools, it was observed that the PEDP reports and newsletters which were meant to inform the community about the intended change were still lying in the head teacher's office a few months before the end of the PEDP plan period (July 2007).

When one of the head teachers was asked about what she was doing with the materials, she said in short; "I don't know what to do with the materials. Whoever wants them can take them". At the national level this was not the case. On the contrary, at the MOEVT headquarter bureaucracy was encountered when requesting documented information. When the researcher asked for reports on implementation of the PEDP, one official started by saying, "The document is still a draft I am not allowed to distribute the document". Studies done elsewhere (SNV, 2004: 4) also reveal that at village level in Tanzania, it is

difficult to access information for villagers and guiding documents, when available, are seldom made accessible by leaders.

Thus, sharing of information about reforms was met with obstacles emanating from bureaucratic tendencies in Tanzania.

5.3.2.3 Readiness for the reform

The current study looked into the extent to which the stakeholders were ready to implement the reform. This section provides the findings from each category of people involved in the study, namely the ministry officials, regional officials, district officials, teachers, students and community members.

MOEVT officials: The two Ministry officials interviewed revealed that the officials were satisfied with the government commitment to the reform. One of the officials explained that from the start the government had cleared what could have been obstacles to the reform implementation. She added that the government was ready for the reform as soon as the agreement was signed between the government and the donor. The education officials at national level recognised the importance of developing guides, manuals and directives for implementing the reform and training of implementers of the reform. One of the officials at the Ministry emphasized on this point by saying,

It is the role of the Ministry to make sure that PEDP activities are implemented as planned. So it is important to provide guidelines and Circulars but also make sure that they are understood.

From this statement it is evident that PEDP was top-down reform. The review of documents also revealed the same. One of the reviewed documents put it as follows: “Attempts to involve regions, districts and communities in the management and administration of education and training in their areas of jurisdiction are wanting yet, effective management of educational training institutions necessitates community involvement” (URT, 2003b: 8).

District educational officials: The interviews with regional and district officials show that guidelines, circulars and manuals for implementing the PEDP were explained to officials during training conducted by the Ministry officials. The officials participated in three

training workshops on the implementation of the reform. Most educational officials at district and regional level received many directives for implementing the reform. The district officials were satisfied to see that funds for implementation of the reform were sent through their offices and to schools. This practice bound them to implement the reform.

At MOEVT one official noted that the implementation of the PEDP needed capacity building from the national to school levels and more importantly, to the district level which was the main focus point of decentralisation policy. The policy states as follows: ‘The local government will be holistic. That is, multi-sector government units with status. They have the responsibility for social development and public service provision within their jurisdiction’ (URT, 2001a: 17). However, evidence from the interviews shows that the officials at the district level were overloaded as the district was also in the process of reform.

One of the DEOs confirmed these findings by saying that, “It was not easy to make proper follow-up of PEDP implementation because there were many things happening at a time. The district was engaged in improving other sectors as well apart from the education sector and I was also involved in monitoring of implementation of activities in other sectors such as agriculture, water and communications”.

It is evident that since several different sector reforms converged at the district, the capacity building for educational officials was inadequate for both co-ordination and implementation. One of the district education officials said, “We were taken through the guidelines and directives for implementing PEDP, but these were not the only ones because there were other programmes going on in the districts so it was not easy to remember some of the directives.” These findings show that the guidelines and directives did not inform the reform implementers sufficiently at the district level.

The teachers: Given the importance of the teacher’s role in the educational change process, the study explored how the primary education reform motivated teachers to participate in the change process. During focus group interviews the participants were probed regarding their readiness for implementing the PEDP.

Educational change management as described in chapter two of this study is centred on the classroom teacher (See section 2.15). Thus, the teacher should be well informed of reform and remunerated in accordance with his or her role as the key stakeholder in sustainable

educational change. However, from the focus interviews held with teachers, not much was done to ensure teachers were well informed. Not all the teachers were fully informed about the PEDP (See section 3.3.3).

Regarding the role of teachers in implementation of PEDP, a teacher said,

PEDP is a government plan for making sure that all school age children go to school. Therefore, the government does most of the things. For example, the new classroom buildings you see were built through funds from government. Our role as teachers is to teach as usual.

These findings indicate that the PEDP was not well understood by the primary school teachers. Furthermore, they were not aware of their roles. Inevitably this situation adversely affected their participation in implementing the PEDP.

While many teachers demonstrated a keen interest in exploring new ideas and acknowledged the efforts made by senior management in facilitating the implementation of the PEDP, low work place morale emerged as a key concern of the teachers. Problems concerning resources were often mentioned by the teachers. Most participants were notably critical when evaluating the endeavours directed at teacher motivation and development. A teacher said, “...to me PEDP has no profit instead it has brought us problems”.

The discussions with the teachers revealed that the majority of the teachers recognised that the PEDP implementation relied very much on directives. Teachers also reported that PEDP has increased their workload because the number of students increased without an increase in teachers.

These findings confirm the national statistics, which shows that in 2006 the teacher-student ratio (PTR) was 1:52 against the targeted PTR of 1:40 (URT, 2006a). Similar findings were also reported in the 2006 PEDP review, which noted that the dialogue in the education sector had not been satisfactory (URT, 2006c: 20).

It is clear from the findings that the PEDP has concentrated more on quantitative indicators and has given less emphasis to qualitative indicators such as job satisfaction of teachers.

Indeed, the review of PEDP monitoring reports for the whole period of PEDP implementation shows that the focus of the Ministry was on status of enrolments, construction, physical facilities, financial management and capacity building. The literature shows that supportive capacity building for participation and decentralised levels are the key to sustainable educational change management. Thus, it is concluded that the support given to teachers was inadequate to enable them to implement and sustain the reform achievements.

The head teacher: Unlike the teachers, most head teachers acknowledged that seminars had been a significant source of information on the PEDP, apart from the guidelines, circulars, directives and mass media (newsletters, radio and television). During the interviews the head teachers indicated that they were satisfied about the way the PEDP had been communicated to them. Many head teachers were more informed about PEDP than the regular teachers. However, the information was not extended to the other teachers. As indicated in section 5.3.4, the head teachers were reluctant to share managerial information with teachers instead they gave directives to the teachers.

One teacher described the head teacher's management style by saying:

Normally when our head teacher arrives back from seminars, she never shares details of the seminar with us. Instead she calls a meeting and start outlining directives from above.

Probing revealed that the directives related to the PEDP included: introduction of a double shift, abolition of parents' contributions and abolition of tuition fees in schools. These findings indicate that from its inception the PEDP did not give due emphasis to the needs of teachers, instead the PEDP became a personal issue of the head teacher.

The community members: The information was collected through individual interviews and focus group interviews. The participants were asked how they had received educational reform information. The participants indicated that on the whole community members received PEDP information through the mass media. The members admitted that when they received the information about PEDP, they understood it as a stand-alone programme distinguishable from other educational programmes being implemented in the country. Indeed, during interviews and discussions the participants spoke of PEDP as a stand-alone

programme. For example, they talked about PEDP classrooms, PEDP books, PEDP teachers and so forth. One of the parents concluded by saying, “PEDP has its owners”.

The community members were also asked how capacity building for implementing the educational reform was done. The interviews with the school committee chairpersons indicated that capacity building was done for the school committees but its impact was evidently not felt as disclosed by the parents during focus group interviews. The following response illustrates the issue, “Whenever there is something new to be implemented by the community, we are called by our leaders in a meeting and we are told what to do. We were told that the government has decided to improve primary education and all school children have to be in school and that there will be no school contributions.”

These findings show that local leaders adopt pre-packaged reform models. Studies elsewhere (Tharp, Hillberg and Epaloose 1999: 2) reveal that when local leaders do not distinguish educational change from broader socio cultural contexts including the effects of capacity building, self-determination and nationhood, such reforms fail because they are disconnected from the educational needs and the realities experienced by the communities. It is evident that at community level the PEDP was not well understood. This conclusion confirms the PEDP monitoring reports (URT, 2004b: 5, Davidson, 2004) which show that the community members are unsure about how they are supposed to implement the PEDP.

Students: The study investigated students’ knowledge about the PEDP to establish the extent of preparation made prior to the implementation of PEDP. The students were asked whether or not they had received information on the PEDP and how they experienced this information. The general trend was that most students had received information on the PEDP. The participants discussed the sources of information which, revealed that the most common source was speeches by leaders broadcast on radio and television.

During focus group interviews, the students were further asked to give their views on the supply of resources to their school. All the students noted the supply of new classrooms, textbooks and desks. This confirms reports from other sources that the PEDP concentrated on quantitative aspects, which were acquired and sustained with the help of donors.

5.3.2.4 Implementation of PEDP

The present study sought to unveil the primary obstacles to the implementation of primary education reforms in Tanzania and the conditions necessary for their implementation. Data and information were solicited from each category of participants involved in the study as follows.

Educational officials: Education leaders at the headquarters and the district level revealed that they viewed that the key to successful implementation of educational change in Tanzania depended on an understanding of the directives and guidelines for implementation provided by the headquarters. However, experience shows reference to existing guides and regulations in implementing educational reforms in Tanzania is rarely practised.

Experience in Tanzania shows that the task of reform implementation is the exclusive prerogative of the government and those it charges to assist in the task. However, as argued in Section 2.14, reform implementation requires people with required knowledge, attitudes, skills, values and dispositions. In addition, reform implementation has to do with the presence of an enabling environment to render resources productive and effective. It is concluded that the educational leaders' belief that implementation of educational reforms depends on an understanding of the guidelines and circulars is an erroneous conception of successful reform implementation.

Teachers: Given the many responsibilities of teachers, most teachers in Tanzania never participate positively in the implementation of educational reform activities in the school or outside the school. True participation of teachers was examined by observing their knowledge; attitudes and involvement in the school and determining to what extent they were positively involved in education reform in totality (See section 2.15).

Firstly, teachers were asked to relate the information they had received about the PEDP and their participation in the implementation of the reform during focus group interviews. Teachers perceived positively the relationship between the information received and their participation in implementing planned educational change. However, the teachers did not believe that knowledge on the educational change was ultimately necessary for successful

implementation of educational change because educational reforms were controlled by directives and guidelines from their head teachers.

When probed further, a teacher elaborated on adherence to directives and guidelines:

In any change introduced we get directives and guidelines to follow. If you don't follow them you will quarrel with the school Inspectors who monitor implementation of the change introduced.

These findings reveal a sense of artificiality in assuming new roles by the teachers. When the teachers were asked how they coped with the situation, one replied that they coped by being tolerant and submissive. This shows that the teachers depended on their experience to implement educational reforms rather than on the information supplied to them through directives. The personal accounts indicated that the head teacher was the most active person in the school in the implementation of the PEDP.

