ASSESSMENT OF QUALITY OF EDUCATION IN TEMEKE
DISTRICT WARD SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

By
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A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for Award
of Degree of Master of Science in Human Resource Management (MSc. HRM)
of Mzumbe University

2013
CERTIFICATION

We, the undersigned, certify that we have read and hereby recommend for acceptance by the Mzumbe University, a dissertation entitled Assessment of Quality of Education in Ward Secondary Schools - A case of Temeke District in partial/fulfillment of the requirements for award of the degree of Master of Public Administration (MSc. HRM) of Mzumbe University.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved wife Mrs. Anna O.Mbata who encouraged and supported me to pursue further studies.

Secondly, the study is dedicated to my beloved Children Yusuf, Robinsson, Robert, Reuben and Esther for their patience and understanding which was necessary for accomplishment of this Challenging work.
LIST OF ABBREVIATION

CAG - Controller and Auditor General
JRF - Joint Rehabilitation Fund
LGAs - Local Government Authorities
MoEVT - Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
NGO’S - Non-governmental Organization
PEDP - Primary Education Development Programme
PMO-RALG - Prime Ministers Office, Regional and Local Government
PSM - Public Service Motivation
REPOA - Research on Poverty Alleviation
SEDP - Secondary School Development Plan
SPSS - Package for the Social Sciences
TANU - Tanganyika African National Union
UMCA - Universities Mission to Central Africa
UNESCO - United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural
UPE - Universal Primary Education
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess the quality of education in ward secondary schools in Tanzania where scarcity of teaching and learning material and lack of various education facilities are eminent.

Different motivation theories and models have been established in literature; these theories have been correlated with assessment to the quality of education in ward secondary schools in the different working settings. In this study researcher opted to assess the quality of education in Temeke district ward secondary schools.

This study had the following specific objectives: - To explore the quality of instructional material available in ward secondary schools in Temeke district, to assess various methods used by teachers and the number of teachers teaching in Temeke district, to explore quality of facilities and learning environment of the schools.

This was a Case Study design with both qualitative and quantitative research methods; Research data were collected through use of structured questionnaires and interview guide which included the total number of 57 respondents and analyzed by statistical package for social science, submitted to the respondents who were ready to provide advance information in this research.

Research findings revealed that there were several problems faced by both teachers and students in teaching and learning process. This included lack of sufficient and competent teachers, laboratories, libraries, overcrowded classroom, poor environment, shortage of text books, and lack of incentives and rewards for teachers. It was recommended that among other things government should create awareness to increase the number of teachers so as to balance the student’s teacher’s ration. Schools should be provided with enough teaching and learning material to ease the process. Laboratories, equipment, books and libraries need immediate attention and lastly summary, conclusion and recommendation.
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1.1 Introduction
This chapter provides introduction on the concept of quality of education in ward Secondary Schools. The main focus of the study was to find out factors that affect the academic performance of ward secondary schools which academically have been very poor compared to other Government and Non-Governmental Secondary Schools. The chapter includes statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions and significance of the study. Moreover, the chapter also presents limitations and delimitations of the study as well as the conceptual framework that guided the whole study.

1.2 Background of the Problem
Objectively, any good education system aspires to produce graduates who are knowledgeable and well equipped with necessary attitudes as well as skills. This will enhance the country’s development since education is the vital key for any future inventions, discoveries and solutions to several challenges facing the world today due advancement of science and technology. Quality of education has always depended much on the country’s economic status and government’s commitment level to the education sector. Furthermore quality of education is determined by how much a country invests in its educational recipients (Galabawa 2001).

The achievements of education sector in any country, Tanzania inclusive depends on many factors working simultaneously. At School level for example, such factors include; principals, teachers, supporting staff, learners, teaching facilities and instructional materials for both teachers and students (Galabawa 2001). The presence of these resources and facilities, facilitates and easy the whole process of teaching and learning. Thus, the Secondary schools need to have enough, learning materials and qualified teachers so as to achieve the predetermined goals of secondary
education. In contrary, lack of these instructional materials facilities and qualified teachers would lead to students’ poor performance hence poor quality of education.

Various studies conducted to find out factors affecting the quality of education and revealed many weakness and difficult environmental circumstances that influence the poor quality of education.