The head teachers: The head teachers managed the school as an institution rather than managing learning. One head teacher explained, “Since PEDP started I have been very busy making sure that the funds provided for construction and rehabilitation of school buildings are utilized properly”. While management of educational resources is critical in any successful educational change, it is equally important that resources are managed properly as a means to improving learning processes and outcomes. These findings concur with the year 2006 PEDP review which noted insufficient progress for all types and levels of education on quality and efficiency (URT, 2006c: 14). These findings reveal that the head teachers performed roles which were not designed for them.

The review of the Primary Education Development Plan (2006-2011) document indicates that the PEDP (2002-2006) focused mainly on enrolment and expansion with little attention to quality aspects (URT, 2006 b: 7).

It is clear from the interviews and review of documents that the education reform was implemented without clear direction and scope. However, according to the head teachers and teachers who participated in the study, the implementation of the PEDP introduced several positive things to the schools. It assisted in increasing financial capacity of primary schools.

Regarding sustainability of the funding, a head teacher answered, “We are no longer getting funds for improving school condition, and the parents are not contributing anything because they claim that the government is providing everything for the school”. This indicates that the reform implementation was top-down. Clearly, actions for implementing educational reforms in Tanzania were initiated at some distance from local contexts and as a result constrained school and local leadership.

Community members: The study involved community members who had children in the schools. Focus group interviews were held in two different locations of Kisarawe district. The main theme discussed was: How have you been involved in implementing educational reforms in your location?

The interviews revealed that the implementation process of the PEDP was viewed differently. A group consisting of people with low income believed that the PEDP was intended to give relief to parents, thus their role in implementing PEDP was minimal. A participant explained, “The government has abolished all contributions therefore our duty is to send our children to school”. Bakari (2007: 6) confirms these findings stating that there were too many contributions in primary schools. The parent complained about school contributions as follows;

.....is it necessary for us (parents) to pay school contributions? What we know is that there is enough money provided to the school through PEDP.....it is unfair for us to carry such a load (Nipashe Newsletter, May 4, 2007: 6).

These findings reveal that the self-reliance initiatives introduced during the early years of independence (Section 3.2) have been eroded. Thus, the reform killed the good practice of parents’ contribution to education.

In the other group the participants recognised that the PEDP was meant to complement existing efforts in the schools. These community members identified their role in implementing the PEDP as follows: “Our role in implementing PEDP is to participate in construction of school buildings”.

The responses by the community members on their role in implementing the PEDP indicate that the communities were not aware of their role in enhancing the physical and educational

environment of their school. A review of PEDP monitoring reports also revealed that the PEDP was not understood at the community level (URT, 2004b: 5). These findings, also supported by the PEDP review of 2006, indicate a need to build the capacity of communities in understanding their role in school development.

Clearly capacity building is directly linked to sustainability. Capacity building means the availability of adequate resources and at least minimum resources to enable one to conceptualise and implement education reform. Thus, implementation of the PEDP was hindered by inadequate capacity building for community members.

Students: The implementation of any education change is ultimately going to benefit the students. In this regard, the current study sought to determine the benefits of the PEDP for the students through focus group interviews with the students. The participants of the focus group interviews were Standard Six students from each of the eight schools. The focus of the interviews was on the benefits of the PEDP to the students and the schools in general.

The results of the interviews indicated that the students were not aware of their roles in implementing the PEDP. The students complained that they were not informed about any development that affected them. One student commented, “We just see classrooms being build by the government for those who have no classrooms.....I have not benefited anything”. The students were asked whether or not they benefited from the government’s relaxation of school uniforms. The students commented that they were happy with uniforms. This suggests that the education reform did not have an impact on students.

This scenario shows that the model of implementing PEDP assumes that the decisions made by higher levels will effect action at the lower levels. In the case of the PEDP this has not been the case. For instance, the decision to waive school uniforms for primary school children did not reflect the wishes of parents and children. The PEDP goals were at odds with those of communities and their educational needs.

5.3.3 Experiences of stakeholders of the primary education sub-sector during the implementation of change

The PEDP was arranged to be implemented at six levels. Each level was given specific roles (URT, 2001a: 16-22). It was necessary to find out the experiences of the stakeholders in terms of clear knowledge about their roles as regards PEDP implementation through review of minutes of meetings, focus group interviews, and individual in-depth interviews.

The roles at different levels and the extent to which they were understood by the stakeholders are presented based on each level.

5.3.3.1 Village level

The stakeholders at the village level included parents, teachers and pupils. Ideally, the stakeholders were represented on the school committee, which was an organ responsible for school development. The school is a critical point in implementing educational change as discussed in section 3.4. The study sought to unearth the understanding of the participation of educational stakeholders at the village level of their respective roles in implementing the PEDP. The PEDP document specifies the government policy at the village level as follows: “The Government’s goal of broadening democratic participation and accountability at all levels demands increased involvement of men, women and children from the communities. Partnerships between teachers, school communities will be developed in order to strengthen school management” (URT, 2001a: 16).

In line with the above policy PEDP lists nine roles at the village level (URT, 2001a: 16). Specific roles include:

- Sensitise and involve all pupils, parents and school staff in respect of the roles they can play in maximising the benefits of primary school.
- Oversee the day-to-day affairs of the school.
- Work together with the head teacher and other teachers to prepare a Whole School Development Plan (WSDP).

- Approve Whole School Development Plans and budgets and submit them to the Street committee, or village council and subsequently to the ward development committee and eventually to the LGAs for scrutiny coordination and consolidation, and submission to Regional administrative Secretary (RAS).
- Facilitate planning, budgeting and implementation of the PEDP-funded activities.
- Open bank accounts and efficiently and effectively manage funds received for implementation, while guaranteeing maximum accountability and transparency in the processes used, including making incomes and expenditures publicly available.
- Ensure safe custody of property acquired using the PEDP funds.
- Prepare and submit accurate and timely progress and financial reports to the village council, village committee and LGAs.
- Effectively communicate educational information to all parents, pupils, community stakeholders and to the village, ward street and LGAs.

The parents: The in-depth interviews with parents who had their children in the schools revealed that in all the schools visited meetings were held with parents and school staff (however, not with students) to sensitise parents and school staff to implement PEDP activities that included building classrooms and contributions for school materials. One of the parents said, “We are at the receiving end.....we implement what is brought by the government”. These findings indicate that the parents were not involved at the formulation stage of the PEDP. Section 2.4 shows the importance of stakeholder participation at the formulation stage as a prerequisite of successful change implementation.

The findings from in-depth interviews with parents show that the school committees were not aware of their responsibility to oversee day-to-day school activities. Instead they were aware of their responsibility in the construction and rehabilitation of the school buildings. In two of the schools visited, the parents worked with the head teacher and other teachers to prepare a plan for the school. However, in all the eight schools visited the parents indicated that the practice was not sustained. Furthermore, the parents were not aware of their role to approve the WSDP and budgets. This shows that the WSDP as discussed in section 3.3.2 was not successfully mainstreamed in the PEDP.

The interviews with parents revealed that they were not aware that the school committees were accountable to the school funds. They mentioned the head teacher as the accounting person. However, in one of the schools, the parents admitted that the school committee was responsible for school accounts. These findings confirm those discussed in section 3.3.2, which shows that communities in Tanzania differ in the speed of their responses to sensitization campaigns.

There was evidence that the parents depended very much on the head teacher for all the properties bought during PEDP implementation. The parents confirmed that preparation and submission of accurate progress and financial reports was done by the head teacher. Parents indicated that their main role was their physical and financial contribution to the school development.

These findings show that the understanding of the parents as regards their role in PEDP implementation was more quantitative than qualitative. This conclusion confirms allegations made elsewhere in this study (See section 5.3.2) that PEDP concentrated on quantitative aspects at the cost of qualitative aspects, such as, commitment and motivation of teachers, quality teachers, learning achievements and organisation of educational programmes. (See section 2.15).

Teachers: School improvement starts with teachers as discussed in section 2.15 of this study. The understanding of the teachers on their roles in implementing the PEDP was crucial. Teachers were aware of their role to teach and work with the head teacher to oversee the day-to-day affairs of the school. One teacher summarised the role of the teachers by saying, “Our role in PEDP is mainly teaching the children brought to us”. The focus group interviews with the teachers revealed that the teachers were concerned with their professional roles including communicating educational information to parents and pupils. According to the teachers the non-professional roles were carried by the head teacher and the school committee.

Students: Educational reforms are intended to benefit school children. Thus, the pupils are critical actors at the school level. The pupils were asked about their roles in implementing the PEDP and these were compared with the listed role (URT, 2001: 16). Generally, the pupils were not aware of the given roles. One pupil complained that they were not involved in formulating school development plans, “Changes are brought without our knowledge, we

hear from school announcements and mass media. We have read on school boards about school expenditure but we are not sure about the school expenditures because we are not involved, and it is not easy to question the school administration.”

Clearly the findings from the village level stakeholders show that the roles for implementing PEDP were set without allowing the stakeholders at the village level a voice in defining the roles. Furthermore, the roles were assigned to the level and not to the stakeholders. This specific approach does not guarantee success in educational change management as discussed in section 2.14. For educational change to be successful, teachers, parents, community, business partners, administrators and students must share leadership functions. This means each group should be assigned a specific leadership role in implementing the educational reforms.

5.3.3.2 Ward level

The main educational stakeholder at the ward level was the Ward Education Coordinator (WEC). Section 3.4.2 of PEDP document provides institutional responsibilities and states that; “It is expected that the community and the leaders at ward level will work together to ensure all children of school age are enrolled and attending school” (URT, 2001a:17). Specifically WEC has been given the following six roles (URT, 2002: 17)

- Ensure that all girls and boys of school age in the ward are enrolled and attending school by 2004.
- Share information with and facilitate the participation of all parents and the wider community in realising the PEDP objectives.
- Help identify priorities for school development plans and to assist in the planning process.
- Ensure that the implementation of PEDP funded activities operates in a transparent and accountable manner, by guiding and enforcing the proper use and accounting of funds by school committees.
- Co-ordinate the formulation of Whole School Development Plans within the ward
- Effectively communicate educational information to schools and other local stakeholders.

The discussions with the eight WECs revealed that they were not aware of the roles given to them. One of the WEC said their role was to collect data while to ensure enrolment and attendance to school was the role of village government. The evidence from the interviews with two WECs revealed that the WECs shared information with the DEOs and they participated in ward leadership. The WECs admitted that they participated in school development plans. All WECs were unsure whether it was their responsibility to enforce the proper use of funds by school committees. The interviewed WECs revealed that they knew about the WSDP before the PEDP was initiated. From the interviews the WECs were involved in data collection and visited schools frequently as school supervisors.

The WECs revealed that they were overworked. A WEC described this situation as follows:

I have 6 schools to look after, I have to visit the schools and collect information and send them to the DEO. Some of the schools are far apart. Apart from these responsibilities I have other responsibilities at the ward office as I chair education and social service committee.