Osaki (1991) and Simengwa (2004) revealed the shortage of teachers and learning materials in our secondary schools. These problems still exist and more often the government has been complaining about in adequate funds to support social services, education being one of them. Therefore it calls for parents and private sectors (education stakeholders) to assist in promoting well resourced education programmes. However, there are some parents who are not ready to contribute for education programmes. Shortage of teaching and learning materials is a very big problem due to the rapid expressions and an increase number of secondary schools in our country (Carl 2005).

Education programmes in Tanzania are characterized by linear quantitative expansions, which undermine quality and relevance (Galabawa 2001). The rapid increase of government and non-government secondary schools in many regions and districts is due to political pressures and competition among groups of parents. Non-governmental organizations (NGO’s) or Local Leaderships do not match with the availability of teaching and learning materials. The difference in ration has resulted in substandard schools and decline in quality of secondary education.

Many African Countries including Tanzania fail to provide an environment for effective schooling instead schools are characterized by overcrowded classrooms, under qualified teachers, unmotivated teachers, limited learning materials and poor retention of pupils in schools the totality of which resulted into low learning level (World Bank 2004), Galabawa and Norman 2004). Therefore the need to provide apparatus and equipment to improve the quality of education cannot be overlooked by government for better future achievement.
1.3 Statement of the Problem

The Secondary School Development Plan (SEDP) launched in 2004 is geared towards increasing access and improving equity and quality of secondary education. SEDP has lead to significant expansion of secondary sector. Many Secondary schools have doubled and tripled student’s enrolment. Some former primary schools have been converted into secondary schools but with very weak infrastructures which have a great effect on effective teaching and learning practices.

Despite of the government effort to provide quality education in Tanzania, the evidence has shown that students studying in ward secondary schools have been and are still performing poorly in their final examinations. The information obtained from the ministry of education indicates that many ward secondary students are lagging behind other government and non-governmental schools. Thus the objective of this study is to assess the quality of education in Ward Secondary Schools so as to come up with recommendations which can be very useful in the improvements of quality of education in these schools.

1.4 Research Objective

The objectives of this study are classified into two main groups that is general and specific objectives as follows;

1.4.1 General Objective

The general objective of this study was to assess the quality of education in ward secondary schools in Temeke district.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of this study were;

(i.) To explore the quality of instructional materials available in ward secondary schools in Temeke district.

(ii.) To assess various methods used by teachers and the number of teachers teaching in Temeke district.

(iii.) To explore quality of facilities and learning environment of the school.
To determine ways in minimizing difficulties experienced by ward secondary in academic performance. Where I decided to use simple random techniques which allowed to get or capture the information from a great number in a short period of time where the chances of inclusiveness was high, and the sample was selected randomly was used for quantitative analysis and the questionnaire were administered to them.

1.5 **Research Questions**

Research questions were related to the research problem, the aim was to understand the situation and to assess the major existing problems in order to impose the possible solutions:

(i.) What is the quality of instructional materials available in ward secondary schools in Temeke district?

(ii.) What are the various methods used by teachers in teaching students in Temeke district?

(iii.) How are the learning and teaching environment of these schools?

(iv.) What are the difficulties experienced by ward secondary schools in the efforts to improve the quality of education?

1.6 **Significance of the Study**

(i.) The result of the study will assists in sensitizing the government and policy makers on the problems faced by students in studying and provide recommendations on how such problems can be solved.

(ii.) The findings will help teachers to use the available resources in teaching and learning process. This will help teachers and learners to find out some ways to improve teaching and learning process in secondary schools.

(iii.) Furthermore, it is anticipated that the findings of this study will enable stakeholders to understand factors contributing to poor performance of students and thus to take strong measures to solve the problem.
1.7 **Scope of the Study**

This study focuses extensively on assessment of quality of education in ward secondary schools in Tanzania where scarcity of teaching and learning materials and lack of various education facilities are eminent in Temeke district. This include lack of sufficient and competent teachers, laboratories, libraries, overcrowded classrooms, poor environment, shortage of text books, and lack of incentives and rewards for teacher.

1.8 **Limitation of the Study**

Due to lack of full cooperation from respondents, most of the questionnaires were returned unfilled. To some extent this affected the research findings. Another limitation was the accessibility of relevant documents that give the secondary data. The researcher faced a difficulty on accessing various documents like progressive reports in schools which was very crucial as a source of latest information.

The other limitations were time and shortage of funds to facilitate this study, hence small sample size.

Furthermore, with the problems encountered during the study researcher managed to distribute as many questionnaires which in return brought back available needed number of the respondents and thus didn’t affect the research process, also using an extra effort to go back to Temeke education officer for addition data collection on time with maximum cooperation from office of district education officer.