These findings confirm the finding in section 3.4 that the institutional arrangements at the ward level were weak.

These findings show that the roles given to the WECs were beyond the capacity of the WEC. To bring change in such a situation is difficult as noted in section 2.5 as the change process depends not only on loyalty of personnel but also on their willingness and expertise. Accordingly, even if the WECs were loyal, the numerous roles given to them made them inefficient in implementing PEDP. The roles at ward level were given without taking into consideration the actual stakeholders available at that level.

5.3.3.3 District/urban authority level

The main stakeholder at the district/urban authority was the DEO. Section 3.4.2 item 3 of PEDP document spells that: “The Local Government Authorities will assume full responsibility for management and delivery of all primary school services within its boundaries” (URT, 2001a: 17). The DEOs were interviewed on their given eight roles (URT, 2002: 18) listed below for PEDP implementation:

- Involve the meaningful participation of all community stakeholders in planning, monitoring and implementation processes.
- Prepare, in a participatory and inclusive way, three-year and annual development plans for the districts' primary schools.
- Use the development plans as a basis for preparing and monitoring requisitions for Investment Grant transfers to schools.
- Guide and enforce the proper use and accounting of PEDP funds by the school committees, directly, and through ward development committees and village councils.
- Produce and submit regular financial reports to the PO-RALG, and MOEVT through regional secretariat.
- Provide technical support to school and village committees in the tasks of procurement, fund utilisation and proper and timely reporting.
- Regularly monitor, review and evaluate the progress of PEDP activities, and to report to the Regional Secretariat for transmission to PO-RALG, and MOEVT.
- Effectively communicate educational information to village, wards, schools and other local stakeholder groups, as well as to regional and national levels.

From the interviews with the DEOs there was no evidence that the DEOs involved community stakeholders in planning and monitoring PEDP implementation. The interviews with DEOs revealed that there was a three year annual development plan for primary education development and plans prepared for Investment Grant transfers to school.

Interviews with DEOs gave evidence that at district level they were involved with disbursement of funds only. Guidance was provided through guidelines and directives. The interviews revealed that the Districts produced financial reports to the Ministry. There was no evidence of support given to schools and village committees in the tasks of procurement and funds utilisation. The DEOs interviews also revealed that they were more involved in PEDP monitoring during annual review team visits. Evidence from DEO interviews show that the District was involved in passing down the directives given from the Ministry.

5.3.3.4 Regional level

At the regional level the main educational stakeholder is the REO. It is stated clearly in the PEDP document that; The Regional Secretariat (RS) will provide technical support and advisory services to the District to enable it to implement PEDP” (URT, 2001a: 18). It should be under stood that the REO is a member of RS. PEDP provides seven roles at this level. The roles intended to be implemented by the REO (See URT, 2001a: 18) include:

- Carry out periodic internal audits in the LGAs and schools to ensure that performance targets and financial regulations are being met.
- Guide, coordinate and monitor the delivery of primary education by local authorities.
- Provide technical support to district education offices.
- Ensure that LGAs prepare consolidated three-year education development plans that conform to MOEVT education policy and quality assurance standards.
- Consolidate LGA primary education plans and budgets within the Region and submit them to PO-RALG and MOEVT to facilitate approval and transfer of funds to the Treasury.
- Effectively communicate educational information to districts and other local stakeholders.
- Effectively communicate information and concerns from districts and communities to the zone and national level.

There was no evidence that the REO carried out periodic internal audits in LGAs and schools. Instead the interviews revealed that the REO depended on school inspectors’ reports. There was evidence from the interviews that REO was not involved in council plans and budgets. The REO admitted that one of his roles was to communicate directives and guidelines to DEOs. The REO explained as follows:

The district receives funds and guidelines straight from the headquarters and these are copied to me. There is no way I can be involved in managing funds at the district level. However, operationally I have to communicate with DEOs to make sure that educational issues move as planned.

These findings were not surprising given that the REO is not functional as discussed in section 3.4. The REO is administratively answerable to RAS as educational advisor and professionally to the Ministry as a contact person at regional level. This kind of arrangement weakens the power of the REO to implement educational changes. It is concluded that the roles given to the REO were not perfectly placed.

5.3.3.5 Central level

The specific persons regarding PEDP implementation include the PEDP co-ordinator and the primary education Director. The PEDP co-ordinator was placed in the Policy and Planning Directorate. At the central level nine roles were listed (See URT, 2001a:19) as follows:

- Set policies that ensure provision of quality education for all in Tanzania.
- Prepare, in a collaborative manner, detailed plans for PEDP implementation.
- Monitor, review and evaluate progress, outcomes and the impact of the PEDP for quality assurance and to regularly make such reports to the BEDC.
- Produce regular financial reports to be submitted to the BEDC and the Steering Committee.
- Collaborate with the PO-RALG Education Team on issues of planning, monitoring and evaluation.
- Participate as a joint stakeholder in the annual ESDP process of reviewing the education sector, including the primary and non-formal education programmes.
- To support and build the technical capacity of district education offices.
- Collate and communicate education information, including HIV/AIDS related data to all system levels, supporting educational institutions and interested stakeholders.
- Carry out school Inspection by:
 - Monitoring delivery of, and adherence to, stipulated curriculum;
 - Ensuring efficiency and quality in education provision;
 - Evaluating the implementation of the PEDP by assessing education achievements, promoting school improvement, and advising all stakeholders in education;
 - Providing feedback to LGAs and MOEVT, supporting education agencies, school owners, managers and administrators at all levels;
 - Ensuring that every school is inspected at a minimum, every two years;

- Advising school committees on how they can govern effectively and democratically;
- Building the capacity of LGAs, village, street, ward and school authorities to efficiently and effectively deliver a good quality of primary education;
- Advising schools in the development of the Whole School Development Plans;
- Monitoring, reviewing and evaluating PEDP activities and overall progress;
- Collecting and communicating education information to all stakeholders.

At the central level the officials interviewed were aware of their role to set policies and facilitate implementation through resourcing and monitoring. However, there was an indication that the roles were not elaborated for the Ministries of PO-RALG and MOEVT (See URT, 2001a: 20). From these finding it is concluded that the roles were not elaborated for efficient implementation of PEDP as discussed in section 5.3.3.

Regarding the clarity of stakeholder roles, the further away from the Ministry Headquarter, the less the stakeholders were aware of their roles, let alone understanding them. On the other hand, the roles were numerous. Thus, PEDP implementation was artificial. Genuine implementation means knowledge about the roles. These findings confirm that the reform was implemented through circulars, directives and guidelines and management of the reform was top-down making it difficult to sustain as revealed by the participants during the interviews and focus group interviews in section 5.3.2.4 of this study. Morley (2007: 1) contends that if a programme is merely a top-down package that does not address real problems facing the organisation, it will fail.

5.3.4 Educational change implemented in schools: Determining factors

The PEDP has given the school committee the responsibility of managing implementation of the PEDP at school level. Experience shows that the chairperson of the committee is usually a community member and the head teacher is the secretary to the committee. Thus, the head teacher holds a key position in the implementation of the PEDP. As pointed out earlier, directives and guidelines from the Ministry's headquarters provided what had to be done to manage the reform (Section 5.3.2.3). The present study explored the views of the school community pertaining to the implementation of PEDP and how it was related to better teaching.

5.3.4.1 Head teachers and teachers' styles

At the school level the management responsibility of implementing the PEDP has been put under the school committee (URT, 2001a: 16). However, evidence from interviews with teachers revealed that the head teacher was seen as the manager of the institution. When the teachers were asked to say who managed the school, all of them pointed out the head teacher. One of the teachers had this to say, "The head teacher is everything here; she manages everything from the teachers, students and finances. She is the one who receives directives from the DEO or the WEC and also she writes financial and other reports". On the other hand when the head teachers were interviewed, they agreed that the school committee was the managing body of the school. One head teacher said that this was in writing only, but in practice the head teacher managed the school and was answerable to the DEO and sometimes to WEC.

These findings indicate that the head teachers implemented reforms as managers of the schools but not as subordinates of the school committee. The teachers also did not recognise the school committee as the managing body of the school. The main reason given by the teachers was that the school committee has no power over them as they feel they are autonomous professionals. In summary, the teachers argued that the school committees were not authoritative because they had no say in their employment, promotions and their day-to-day work.

This shows that the management role given to the school committee was not functional. In chapter two it was argued that change should be supported by laws to make it happen. Thus, it is concluded that the roles, duties and responsibilities of head teachers and teachers in implementing the PEDP were not legally clarified. Thus, there were conflicts of role and responsibility in the schools.

The cases of head teacher and teachers' styles described above illustrate different ways in which PEDP was viewed. Firstly, the participants had different expectations on PEDP. The head teachers had different styles of implementing PEDP. Implementation was influenced by the amount of money provided as pointed out earlier. This supports the finding in section 5.3.2.3 that the head teachers spent most of their time managing the finances. It is also clear from the views of the teachers that their styles in implementing PEDP were more influenced

by the head teacher than anybody else. Thus, the success of primary education reform depended on the capacity of the head teacher to implement the reform.

5.3.4.2 School facilities

Evidence obtained from observations and interviews confirm that the head teachers and school committees were involved in supervising construction of school buildings. However, the head teacher was more involved in purchasing books and other resources, such as, chalk and manila cards. Moreover, there is evidence that the school facilities may not be sustained in the long term. Reviews of the PEDP reveal the following:

Led by their school committees schools are increasingly taking control of the management of funds. However, uncertainty over the flow of funds, especially on the timing of disbursements, continues to erode the confidence and empowerment of the schools (URT 2004a: 23).

This quotation confirms the finding from the head teachers' interviews in section 5.3.2.3 which revealed that sustainability of PEDP funding was difficult.

5.3.4.3 School support for the change

Successful school reform requires ongoing support from outsiders such as researchers, school inspectors/supervisors and community involvement (Tharp *et al* 1999: 6). The current study sought to find out the kind of support provided to the schools during PEDP implementation.

The views from the head teachers provided evidence that the most significant external support from outside was finances. One of the head teachers summarised the support provided as follows:

The school got support from the Community in building the classrooms and the school inspectors came as usual but it was the first time for our school to get three million shillings in our school account. We were able to construct three classrooms and buy textbooks for our students

These findings show that the most support provided to the schools during PEDP implementation was quantitative. These findings confirm insufficient quality and efficiency in the implementation of PEDP (URT, 2006a: 12). Thus, schools did not receive adequate qualitative support during PEDP implementation and therefore quality improvement objectives were not achieved.

5.3.4.4 Relevance of the change

In chapter two it is argued that any successful reform should make sense to the participants. This means that the reform should be relevant to the participants. In view of this, the current study documented the views of key participants of the reform at the school level to determine whether or not the PEDP was relevant to the schools.

The students: The research question for interview with students was, “How has PEDP changed the teaching and learning in the schools?” After brainstorming, several views were provided by the participants. One participant pointed out that the reform has increased problems in teaching and learning in the schools because there were more students in the classrooms than before PEDP. A student remarked, “The classrooms are not enough; we are crowded in one classroom.”

The head teacher revealed that the classrooms had an average of 60 pupils, confirming the findings of the pupils. One other participant argued that tuition classes, which used to help them before the PEDP had been abolished during PEDP implementation.

At the end of the interviews the students concluded that PEDP has negatively affected teaching and learning in the schools; on the other hand, the participants recognised improvement in the construction of classrooms and textbooks supply. However, the views of the students indicate that the educational reform did not have a significant impact on the teaching and learning in schools. It is concluded that PEDP was thus not recognised as a significant improvement by the students.

The parents: The interviews with parents reveal that PEDP was seen as relevant to the schools and has changed for the better. One of the parents explained how PEDP has changed education provision in the community as follows:

Before PEDP the school was dilapidated and few children went to school. The new classrooms testify that PEDP has improved education provision in our community.

Similar views were given by other parents. These views suggested that the parents were satisfied by PEDP implementation and according to the parents the reform was significant to the schools.

The teachers: The view of the teachers on the relevance of PEDP was documented through in-depth interviews. The participants realised as a result of the reform, more students were enrolled in primary schools. While some teachers were happy with the reform, others were very disappointed because their expectations were not met. One teacher explained,

You can see the classroom buildings and the number of pupils has increased to the extent that our school has been divided into two schools, but our salaries remain the same. Our problems have not been solved.

Promises had been made to the teachers that their welfare would be improved during PEDP implementation; however, there were no evidence that the welfare of the teachers has improved.

The teachers complained about a big teaching load as a result of increases in the pupil enrolments showing that the teachers were not satisfied with PEDP implementation. Thus, teachers did not appreciate the significance of PEDP implementation.

The head teachers: The interviews with the head teachers revealed that their views were similar to that of the parents. The head teachers talked about the funds provided to schools, the increased capacity of schools to buy teaching and learning materials and the improvement made in school buildings. The head teachers were worried about continued financial support. These findings indicate that head teachers had benefited from the reform and had a more positive attitude towards the implementation of the PEDP.

The students' views were almost the same as the views of the teachers: PEDP was not very relevant to them. However, the parents and the head teachers saw PEDP as significant.

Indeed, interviews with educational leaders revealed that their views were similar to those of the parents and head teachers. One official summarised the views as, “The reform was quite significant in the development of education in the country”. Thus, the relevance of the reform was understood differently by participants and leaders, inside and outside the school. This indicated that implementation of PEDP was not harmonious.

5.3.5 Factors affecting management of educational change

Quantitatively, it was clear that the educational leadership affected the way PEDP was managed and the change results. The teachers and the head teachers interviewed claimed their schools had gone through educational change during PEDP implementation. This context was further explored. The type of changes identified ranged from expansion to provision of resources and operational change.

The findings show that overall expansion was the most noted followed by provision of resources. Expansion change referred to such things as student population growth, staff recruitment, division of a school into two schools and increase in school infrastructure. Change of resources involved more funds to schools and more teaching and learning materials. Change in operations included a heavier workload for teachers and head teachers. Other changes noted included change of management and change in teaching and learning methods. These findings confirm the findings in section 5.3.4 that qualitative change objectives were not as well addressed in PEDP implementation to the same extent as the quantitative changes.

The present study sought to identify the issues that stakeholders perceived to have affected management of the educational change.

From the in-depth interviews, the following list of key issues necessary for successful implementation of change emerged from the qualitative data.

- Clear policy;
- Democratic leadership;
- Motivation of implementers;
- Effective dissemination process;

- Skilled leaders;
- Involving teachers;
- Continual finances;
- Capacity building in districts and schools;
- Fulfilling promises;
- Soliciting views of implementers;
- Clear roles and responsibilities.

These factors considered by the participants to affect management of educational change in Tanzania fall into two categories: maintaining good leadership and improving the implementation process of educational change.

While views about the above-mentioned issues varied to some degree among participants, factors that adversely affected management of educational change were more prominent than those that supported the reform. Thus, management of the educational reform failed to meet the expectation of most of the educational stakeholders.

The review of literature in chapter two of this study revealed that attitudes were among the most influential factors that facilitated change. Morley (2007:1) found that it is common that two-thirds of change initiatives fail, because of strong beliefs that cannot be overcome.

Evidence from the in-depth interviews with educational leaders at the Ministry headquarters, regional, and district level highlighted the positive attitudes of the leaders towards the reform. When the leaders were asked to describe their feelings on the implementation of PEDP, a participant said:

PEDP is a major educational change attempted since the Universal Primary Education (UPE) of the 1977. Unlike UPE whose major goal was to make sure that all school age going children enrolled; PEDP has gone further than that. PEDP in addition is intended to improve quality of education and improving management of education.

The positive attitudes were also recorded when interviewing the head teachers. However, classroom teachers showed negative attitudes towards the reform. They felt that the reform

did not have positive impacts on their part. The negative attitude towards the reform was not surprising. In section 5.3.2.4, most teachers were not happy with the way the reform was implemented for various reasons, such as an increased workload without any rewards, no clear guidelines provided for their professional and material development and their expectation of working in a better environment had not been met.

5.3.6 The status of the change implementation

The focus of the current study, the PEDP, was a five year plan (2002-2006). However, it is also important to note that the first output of PEDP is expected to complete the seven year cycle of primary education in 2008, two years after the plan period has come to an end. In addition, children enrolled in 2006 will complete the seven year cycle in 2012. Thus, to make a justified conclusion on whether or not the plan has been successful, one needs to study the whole spectrum of PEDP implementation.

In order to capture the status of PEDP implementation interviews were conducted with Ministry Officials, Regional Education Officers, District Education Officers, Ward Education Officers and School Committee members. The information supplied by the participants in the study was supplemented by a documentary review of monitoring reports of the PEDP and joint review reports.

The PEDP (2002-2006) provide 59 intentions made by the government in implementing the plan. The intentions are stated as strategies (URT, 2001a: 5-16). The investigation was an attempt to determine the extent to which the intentions were fulfilled. The findings illuminated the way the education reform was managed. The findings and data analysis are presented in Appendix A.

The consolidated findings and data analysis on the status of the change implementation (see Appendix A) shows that the government intentions on PEDP were not adequately fulfilled. Most fulfilled intentions were quantitative except for recruiting enough teachers for primary schools.

The failure of the government to fulfil all the intentions is an indication that PEDP was too ambitious. This also meant that the capacity to manage the scope of the reform was

inadequate. Thus, it is concluded that PEDP was not implemented as planned because its scope was not manageable. However, as noted in section 5.3.6, on the whole PEDP has already benefited primary schools in a number of ways, such as, increasing financial capacity of the schools, constructing buildings and purchasing teaching and learning materials. At national level enrolments have improved. Clearly some achievements have been made but the set standards have not been achieved. (See section 5.3.7).

5.3.7 Sustainability of the reform

One of the main concerns of the present study was the need to illuminate sustainability of educational change in Tanzania. Thus, the study focused on the strategies for sustaining the reform. Section 5.3.7 provides assessment of the participants as regards the sustainability of the PEDP, with regard to funding, constructed buildings and school materials acquired through PEDP funding.

Strategies: In chapter one, sustainability is defined as the likelihood of long term involvement by stakeholders in propagating change and the impact thereof being maintained after external funding has stopped. The PEDP as described in chapter three is presented as a series of tightly structured, centrally planned educational changes to promote the development of primary education nationwide within a time frame of five years. The study explored the strategies to sustain the PEDP.

The educational leaders at the headquarters were asked to give an account of sustainability strategies embedded in the plan. The results of the interviews revealed that the main strategy to sustain the PEDP was training. One educational leader noted that preparations were underway to develop and implement “a second PEDP in order to carry forward the successes achieved during initial PEDP implementation.”

A similar picture was provided by the educational leaders at the regional and district levels. However, apart from giving hope that the PEDP will be sustained, no specific strategy was identified. This confirms evidence discussed in Section 3.5.3, which shows that plans that are funded from outside become difficult to sustain. Thus, it is not surprising that participants were unable to mention strategies for sustaining the reform.

Funding: The interview with the head teachers revealed that funding was not flowing constantly. All the head teachers were pessimistic about the continued funding of PEDP. A head teacher revealed his uncertainty of continued PEDP funding by saying, “Now we do not get funds as we used during the first years of PEDP implementation, some of the parents complain when they are asked to contribute even small amounts of money for exams, school security and study visits”. One of the head teachers said boldly, “The government should provide funds to maintain buildings and to buy lost and torn out books. Most of the parents here are not able to pay for the expenses because they are poor.” These findings confirm the findings in section 5.3.6 that the parents felt that it was the role of the government to fund the PEDP. This picture shows uncertainty regarding the continued funding of PEDP.

Constructions and materials: The results of the interviews with the head teachers reveal that they were aware that the school buildings were owned by the community. As such, they were obliged to make sure that the buildings were sustained. A head teacher added, “We will work together with the community and make sure that the buildings do not fall.” However, evidence from elsewhere shows that this was not the case. Lugungulo (2007: 7) reported the case in Kisarawe district as follows: “The Chairperson of Chole Samvula Primary School in Kisarawe district reported that surprisingly the classrooms built in 2004 under PEDP have started cracking. The truth is that the classrooms were built below the standard.”

Furthermore, it was reported that there were several unfinished classrooms and teachers’ houses in the district. These findings reveal that the targets for implementing PEDP were not adequately reached.

5.4 CONCLUSIONS

The analysis and discussion of the findings on the management of educational change in the primary education sub-sector in Tanzania was made in line with the main research questions pointed out in section 1.6 of this study. Generally, the findings suggest that Tanzania has a long way to go to sustain the intended educational change.

The findings reveal that the process of educational change is influenced by a number of factors including the monopoly of the government in the provision of primary education.

Generally many people were aware of the PEDP. However, awareness of the objectives of the reform was limited. The findings also revealed that there was laxity in disseminating relevant information at the school level.

There was also evidence that all stakeholders were ready to implement the reform. However, teachers were not well informed about the reform. This also applied to the community members. Strategies for sustaining the reform were not clear. The dependency on donor funding reduced the capacity to sustain the PEDP.

The implementation of the reform was done without clear direction and scope. The reform implementation was a top-down affair indicating that the education reform was initiated at some distance from the local context. Implementation of the reform depended mainly on directives and stakeholders were not well informed about their roles provided in the PEDP document. These findings suggest a sense of artificiality in implementing the reform.

However, PEDP intentions were numerous and not fulfilled satisfactorily. This shows that the PEDP was too ambitious. At the school level the most common type of educational change identified was expansion of quantitative aspects, such as, enrolments, buildings and school materials. The quality aspects of educational change, such as, mobilising strong commitment and enhancing status and morale of teachers were not part of the popular focus of the reform.