1.9 **Organization of study**

This research is organized into five chapters. Chapter one is introductory chapter which gives the general introduction of the research. Chapter two gives the literature review, where the educational system, educational decentralization, plus motivation theories, empirical literature are reviewed to provide the critical analysis for the study. Chapter three provide research methodology and data collection procedures to be followed by the researcher. Chapter four shows data finding and discussion of the
results, while chapter five give a clear summary of research findings, conclusions and recommendation.

1.10 Definition of the key terms

**Education** in its general sense is a form of learning in which the knowledge, skills, and habits of a group of people are transferred from one generation to the next through teaching, training, or research. Dewey, J (1916)

**Education** is the delivery of knowledge, skills, and information from teachers to students. [www.teach-kids-attitude-1st.com/definition-of-education. 21/10/2013]

**Education system** is the system of formalized transmission of knowledge and values operating within a given society. [sociology.socialsciencedictionary.com/.../EDUCATION 21/10/2013]

**Quality** means a lack of deficiencies, a lack of errors that would require redoing the work, or that result in operational errors, unsatisfied clients, complaints, etc. In this sense, quality is related to costs. Machuca et al., (1995).

**Improvement in quality** is defined as continuing improvement or a recurring activity to expand the ability to achieve the requirements (ISO 9000, 2000).
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a review of literatures related to the study. It presents insights on what has already been done in the selected field by pinpointing the strength and weakness of the previous studies addressing factors affecting the quality of education in secondary school in Tanzania. The chapter contains the significance of the scarcity of teaching and learning materials in order to improve the day to day teaching and learning activities. It also contains information on student’s academic performance. The synthesis of literature and the research gap conclude the chapters.

2.2 Empirical Literature Review

2.2.1 Tanzania - Educational System overview

Between the ages of 7 and 14 education is compulsory and free. The adult literacy rate is 68 percent, which is high for Africa. The national language is Swahili, but English is widely used in schools. Chagga, Gogo, Haya, Hehe, Sukuma, Maasai, and other languages are also spoken, but rarely used as the medium of instruction.

In the 20 years preceding World War I, Germany created a three-tiered system of education. There were 60 nebenschulen (primary schools), which offered 3 years of courses in reading, writing, and arithmetic; there were also 9 hauptschulen that offered 2 additional years of vocational training. Germany built one oberschule or high school in Tanga, which offered clerical, industrial, and teacher training, as well as some academic courses. At its zenith, the high school had 500 students and 4 German teachers on its staff. Although Swahili was the language of instruction, German was offered as a foreign language. Missionaries were also encouraged to create schools for the indigenous population. By 1900, there were 600 missionary schools with a combined enrollment of over 50,000 students. In 1914, more than 95 percent of students enrolled in Tanganyika's schools were in mission schools. The
number of schools had grown to over 1,000, and total enrollment climbed to 150,000 students. Government schools aimed to produce clerks, tax collectors, interpreters, artisans, and craftsmen, while missionaries aimed to produce westernized Christian converts, alienated from their own traditional culture. Since missionaries educated most Africans, it is not surprising that at independence many were hostile to traditional chiefs. Missionary schools were uncompromising spearheads of Westernization.

The German system did not educate girls because Western education began along the Muslim Coast where custom dictated that girls not be educated. It emphasized submissiveness, not enlightenment, in women.

This educational system laid a firm foundation for a national language, Kiswahili, and secular education. German administrators often corresponded in Swahili. The Germans laid a small but solid foundation for Tanzania's educational system. In 1903 there were 8 government schools and 15 mission schools. No statistics are available on the number of students in 1903. By 1911 the German colonial government had built 83 schools, while missionaries built 918 schools in Tanganyika. Government schools had 3,192 students, while missionary schools taught 63,455 students. In 1914, there were 99 German colonial government sponsored schools. By contrast, missionaries had constructed 1,852 schools. Government schools educated 6,100 students, but missionary schools educated an amazing 155,287. Clearly, missionaries educated the overwhelming majority of Tanganyikan pupils during the German colonial era.