The educational change management in primary education concentrated mainly on quantitative aspects. Furthermore, the factors that affected management of the educational change were twofold: maintaining good leadership, such as, training and improving the implementation process of the educational change, such as, capacity building and constant communication with implementers.

The attitude towards the reform varied among the participants. Educational leaders and parents had more positive attitudes towards the reform than the teachers and students. Thus, the educational change failed to meet the expectations of the key participants and implementers of the reform, the teachers and students.

The assessment made by the participants as regards the sustainability of the reform reveals uncertainty regarding the continued funding of the PEDP. Furthermore, the lifespan of the

infrastructure gained through the PEDP was short-lived due to the poor infrastructure. Thus, the sustainability of the educational changes made in the primary education sub-sector is uncertain.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter described in detail the findings of this study after analysis of the data gathered. The purpose of this chapter is to present a summary of the study, draw conclusions and to make recommendations for management of educational reforms in the primary education sub-sector in Tanzania and for present and future research based upon the findings.

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study was to assess the current process of management of educational change in the primary education sub-sector, namely the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) as presented in chapter one. The context of the study presented in chapter one led to the formulation of research questions that led the study (see section 1.6). The general aim was to gauge how the current educational changes in Tanzania have been managed as spelt out in section 1.7. With respect to this aim, a review of the literature is presented in chapter two and three.

The literature review in chapter two dealt with change and its processes. Chapter two suggests that a suitable model for the study of management of educational change in Tanzania is one which considers change as overlapping processes, where the interplay of problem understanding, vision, planning and implementation guide the change process. The success of the change process is measured by the intensity of the impact brought about by the change process in the education system.

6.2.1 Management of change

There is no doubt that our society is changing with the explosion of information Banahan and Playfoot, (2004) in Yelland (2007: 128). Accordingly, change is inevitable as discussed in section 2.2. Change is approached as linear or overlapping process as presented in section 2.4.

Change management refers to the making of changes in a planned or systematic fashion as elaborated in section 2.6. In section 2.13, it is argued that new development has brought challenges and opportunities that emerge in the management of education. A number of factors have been found to put pressure on educational change. These factors include the ever-widening horizon of education itself and the continuing significant change in social expectations concerning education services. Section 2.6 of this study concludes that management of educational change is essentially management of education.

6.2.1.1 Educational change process

Yelland (2007: 128) argues that creativity and innovation, in particular, need to become central to the educational process. In section 2.13 it is argued that educational change is a socio-political process. Thus, the educational change process is a multivariate process. It requires integrating knowledge of the politics, personalities and history peculiar to the setting in question.

Section 2.14 presents factors that facilitate educational change that include specific legislations, policies, procedures and guidelines related to the functions and responsibility of the participatory mechanisms involving teachers, parents, community, business partners, administrators, and students in leadership functions. This argument calls for involvement of all stakeholders in the process of introducing and implementing educational change.

6.2.2 Educational changes in Tanzania

Chapter three examine the educational change process in Tanzania and identify what influences educational change in the country. The review reveals that education reforms in Tanzania rely very much on donor assistance. Consequently, they face challenges of sustainability as donors come in with their interests. Poverty inevitably compels the country to rely on foreign aid to implement educational changes. In the light of this, the effects of educational change in primary education among different groups in the education system and its stakeholders were investigated.

A number of changes were effected in the education and school system in Tanzania immediately after independence in 1961 as presented in section 3.2. The most significant

change in the goals and objectives of education was the introduction of the Education and Self-Reliance (ESR) philosophy to guide the planning and practice of education.

A number of achievements were made that included the increase in enrolment ratios. The achievements were not sustained, apparently due to poor economic conditions and poor management of the educational change. Section 3.5 of this study provides factors that influence educational change in Tanzania. The most notable factors include social, political and economic factors, globalisation and donors. On the other hand current reforms in Tanzania have been influenced by worldwide reforms in socio-economic structures in developing countries that include economic liberalisation policies.

Management of educational change in Tanzania is done at various levels of the education system from central, district, ward, village and school as elaborated in section 3.4. Clearly, it shows that currently some sector management arrangements have been put in place to speed up the education sector reform.

The findings emanating from the literature provided a conceptual and theoretical context, which served as backdrop to this study, namely, educational change management is a social phenomenon that refers to making changes in a planned or systematic fashion.

The educational change process is considered an overlapping process. Furthermore, implementation of educational change requires knowledge and understanding of the change. Successful implementation of educational change requires shared vision among the stakeholders and constant dialogue with stakeholders on their roles and the reform objectives. Thus, a qualitative research approach was considered suitable for the study, entitled Management of Educational Changes in Primary Education in Tanzania.

6.2.3 Research approach, design and methodology

Chapter four discuss the qualitative research approach, design and methodology. The main area of the study included the primary education sub-sector. The literature showed that qualitative research was suitable for the present study which is concerned with the experiences of stakeholders with regard to the management of educational change in Tanzania, which is a social phenomenon. A subsequent qualitative research approach led to a

contextual, phenomenological research design and concomitant qualitative methodology consisting of in-depth individual and focus group interviews to explore the experiences and feelings of people who were affected by the implementation of PEDP programmes in Tanzania.

A combination of five types of qualitative research designs were used in this study as elaborated in section 4.4. The research designs included: exploratory, descriptive, contextual and, phenomenology.

A purposive sample size of 62 participants of eight categories of people was involved in the study with consideration that they would provide rich data as elaborated in section 4.5.1.

Specific data collection methods are discussed in section 4.5.3. These included focused interviews, conversations, observations, focus group interviews and review of documents.

The validity and reliability in data collection relied on being precise in the methodology and member check as described in section 4.6 of this study.

The study sought the participants' deep reflection on their knowledge and practice in implementing the educational change. The qualitative data were transcribed and subjected to a series of procedures including analysis of content and themes of narrative responses. The discussions, conclusions and recommendations were made on the basis of determined trends, and patterns, which emerged from the findings.

6.2.4 Data analysis and discussion of the findings

The key findings, analyses and discussion of the findings are presented in chapter five. A short summary of the main findings follow below:

Chapter five deals with the analysis and discussion of the findings on the management of educational change in the primary education sub-sector in Tanzania in accordance with the main research questions pointed out in section 1.6 of this study.

The findings reveal that the process of educational change is influenced by a number of factors including donor dependency. There was also evidence that all stakeholders were ready

to implement the reform. However, teachers were not well informed about the reform. This also applied to the community members. The reform implementation was a top-down affair indicating that the education reform was initiated at some distance from the local context. Implementation of the reform depended mainly on directives and stakeholders were not well informed about their roles provided in the PEDP document. These findings suggest a sense of artificiality in implementing the reform.

At the school level the most common type of educational change identified was expansion of quantitative aspects, such as, enrolments, buildings and school materials. The quality aspects of educational change, such as, mobilising strong commitment and enhancing status and morale of teachers were not part of the popular focus of the reform.

The educational change management in primary education concentrated mainly on quantitative aspects. Furthermore, the factors that affected management of the educational change were twofold: maintaining good leadership, such as, training and improving the implementation process of the educational change, such as, capacity building and constant communication with implementers.

The assessment made by the participants as regards the sustainability of the reform reveals uncertainty regarding the continued funding of the PEDP. Thus, the sustainability of the educational changes made in the primary education sub-sector is uncertain.

6.3 FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

The findings on the management of educational changes in primary education in Tanzania suggest a number of factors influencing the management of educational change. A detailed discussion and description of the findings are provided in chapter five of this study. The conclusions are based on the findings.

6.3.1 Factors that influenced the educational reform

One of the research questions was; what factors influence change in the primary education sub-sector? The findings show that the government was the main source of educational change in the country according to participants of the study outside the ministry head

quarters. The educational leaders at the headquarters identified the source of educational change as the response of the government to the international call for Education for All. In-depth interviews with educational officials at the Ministry also revealed that educational reforms in the primary education sub-sector were developed by a team involving outsiders consisting of Development Partners (donors). It is concluded that the educational reforms in the country were influenced from outside the country but implemented by the government.

6.3.2 The educational change process in the primary education sub-sector

The study was sought to answer the question on the change process in the primary education sub-sector. The study revealed that change process ranged from preparations through creating awareness, dissemination to implementation of the change. The study revealed laxity in disseminating change information as elaborated in section 5.3.2.3. The study also revealed broad awareness of the primary education reform. However, the awareness of the objectives of the reform was limited as one moved away from the central level. The dissemination strategies of the reform were not effective in the knowledge building of the stakeholders.

Information collected from education leaders at the headquarters and the district level revealed that implementation of educational change in Tanzania depended on understanding of directives and guidelines provided by the headquarters. Thus, the reform assumed that the decisions made from above effect change at lower levels. However, Van Niekerk (1996: 445) in section 3.2 puts it clearly that a new act does not mean automatic appearance of a new system of education.

The findings provided in section 5.3.4.2 also reveal that the rate of implementation of the PEDP was influenced by the funds available. However, the literature review in section 2.12 reveals that knowledge on the intended change is the key to successful implementation and sustaining the change. It is concluded that the education reform was implemented artificially.

6.3.3 Stakeholders' experiences of their involvement in the management process

The main question was; how do stakeholders in the primary education sub-sector experience their involvement or lack of involvement in the management process of educational change in primary education? The findings on stakeholders' awareness about their roles in

implementing PEDP are provided in section 5.3.3. McNamara (1999: 1) in section 2.10 argues that awareness of the required change must come first because naturally people's reaction to change even in the best circumstances is to resist. The main findings show that the knowledge of the participants on their roles varied from one level to another; the further away from the Ministry Headquarters, the less the knowledge of the stakeholders about their roles. Thus, the stakeholders did not have optimal relevant knowledge of their roles.

It is concluded that implementation of the reform was adversely affected by inadequate knowledge and understanding of the stakeholders on their roles in implementing the reform.

6.3.4 Educational change implemented in schools: Determining factors

In section 2.15 it is argued that the teacher is the key to effective functioning of an educational reform. Thus, implementation of the reform in the schools was determined by factors related to the head teacher and the ordinary teachers (section 5.3.4.1).

The findings reveal that, although the managing body of the school was the school committee, the head teacher implemented the reform as the manager of the school and not as subordinate of the school committee. It was also evident that the teachers were more influenced by the head teachers than anybody else in implementing PEDP. The funding of the reform also determined implementation of the reform at school level (section 5.3.4.2).

The schools implemented the reform through the energies of the community, the districts and the state stakeholders (section 5.3.4). However, typically the communities were not engaged in the reform dialogues needed to build a community vision of their schools and a true commitment to quality education. Nor have formal linkages been established to provide ongoing interactions between the school staff and the stakeholders. It is concluded that school support from educational stakeholders was critical in successful implementation of the reform at school level.

The problems of primary education described in section 3.3.3 led the government to reform the primary education sub-sector. This framework is similar to the planned change model in section 2.8, that is, a change process which is problem solving. The intentions are presented and assessed in section 5.3.6. The key findings of the extent to which the reform intentions

were fulfilled are provided in Appendix A. The findings revealed that the fulfilled intentions were more quantitative than qualitative.

It is concluded that the dimensions of the reform were not realistic. Therefore, the reform was too ambitious to be sustained in the long term.

6.3.5 Factors affecting management of educational change

The literature review provided factors that influence school change (section 2.16): involving teachers in policy-making, emotional aspects of change and the relationships among school personnel. The findings provided in section 5.3.4.1 reveal a similar picture. The relationship between the classroom teachers and the head teacher affected the management of the reform at the school. The head teacher behaved as the school manager and the teachers behaved as the subordinates of the head teacher.

The findings also reveal that funding affected management of the reform at the school level (Section 5.3.7). Furthermore, school support had impact on the management of the reform at school level (Section 5.3.4.3). The head teacher played the major role at the school level. Thus, the success of the primary education reform depended on the capacity of the head teacher to implement it. This conclusion supports the importance of the teachers in educational reform noted in section 2.15.

6.3.5.1 Relevance of the reform

One of the pertinent questions posed was (section 4.2): “What factors underlie the success and sustainability or failure of educational change in Tanzania?” The literature revealed that change occurs only when teachers can directly apply what they learn to the context in which they are teaching. Similarly, if the reform is not relevant to the stakeholders, its sustainability is questionable.

The findings in section 5.3.4.4 indicate that the views of the stakeholders on the relevance of the reform varied. Thus, it is concluded that the implementation of the reform was not harmonious.

6.3.5.2 Attitudes towards the reform

The findings from the literature in section 2.13 reveal that attitudes are among the factors that facilitate change positively or negatively. The findings show that the classroom teachers had negative attitudes towards the reform but not the head teachers. It is concluded that the negative attitudes of the classroom teachers adversely affected implementation of qualitative aspects of the reform.

6.3.5.3 The scope of the reform

The findings in section 5.3.7 indicate that the PEDP aims were numerous. Consequently, the government failed to fulfil all the aims. Most of the fulfilled aims were quantitative ranging from classroom construction to purchasing of school materials. The qualitative aims such as teacher motivation and teacher quality were not fulfilled. It is concluded that the PEDP was too ambitious and donor funding was not adequate (Section 5.3.7).

6.3.5.4 Top-down management of the reform

It was evident that the reform was top-down (section 5.3.2.4). Implementation of the reform depended on directives from above. Morley in section 5.3.5 argues that top-down packaged reforms do not address real problems facing the organisation; consequently they fail. It is therefore concluded that the sustainability of the reform was adversely affected by the top-down management style of the government.

6.3.5.5 Participation of the teachers in the reform

Teachers are crucial in the successful implementation of educational change. Fullan (1982 117) in section 2.15 says that educational change depends on what teachers do and think.

It is clear from the findings in section 5.3.4.2 that the classroom teachers did not participate fully in the reform. Lack of motivation among the teachers resulted into their passive participation in the reform. However, the head teachers were in the forefront of the implementation of the reform due to their leadership role that made them profit from the reform. It is concluded that the qualitative impact of the reform was minimal.

6.3.6 The status of the change implementation

The findings illuminated the way the education reform was managed. The findings and data analysis are presented in Appendix A. The consolidated findings and data analysis on the status of the change implementation (see Appendix A) shows that the government intentions on PEDP were not adequately fulfilled. Most fulfilled intentions were quantitative except for recruiting enough teachers for primary schools.

The failure of the government to fulfil all the intentions is an indication that PEDP was too ambitious. This also meant that the capacity to manage the scope of the reform was inadequate. Thus, it is concluded that PEDP was not implemented as planned because its scope was not manageable.

6.3.7 Sustainability of the reform

Section 2.9 summarises skills and strategies for successful implementation of change. The strategies are based on communication of information, incentives, redefining and interpreting existing norms and values as well as developing commitments to new ones. Furthermore, the strategies are based on the exercise of authority and the imposition of sanctions as well as gradually transferring people from the old system to the new. The qualities of the leader for sustaining change are detailed in section 2.12.

Nicklos (2004: 11) in section 2.9 recommends a mix of the strategies. URT (2001a: 5-16) states the intentions of the government discussed in section 5.3.6 as strategies for successful implementation of the reform. Section 5.3.7 reveals that the main strategy used to sustain the reform was intensive and long term training which will be meaningful to the teachers.

The implementation status of the reform provided in section 5.3.7 reveals that the strategies used were based on available funds for the reform. While financial systems are important as discussed in section 2.5, if the funding is not continued, the reform fails to sustain. Given the weak strategies, it is concluded that the reform was at risk of not being sustained.

Section 5.3.7 provides findings of strategies employed for sustaining the reform. These include capacity building and training. However, there was evidence that most participants

could not identify any specific strategy. Thus it will be difficult to sustain major aspects of the reform, namely funding, constructed buildings and school materials purchased (section 5.3.4.2).

Clearly, capacity building and commitment are necessary for sustaining change. However, Stiegelbauer (1994:2) in section 2.12 argues that funding is also necessary for continuation of change. Likewise, the PEDP will be difficult to sustain since continued funding is a problem (See section 5.3.7). Efforts made to mobilise communities to continue funding the PEDP have not been successful (Section 5.3.7). In view of the foregoing findings it is concluded that sustainability of the reform was determined by continued external funding.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations are made based on the conclusions. The general recommendations are made in respect of the implementation and sustainability of the reform. Finally, specific recommendations for further research are made.

6.4.1 General recommendations

6.4.1.1 Dissemination of the Reform

From the findings (section 6.3.2) it was concluded that the dissemination strategies of the reform were not effective in the knowledge building of the stakeholders.

It is recommended that an entirely new mind set must become the dominant philosophy in the stakeholders' minds in order for the new planned educational reform to become established as planned. In order to reach this stage there is need for repeated exposure of the stakeholders to the purposes, strategies and practical working environment of the reform. This process cannot be done through directives and guidelines.

Section 2.5 of this study states clearly that successful change implementation in public service requires passage of guidelines and seculars that are communicated to implementers and feed back received before actual implementation. Consequently, it needs constant dialogue using interpersonal communication with the stakeholders before issuing directives

and guidelines. More resources and incentives should be found to inspire teachers to take ownership of the desired changes.

6.4.1.2 Change agents at school and district level

It was concluded that the implementation of the reform was artificial. It is recommended that primary educational reforms in Tanzania should have a change agent at district level where implementation of reforms is focused. The same should be done at school level. The change agents should be trained in change management concepts, meaning and strategies for implementation.

Perris (1988) in section 2.5 contends that a suitable person is required to lead the implementation of change. He adds that a change agent role is usually responsible to translate the vision into a realistic plan and to carry out the plan. Change agents, the districts and schools should cease to implement educational changes artificially instead they should approach change in a more objective, more analytical and more sophisticated manner. In this regard, more support should be given to teachers in the Primary sector to implement changes successfully.

6.4.1.3 Clear definition of roles

From the findings on the stakeholders' awareness of their roles, it was concluded that implementation of the reform was adversely effected by inadequate knowledge and understanding of the stakeholders about their role in implementing the reform. It is recommended that roles should be clear and given to specific stakeholders rather than the levels (see section 5.3.3).

Naturally people reactions to change, even in the best circumstances is to resist (see section 2.10). Therefore, a plan for communicating the changes should be designed together with the teachers. This could be done within forums held for all the stakeholders to express their ideas, frustrations and suggestions for successful implementation. Furthermore, adequate discussions and dialogue during these sessions could enhance problem solving with regard to the successful PEDP implementation.

6.4.1.4 Capacity building at school level

The findings revealed that while ordinary teachers were not happy about the change, the head teachers were busy with quantitative aspects of the reform leaving qualitative aspects unattended. Section 6.3.7 concluded that school support from educational stakeholders was critical in successful implementation of the reform at school level. It is recommended that the head teacher and teachers should be relieved of other duties, which are not their specialty. The increased funding of the schools requires professional accountants and purchasing officers to relieve the head teacher from quantitative duties in order to spend more time on qualitative aspects, which are the focus of the reform.

The teacher is the key effective functioning of an educational change programme (see section 2.15). In this regard it is recommended to give high priority to the perspective of teaching and learning processes at early stages of the educational change. Ideally this process requires the integration of initial training and professional development initiatives in ways that will acknowledge lifelong learning of teachers for sustainability of the intended change.

Furthermore, it is recommended that educational changes should include professional development opportunities for teachers that are relevant for a particular context. Such an approach will subsequently be more needs based and thus more meaningful to the teachers. That might lead them to engage in the educational changes more effectively. This process requires an assessment of pre-service and in-service teacher training in Tanzania which will be particularly concerned with the relevance of teacher training and their capacity to handle the new roles of teachers in the school change.

6.4.1.5 Sustaining the reform

From the findings it is concluded that the sustainability of the reform is determined by continued funding (section 6.3.7). Indeed, educational changes in Tanzania have not survived the country's economic difficulties (see section 3.3.2). In view of this, it is recommended that parents' contributions be continued to sustain PEDP achievements to avoid dependency on donor funding. The government should subsidise those who cannot pay. Parents and other NGO's can be encouraged to fund-raise money to supplement resources.

Section 5.3.7 reveals that there was no specific strategy identified to sustain the reform. It was concluded that the reform was at risk of not being sustained (see section 6.3.7). It is recommended that at each level there should be a person responsible for educational change. The appointed people should be empowered using the ADKAR model (see section 2.10). The model emphasizes the five stages of effective management of people and the dimensions of change ranging from awareness of the need to change to the reinforcement to keep the change in place.

ADKAR model is a result oriented change management tool that is simple and easy to understand. The tool is recommended for managers and change management teams. It is used as a resistance management tool, an assessment device and to help change management teams to organize their work. ADKAR can be used to diagnose the root cause for resistance, focus communications and identify barriers to change. Issues addressed in ADKAR model are those found critical in this study (See section 5.3.7).

The school is the key place for implementation and sustainability of educational change in the primary education sector. Yet, the findings reveal that the school support for the change was minimal (see section 5.3.4.3). The head teacher has been found very influential in implementing the reform and it was concluded that the success of the primary education reform depended on the capacity of the head teacher to implement it (see section 6.4.1.4).

In view of this it is recommended that all head teachers should be trained to deal with change management effectively and efficiently. Furthermore, it should be mandatory that all newly appointed head teachers should be trained before assuming their responsibilities as head teachers. Furthermore the head teachers should be empowered to solicit support from the communities so that the reform is sustainable.