The German system of education put emphasis on practical education and health improvement. When England took over, they were impressed by the standard of literacy reached by Tanzanian Africans, especially those who had had the opportunity to study science and math in Germany. They produced skilled workers for the German colonial enterprise. Their schools were less like the German gymnasiums, which emphasized Latin and classical learning, and more like the
German Volksschule, which were geared to the general public. The British adopted the German policy of cooperation with mission schools in the fight against illiteracy. All education stopped in Tanzania during World War I. With Germany's defeat, the victors divided the territory between Portugal, Belgium, and Britain. Britain administered what came to be known as Tanganyika, a trust territory, under a League of Nations mandate. Britain's stated educational purpose in 1920 was to develop the people, as far as possible, on their own lines and in accordance with their own values and customs. Britain allowed missionaries to play a major role in education and subsidized schools, which gave them greater control over the curriculum. The Universities Mission to Central Africa (UMCA) schools was Anglican and very British. Anglican schools had the biggest single influence on Tanzanian education during the British era. Despite this, over 80 percent of mission schools were foreign, non-British. This presented a security problem after 1926 when the League of Nations readmitted Germany, and German missionaries returned to teach in Tanzania.

The British government needed to educate the children of the local elite to make their policy of indirect rule work. They opened a special school at Tabora in 1924 for sons of chiefs. Their aim was to produce future administrators, clerks, and artisans. They created a bold experiment at the Malangali government school whereby Africans were to be helped to preserve and modify their own culture until a satisfactory adjustment was made to the Europeanized environment. Missionaries denounced this school on the grounds that tribal elders were using it to inculcate pagan, non-Christian beliefs. Their hostility caused the school to fail. Missionaries opposed also native authority schools paid for by African chiefs to train their own elite. These schools ultimately failed, too. The missionaries' goals were to produce devout, educated Christians. They were not concerned with manpower needs. Missionaries devoted attention to vocational training so that African Christians could make money to take care of themselves, as well as give to the churches. Thus, they built many ill-equipped bush schools. The British government, on the other hand, wanted to produce only as many graduates as it planned to hire for existing work.
The most critical element in the British vocational curriculum was agriculture. This quickly degenerated into school headmasters exploiting free student labor on large school farms. Parents resented this. For most African farmers, education was one way to remove them from harsh rural living, not a means of returning to rural areas with improved techniques and the ability to make farming pay more through the application of science. Each family felt that it needed at least one salaried person to earn money in urban areas and remit cash to village relatives. Africans did not want to return to the land, so they pressed for post primary education. The British continued the German pattern of using Swahili as the medium of instruction. The use of vernacular languages for instruction was losing ground. However, as Africans discovered that knowledge of English was associated with higher pay, English began to force out Swahili as the language of instruction in high schools and universities. Just prior to independence it was common to use English as the medium of instruction from the fourth grade on. Swahili was used in the lower grades.

Between 1923 and 1961, enrollment in Tanzanian schools can be described in the following manner. British colonial education in Tanzania in 1923 witnessed enrollments of 4,907 students in government schools. That same year mission schools educated 115,000 students and no statistics are available on assisted schools. By 1931 British colonial schools were educating 7,505 students, while Mission schools educated 159,959; again, no statistics are available for assisted schools. The year 1935 saw 8,105 pupils in British schools, 217,736 pupils in Mission schools, and no numbers are available on the number of pupils in assisted schools. In 1941, there were 13,370 students in British colonial government schools, no numbers are available for Mission schools, and 26,300 students were attending assisted schools.

In the midst of World War II, British schools enrolled 17,005 students, no figures are available for Mission schools, and assisted schools enrolled 31,200 students. A new pattern emerged when World War II ended. America entered the war based on the Atlantic Agreement, which guaranteed that if the United States helped Britain win, Britain would end colonialism and open its lucrative markets to American competition. It was not surprising, therefore, that by 1961, in preparation for
independence, Mwingira reported that British government schools enrolled 486,470 students. No statistics are available on enrollments in 1961 for either Mission or Assisted schools.

In Zanzibar, the vast majority of schools were governmental schools. In some ways, Zanzibar's system compared favorably with mainland Tanganyika's. African primary school students received six years of education rather than four, and no school fees were charged on the islands; mainland children paid fees. In rural areas Africans attended primary school up to grade six, after which they went to middle school through grade eight. City students attended primary school uninterrupted from grades 1 through 8. Urban schools were better funded, had better teachers and, consequently, more children from urban schools gained entry into secondary schools. In 1958, approximately 63 percent of primary school aged urban children attended school. By contrast, in the same year, less than 35 percent of rural children attended primary school. Africans fared better on the mainland where 45 percent were in school. On the island of Pemba, only 14 percent of rural children were enrolled in school. The few missionary and private schools on the islands had a negligible influence on the educational system. For all intents and purposes Zanzibar's educational system, before the revolution, was one of the sparks that ignited revolution.

Former president Nyerere opposed a system that allowed money to buy votes and advantaged entrance into high cost, high quality schools for rich children, thus excluding the majority of students who might be just as intelligent, but lacked basic necessities. All schools became nationalized. Most colonial schools were run by missionaries and were private. Independence ushered in an era in which public schools dominated the training of Tanzania's next generation of workers, professionals, and leaders. Some ethnic groups, such as the Chagga, grew cash crops, had efficient cooperatives to help farmers succeed, and could afford a better education for their children. Other ethnic groups, like the Hadza, who hunted animals and gathered nuts and fruits for a living, were poor and had no idea what advantages an education could confer upon their children. To insure equal educational
opportunities, Nyerere created a school entrance system based on ethnic quotas. He did this in the interest of fairness and to make the future workforce and leadership representative of all Tanzania's citizens. Without a doubt, this selection system excluded some bright, hard working, deserving students. It also admitted some ill prepared students from other ethnic groups, but it created a national culture of inclusion, reduced ethnic tensions, made students from all ethnic groups feel that they had opportunities for advancement, and brought national stability and peace. It seems a small price to pay for the tranquility it has bought Tanzania.

United Nations' surveys of education in Tanzania reveal that in 1980 Tanzania enrolled 3,361,228 students in primary schools, 67,396 students in secondary schools and no statistics are available on university enrollment. A decade later, primary schools enrolled nearly 3.3 million students, while secondary schools enrolled 167,150 students, and Dar es Salaam University enrolled 7,468 students. The year 1996 saw these numbers increase as there were nearly 3.9 million students enrolled in primary schools, an additional 211,664 students enrolled in secondary schools, and university enrollments had doubled to 14,882. The year 1997 witnessed 4 million students enrolled in primary schools throughout Tanzania, an additional 234,743 students enrolled in secondary schools, and 17,812 students enrolled in universities in Tanzania (United Nations Statistical Yearbook 57)

2.2.2 Tanzania - Secondary Education
Secondary education was given priority immediately after independence because most civil servants only needed a high school diploma to hold office, and the ruling party, then known as TANU (Tanganyika African National Union), was eager to Africanize the Civil Service and replace British expatriate workers. Swahili is compulsory, and students must receive a passing score in this subject to earn a form four certificate. Secondary schooling has two levels known as Ordinary or "O" level, which extends from form one through form four, and culminates with an examination leading to the National School Certificate award and Advanced or "A" level. The advanced level courses are similar to U.S. junior college courses; however, most students planning to attend university must complete this level and take an
examination leading to the National Higher School Certificate before applying for entrance into a university in Tanzania. Students take frequent tests to encourage good study habits. Students are also graded on their attitudes, patriotism, demonstrated dedication to social causes, and overall behavior. This assessment counts for one-third of a pupil's grade. Four subjects are stressed in agriculture, commerce, technical skills, and home economics. They are offered to help achieve the goal of self-reliance. Each student takes one of these subjects. In forms five and six, students are required to study languages, arts and sciences, mathematics, commercial subjects, technology, and military science.

Several decades ago, each region of Tanzania had one or more secondary school, usually in an urban area. These were boarding schools in most cases, since students' homes were far from the schools. Quality varied from region to region. Students wore uniforms to minimize class distinctions. Pupils from all ethnic groups had a reasonable chance of advancing to university due to the ethnic quota system. As the primary school base enlarged dramatically and secondary school enrollment stagnated, the number of grammar school graduates who went on to high school dropped from 30 percent in 1970 to a mere 4 percent by 1980. Since 1980, excess demand has forced the government to allow private schools to help meet the great demand for secondary education in Tanzania. Little difference has been noted in the quality of education in Tanzania's private and public schools, even though many believe that low-income students have less access to private schools. After 1980, with private sector involvement, secondary schools have expanded faster than primary schools.

Secondary education has grown more slowly than primary education in Tanzania because the government limited output to graduates it could absorb through employment. Planned growth called for an increase of 30 percent enrollment every 5 years. The growth of private secondary schools has meant that this target has been exceeded. High school graduation is a privilege extended to a few who are expected to bear the responsibility for running the community education.
2.2.3 The Context of Decentralization in Education system in Tanzania

In Tanzania, decentralization is viewed as the downward shift of control of some administrative functions to the lower level units (United Republic of Tanzania 1998). It is a means of offering the promise for the new mode of organizing local affairs (Gershberg and Winkler 2004: 323). The intention is to attain broader locally based decision making and raise the commitment at the local level (Therkildsen 2000: 407). The decentralization reform in Tanzania has been carried out as a way for the government to respond to the pressure from the World Bank in the perspective of economic, social and political changes of the late 1980s and early 1990s (Munga et al; 2009).