6.4.2 Recommendations for future research

In this study emphasis was put on the educational change management process in the government sub-sector. Thus, the study focused on how the participants viewed and experienced the change processes in the planned reform (the PEDP). The management of educational change in the private sub-sector was not researched, as it was beyond the scope of this study. It is therefore recommended that a study be conducted to investigate

management of educational change in the private education sub-sector. This might provide an opportunity for comparison with the present study. Furthermore, the findings might provide a basis for defining the role of NGOs, community associations and private organizations in implementing educational change.

The literature review (Section 2.14) revealed that community participation has real practical value, which adds meaning to educational change. It is recommended that a study be conducted on how school communities conceptualise educational change. It is critical to examine the possible effects this may have on the implementation of educational change in Tanzania.

6.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) was intended to solicit strong local roots and broad participation of stakeholders in outcomes (section 1.5). However, the PEDP was a top-down affair removed from its local context. Thus, the implementation of the reform was done without clear direction and scope.

Clearly, the achievements made in the PEDP were more quantitative than qualitative. Furthermore, the achievements were below the standard in terms of quality. In this case the sustainability of the reform is uncertain. Inevitably, there is need for continued funding of the reform and more involvement of the stakeholders at the school and the community levels, so that they own the reform and rectify the shortcomings recorded in the implementation of the reform. This demand calls for better knowledge and skills in change management at all levels of the PEDP implementation.

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APPENDIX A

THE EXTENT TO WHICH PEDP INTENTIONS WERE FULFILLED

S/N	INTENTIONS	EVIDENCE OF PROGRESS MADE
1	The Government will abolish school fees and all other mandatory parental contributions from January 2002 so that no child may be denied schooling.	School fees were abolished.
2	The Government will establish scholarships from the National Education Fund to pay for the education of disadvantaged children, including AIDS orphans.	An interview with Regional Education Officer revealed that he had no idea about the funds for disadvantaged children
3	Multi-media public Information, Education and Communication (IEC) campaign will be undertaken to sensitise parents, street and village leadership, Councillors and Local Government Authority personnel at all levels about PEDP and its implications.	From the interviews held with the stakeholders and through experience, effort has been made to produce newsletters and publication of PEDP through mass media.
4	The standard teacher-to-pupil ratio is 1:45	By 2006 the PTR was 1:52 (URT, 2006)
5	School capacity in terms of teacher supply and classroom space will be ensured through the increased use of teachers and classrooms for double shifts and multi-grade teaching as a limited and interim measure.	Evidence from the interview and focus group discussions with teachers indicated that there were more classrooms but the teachers complained about big workload.
6	Publicity campaigns will target a higher quality of potential teacher, emphasising good career prospects and terms of service. Efforts will be made to reduce or eliminate financial obstacles facing new recruits.	In-depth interviews and focus group interviews with teachers shows that the teachers were not satisfied with their job. Teachers felt that they were not given the incentives they deserved.
7	In practice some schools will need to function with a morning session and an afternoon session for several years. It is intended that 11% of the teachers will teach on double shifts in 2002, 18% in 2003, and 25% from 2004 to 2006 ¹ It will also be necessary for some teachers to teach several grades in one classroom for a limited time.	From the observation made and the results of an interview with headteachers some of the schools introduced double shifts in 2002 but there were no evidence of schools using multi-grade teaching.
8	Orientation and capacity building will be provided to teachers and head teachers to ensure that multi-grade and double-shift teaching happens effectively.	Evidence from interviewing with headteachers and teachers indicated that no capacity building was done on multigrade and double shifts
9	Adequate pre-service and in-service teacher development will be ensured.	Interviews with teachers show that very few teachers had received in-service training. One teacher complained that she has been in the service for more than ten years without in-service training.

S/N	INTENTIONS	EVIDENCE OF PROGRESS MADE
10	School committees will take responsibility for construction. They will be able to choose from several standard classroom designs costing at \$5000 per unit. Schools may also apply for an IG to cover the cost of sanitary facilities or teacher housing. Approved IG funds will be disbursed to the school bank account, through LGAs for which the Council will be fully accountable. As such the Council Director remains accountable for the proper use of IG while the school committee will be accountable to the village Council and the Council Director. Communities will have the flexibility to combine local cash, labour or other resources with the IG to improve the standard designs. District engineering staff will provide technical support.	Evidence from observation during school visits and interviews with teachers and community members show substantial resources provided for classroom construction. However, the quality of the buildings appeared to be sub-standard. In one of the schools visited there were cracks in walls in classrooms whose life time was hardly five years.
11	Allocation of funds for teacher housing will give priority to rural and remote areas. Detailed criteria for IG allocation will be developed as the basis for including housing construction needs in the annual LGAs education plans.	Interviews with headteachers indicated that funds for teacher housing were not readily available as was the case with classroom funds.
12	The scope of the existing non-formal education programmes will be extended to include 11,325 centres by 2006, catering for 906,000 students.	By 2006 there were 221,497 students (23%) (URT, 2006:40). Thus, the target was not reached.
13	The Basic Education Development Committee in collaboration with the Vocational training and Folk Development Committee will develop a flexible national policy regarding strategies for dealing with out-of school youth, whilst enhancing progress towards full enrolment of girls and boys in the formal sector.	Evidence from Ministry headquarters shows that by 2006 the policy was still a draft.
14	Various cost-effective in-service programmes will be introduced which will not withdraw large numbers of teachers from schools.	Upgrading programmes were phased in 2002 and distance made for upgrading teachers was introduced through circular no 10 of 2002.
15	The content of pre-service and in-service teacher training programmes will sensitise teachers and provide them opportunities to acquire and develop appropriate pedagogical skills that are academically sound, child-friendly and gender-sensitive, together with individual life-skills which take into account the current HIV/AIDS crisis.	There was evidence that the circulars for teacher education were reviewed.

S/N	INTENTIONS	EVIDENCE OF PROGRESS MADE
16	Linkage and networking of pre-service and in-service school-based training through outreach programmes will be established and strengthened.	Teachers' interviews show that they were not aware of the outreach programmes.
17	More school-based teacher resource centres will be established.	Evidence from interviewing the teachers and District Education Officer show that teacher resource centres were not functioning
18	Tsh 33,200 (US\$ 40) per teacher will be made available for ten days of in-service training per teacher per year.	There were evidence from DEO interview that the teacher development fund was provided. However, interviews with teachers indicated that they did not benefit from the funds.
19	In order to introduce a reliable income stream for essential non-salary expenses at school level, a Capitation Grant equivalent to US\$ 10 per enrolled child will be instituted nationwide as of January 2002. Of this, US\$4 will initially be sent to the district to enable schools to acquire textbooks and other teaching and learning materials. The remaining \$6 will be disbursed to schools through the district council, and school committees will decide how best to use the funds.	Interviews with teachers, headteachers and community members revealed that the capitation grant was provided to schools and a substantial range of books and resources were bought.
20	School committees will promote public/private sector partnerships at the community level, while similar partnerships at district and national level will also be promoted for the purpose of investing in school materials.	There was no evidence of the partnership in terms of policy or guidelines.
21	The existing decentralised textbook procurement system will be developed and extended to all LGAs and eventually to school level.	Evidence from Ministry Headquarters shows that by 2006 text book procurement was extended to District level only and school level.
22	School will use the Whole School Development Plan to make choices about instructional materials.	Evidence from interviews with headteachers shows that they made choice of textbooks.
23	The numbers of new teacher trainees will be 9,000 in 2002, 10,000 each in 2003-2005, and 9,000 in 2006.	By 2006 the number of primary school teachers increased as planned (URT, 2006:16).
24	Existing tutors will undergo a programme of skills and knowledge upgrading, and new tutors will be recruited.	Records in Ministry Headquarter in files show that a number of training workshops for tutors were conducted.
25	The timing, duration and overall operation of pre-service training will be reviewed and rationalised.	The training for primary school teachers was reviewed and became one year in the college and one year in the field.

S/N	INTENTIONS	EVIDENCE OF PROGRESS MADE
26	The management capacity and material and financial resources of teacher training colleges will be strengthened.	All College principals were trained in management of ADEM in the year 2004.
27	The training schedules of tutors will be reviewed to ensure that they can be deployed in schools for supervising practice teaching, and for conducting in-service training	There was evidence from informal discussion with tutors that they were over-burdened with college duties and field duties.
28	All staff and stakeholders with direct responsibility for PEDP implementation will be provided with basic PEDP information and guidelines.	Evidence from interviews shows that guidelines, directives and circulars were many.
29	The issues of HIV/AIDS, gender and governance will be mainstreamed into all management training.	Evidence from Ministry headquarters shows that there is a unit in the Ministry responsible for HIV/AIDS education.
30	All staff and stakeholders with direct responsibility for PEDP management will be given training to ensure that they have skills for participatory planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, and contribution to policy analysis and formulation.	Evidence from interviews with REO and DEO show that they were trained several times unlike the headteachers and teachers.
31	Inspectors will oversee training at district and ward, village and school levels. There will be a school inspection at a minimum of every two years.	By 2006 35% of primary schools were inspected (URT, 2006:82).
32	Head teachers will work together with school committees to produce and regularly up-date three-year school development plans. These will become the basis for all decisions regarding improvements in the quality and delivery of education, and new construction in the school.	Evidence from interviews with headteachers shows that the three year plans were not developed.
33	School committees will be provided with training regarding their new roles and responsibilities.	Evidence from Ministry records show that school committees were trained, however, the schools visited said school committees were not trained.
34	Financial authority for improving the quality of education at school level will be devolved to school level. All schools will open bank accounts.	Interviews with headteachers provided evidence that the schools opened bank accounts.
35	Financial management manuals will be produced and training provided that will enable school committees and administrators at each relevant level to understand and implement correct financial procedures.	The interviewed headteachers gave evidence of the financial management manuals; the manuals were also found at the Ministry Planning Department.
36	The concepts of accountability and transparency in the use of public funds will be emphasised in training and information provided to all levels of the education system, including to parents and communities.	Interviews with community members shows that they are aware of the emphasis on transparency of public funds.

S/N	INTENTIONS	EVIDENCE OF PROGRESS MADE
37	Additional supporting equipment and technology will be supplied and procedures developed that will ensure that appropriate flows of information and communication.	Evidence from school visits shows that no equipment or technology was supplied.
38	Training in the potential and use of EMIS will be provided. The emphasis will be on the role of managers and planners at all levels in gathering and communicating information quickly to stakeholders throughout the system.	From DEOs interviews there is evidence that training seminars included data collection.
39	At village ward, district and regional levels, extensive co-operation and collaboration between education staff and those from other sectors will be emphasised.	Evidence from review reports show that there were no collaborative efforts made between education staff.
40	Staff responsible for the implementation of the Primary Education Development Plan will be identified at central ministry level, and effective structures for co-ordination within and between ministries will be strengthened or established.	At the Ministry headquarter there was a PEDP coordinator and four staff.

APPENDIX B

FRAMEWORK FOR DATA AND INFORMATION COLLECTION

S/N	QUESTION	INFORMATION REQUIRED	SOURCES OF INFORMATION	PROCEDURE FOR COLLECTION
1.	What is the management process of educational change in primary education?	1. Factor that influenced change 2. Description of preparations made for the reform 3. Dissemination procedures for the reform 4. Strategies set for sustaining the reform	1. Educational officials 2. Students 3. Teachers 4. Parents	1. In-depth interviews 2. Focus group discussions
2.	What roles/are is being played by educational managers in implementing educational change in the primary education?	1. Perceptions of Teachers students, parents, DEOs, REOs, and ministry officials on their roles in implementing the reform 2. Knowledge of teachers, parents, DEO and ministry officials on their roles in implementing PEDP	1. Educational officials 2. Parents 3. Teachers 4. Ministry Officials	1. In-depth Interviews 2. Review of documents

S/N	QUESTION	INFORMATION REQUIRED	SOURCES OF INFORMATION	PROCEDURE FOR COLLECTION
3.	What management factors contribute to success or failure of educational change in primary education?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Implementation status of the reform 2. Progress made in fulfilling PEDP intentions 3. Description of factors affecting management of educational change 4. Difficulties encountered 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Parents 2. Teachers 3. WECs 4. DEOs 5. REO 6. Ministry Officials 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In-depth interviews 2. Focus group discussions 3. Review of documents
4.	What kind of educational change management is suitable for primary education?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Description of Successful Implementation Strategies 2. Support provided to promote the implementation of the reform 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Parents 2. Students 3. Teachers 4. DEOs 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. In-depth Interviews 2. Focus group discussions
5.	How is the current educational change in primary education relevant to the stakeholders?	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Views of stakeholders on the reform 2. Educational Change that has occurred 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Students 2. Parents 3. Teachers 4. Headteachers 5. Educational Leaders 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Focus group Discussion 2. In-depth Interview

S/N	QUESTION	INFORMATION REQUIRED	SOURCES OF INFORMATION	PROCEDURE FOR COLLECTION
6.	Why do stakeholders support or reject educational change in primary education?	1. Management styles of educational leaders 2. Attitudes towards change	1. Students 2. Parents 3. Teachers 4. Educational Leaders	In-depth interviews
7.	How do stakeholders participate in educational change in primary education?	1. Description of Implementation of reform activities 2. Understanding of the roles 3. Capacity building of stakeholders 4. Understanding of the reform objectives	1. Parents 2. Students 3. Teachers 4. Headteacher 5. Educational Leaders	1. In-depth Interview 2. Focus group discussions 3. Review of reform documents
8.	What makes educational change in primary education sustainable?	1. Participation of stakeholders in the reform 2. Opinions of stakeholders on status of PEDP implementation 3. Ownership of the Reform 4. Expectations of the stakeholders	1. Parents 2. Students 3. Teachers 4. Head teacher 5. Educational Leaders	1. In-depth interviews 2. Focus Group discussions 3. Observations

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR MINISTRY OFFICIALS

1. What roles did you play in implementing the Primary Education Development (PEDP)?
2. How were the roles communicated to you?
3. Describe a situation/in which PEDP has been successful.
4. How are you going to sustain the successes gained during PEDP implementation?
5. What is your assessment of management of PEDP from the Ministry to school level?
6. Do you see PEDP as a solution to the current problems being faced by the education system?
7. In your opinion what has PEDP improved in the schools?
8. How satisfied are you with PEDP implementation?

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR REGIONAL EDUCATION OFFICER AND DEOs

1. How long have you been in your position during PEDP implementation?
2. What are your roles in implementing PEDP?
3. How were the roles communicated to you?
4. Who within the education system do you consider to be designer of PEDP?
5. Describe a situation in which PEDP has been successful.
6. How are you going to sustain the successes gained during PEDP implementation?
7. What educational changes have you witnessed during PEDP implementation?
8. Do you see PEDP as a solution to the current problems being faced by the education system?
9. In your opinion, what has PEDP improved in the schools?
10. What is your assessment of management of PEDP from the Ministry to school level?
11. What major problems have you faced and how did you solve them?
12. How satisfied have you been with PEDP implementation?

APPENDIX E

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HEAD TEACHERS

1. How long have you been in your position during PEDP implementation?
2. What are your roles in implementing PEDP?
3. How were the roles communicated to you?
4. Who within the education system do you consider to be designer of PEDP?
5. When PEDP was introduced did you know the intended changes in the primary education?
6. What motivated you to implement PEDP?
7. Describe a situation in which PEDP has been successful.
8. How are you going to sustain the successes gained during PEDP implementation?
9. What educational changes have you witnessed during PEDP implementation?
10. Do you see PEDP as a solution to the current problems being faced by the education system?
11. In your opinion, what has PEDP improved in the schools?
12. What is your assessment of management of PEDP from the Ministry to school level?
13. What major problems have you faced and how did you solve them?
14. How satisfied have you been with PEDP implementation?
15. In what ways has your practice changed during the five years of PEDP implementation?

APPENDIX F

FOCUSED GROUP INTERVIEW GUIDELINES

1. Why was PEDP formulated? How was it disseminated?

Probe:

- Designers of PEDP
- Were the roles clear
- Preparation made
- Readiness for change
- Communications made

2. How was PEDP Implemented?

Probe:

- Roles of implementers
- Strategies for sustaining PEDP
- Management of PEDP
- Status of PEDP Implementation
- Extent to which PEDP intentions were fulfilled
- Changes experienced
- Weaknesses and strengths

3. What are the successes and failures of PEDP?

Probe:

- Changes witnessed
- Situation where PEDP has been successful
- Opinions on sustainability
- Problems faced
- Relevance of the reform
- Factors that affected management of PEDP

APPENDIX G

TRANSCRIBED INTERVIEW BETWEEN THE RESEARCHER AND ONE OF THE HEADTEACHERS

RESEARCHER: How long have you been in the teaching profession and in this school?

HEADTEACHER: I have been a teacher for 9 years and out of these 6 years as a head teacher of this school.

RESEARCHER: It is now 5 years since the government introduced the Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP). What has been your role in implementing the programme?

HEADTEACHER: I had many roles in implementing PEDP and the roles are still going on. Let me just tell you the most important ones. Well, my roles included working together with the school committee to make sure that the school buildings are constructed as planned. I had also the responsibility to buy school materials, make sure that all children brought to school are registered and write reports to the DEO.

RESEARCHER: To perform these roles you definitely need some training. How did you learn the skills required to implement PEDP?

HEADTEACHER: I got training through seminars and also we were given directives, circulars and guidelines during the seminars.

RESEARCHER: How useful were the seminars, directives and circulars?

HEADTEACHER: The seminars were not enough in terms of time. The circulars and directives were many. Some of them were not clear and there was no time to understand them. Reading a circular is one thing and implementing it is another. I think my experience worked better than the trainings.

RESEARCHER: Do you have an example of a directive that is not clear?

HEADTEACHER: For example we are supposed to make sure that all children aged 7 years are registered in the school but we don't know how many children are still at home. This could have been done easily by the village government.

RESEARCHER: Were you involved at any stage during the design of PEDP?

HEADTEACHER: PEDP was designed by the government. Normally this is the practice. We receive orders or guidelines from above. Our involvement is during implementation.

RESEARCHER: So what motivated you to implement PEDP the way you did?

HEAD TEACHER: Money is every thing. After getting the funds I got energy to implement the activities-construction of school buildings, buying school materials and writing reports. Of course the seminars were also motivating.

RESEACHER: What did you learn in the seminars?

HEADTEACHER: We were informed that the government has decided to introduce Universal Primary Education and we learned PEDP included building more classrooms, and registering all children aged seven years and those above were supposed to be registered in special classes.

RESEACHER: Can you describe a situation in which PEDP has been successful?

HEADTEACHER: We have been successful in building classrooms and admitting many children. We also got funds which we have never got to buy text books and desks. Before PEDP there were children who were sitting on the floor and text books were very few. On the whole I would say PEDP was successful.

RESEACHER: Do you see PEDP as a solution to educational problems and how do you visualise the future of PEDP?

HEADTEACHER: PEDP will stay if funds will continue to flow to maintain buildings and to buy lost text books. Many parents are poor and they cannot pay for the expenses. For sure if

there are no funds we will go back where we were. The problems have been solved but we still need more funds. We still need more classrooms and text books

RESEARCHER: What is your assessment of management of PEDP from the Ministry to school level?

HEADTEACHER: I think every body concerned with PEDP worked hard to make sure that the activities were done. I am not sure about management at Ministry level but at the district level sometimes funds were delayed and the amount of funds distributed was not as planned. Many people came to monitor implementation of PEDP especially school inspectors.

RESEACHER: In what ways has your practice changed during the years of PEDP implementation?

HEADTEACHER: During PEDP implementation I worked hard than I have ever done before. The activities were many. I worked with many people and learned from others as well.

RESEARCHER: How satisfied have you been with PEDP implementation?

HEADTEACHER: PEDP was good because it has changed the whole picture of our school in terms buildings and school attendance. For me I am satisfied.

APPENDIX H

OBSEVATION SCHEDULE FOR A DAY IN A THE SCHOOL

1. Activities of the head teacher from morning to end of working day.
In the office and out of the office.
2. Time spent by the head teacher to supervise teaching and learning in the classroom
3. Interaction with teachers and students
4. Interaction with people from outside the school
5. In formation displayed on notice body of the school and in offices concerning PEDP
6. How busy the head teacher and with what.
7. Time spent by the head teacher in the school and out side the school
8. Adherence to time tables.
9. 101Loitering during classroom hours
10. Classrooms without teachers

APPENDIX I

TRANSCRIBED FOCUS INTERVIEW WITH TEACHERS

MODERATOR: What do you think was the purpose of formulating PEDP?

PARTICIPANT 1: The government wanted to bring change in the primary education.

PARTICIPANT 2: The schools were in bad shape and enrolment in the schools was very low. I think the purpose was to improve the situation.

MODERATOR: How do you assess the preparations made before implementation of PEDP started?

PARTICIPANT 3: The only information we got was from the head teacher during staff meeting when we were informed that there is a new programme for universal primary education. Personally I also heard from the radio about the plan of the government to enrol all school age children.

PARTICIPANT 4: The government prepared itself but the preparations were not enough. I remember when we opened school in January 2002 the classrooms were not enough for the standard I pupils. As time went on things became better.

MODERATOR: So what you are saying is that PEDP was implemented without clear information and preparation?

PARTICIPANT 5: I agree but this should not be the case for every body. For us teachers that is the case.

MODERATOR: How successful PEDP was implemented?

PARTICIPANT 6: We have seen new class rooms, rise in the enrolments and new text books including other school materials but our conditions as teachers remain the same. We are

getting same salaries, same living conditions but our work load has increased. In short teachers have been forgotten.

PARTICIPANT 7: It is true that PEDP forgot us teachers and concentrated on constructions and materials. May be this is the success.