The introduction of the Bill of Rights and multi-party democracy in the Constitution of the United Republic of Tanzania in 1985 and 1992 respectively have expanded the potential space for freedom and the need for the local level stakeholders to be directly responsible for the affairs in the localities (Baker et al; 2002). The demand is for the devolution of responsibilities for service provision to the action units in the localities (decentralization by devolution). It is based on the belief that the great potential for social and economic development in Tanzania depends on the greater participation of the grassroots institutions in the local affairs for shaping their destiny (Baker et al; 2002). Thus the economic rationale for decentralization, apart from the cost savings from reduced bureaucracy and faster decision making, can lead to an increase in the provision of service which is in line with the local needs (Hutchinson 2002:2).

Education decentralization in Tanzania is part of the more general government decentralization programme started in the 1990s. Its goal is to provide the avenue towards improving the system of providing education service in the country. It is an attempt to involve the lower organs in their areas of jurisdiction in the management of education (Gershberg and Winkler 2004: 345). The experience has shown that highly centralized practices in the provision of education service in Tanzania tend to ignore the peculiarities of various localities in the educational development process (United Republic of Tanzania 2001b: 8). Therefore, decentralizing decision-making
to the local level is considered as a means to reduce the time required for making decisions as well as increasing the likelihood that decisions will be made with the benefits of local knowledge of conditions (Hutchinson 2002).

The emphasis on education decentralization in Tanzania has also been influenced by the 1990 Jomtien Declaration adopted in the United Nations meeting on education held in Dakar, Senegal. The declaration provides that education is the basic right of everyone (Education for All). All United Nations member countries have ratified this declaration. In order to implement the Jomtien Declaration, in 1994 the Government of Tanzania designed a grand programme called ‘Basic Education Master Plan.’ The plan puts emphasis on the decentralization of responsibilities for planning, implementation and supervision of education service to schools and communities as a strategy to help the government to realize the goal towards the education for all. This initiative could be regarded as an ambition to the major reform and departure from the old practice where plans have been drawn from above (Ministry of Education and Culture 1998).

Generally education decentralization aims at giving powers to schools and communities to plan and implement school development plans. It is a means for the communities to see educational plans as their own and not as an outside thing (Ministry of Education and Culture 1998).

The initiative taken in 1994 was followed by the formulation of the Education and Training policy of 1995. Given the emphasis of this policy on the education for all, Tanzania has increased both the enrolment and completion rates in primary education. For instance, it is noted that in the early 2000s Tanzania managed to achieve 98% of the Universal Primary Education (UPE) targets and this is a sign of the increased demand for secondary education as well as the need for change in education policy emphasis to include secondary education (Wedgwood 2007). According to the UNESCO Statistics (1998) quoted in the United Republic of Tanzania, Secondary Education Master Plan (2000), for three decades since independence up to the late 1990s, the Gross Secondary Enrolment Ratio in the
country has been below 6% in public secondary schools. Given the fact that the
government alone cannot cope with the current demand for secondary education
service, the entry of other providers who do not have restrictions in the provision of
secondary education service is inevitable. This has accelerated decentralizing
secondary education provision to the wards in Tanzania (Gershberg & Winkler
2004).

2.2.4 Decentralization in Secondary education
Decentralization in Secondary Education in Tanzania has started to gain momentum
in the early 2000s. This has been within the framework put forward in Secondary
Education Development Programme (SEDP) (United Republic of Tanzania 2004a).
Being the framework for secondary education decentralization, the programme
addresses the government policy for decentralization (1998) on the management of
the delivery of education service in the secondary education subsector.

The programme puts emphasis on the community based developmental approach for
the intention of eliciting greater lower level participation in secondary education
 provision. The objective is to enable secondary education provision to utilize the
opportunities found in the localities and to expand the access of secondary education
in order to increase the transition rate from primary to secondary schools in Tanzania
(United Republic of Tanzania 2004a). The motive behind this has been the state of
secondary education in the country between the late 1990s and early 2000s which has
acted as a disincentive to the achievements reached in primary education.

2.2.5 Overview of Policy Framework for Education Decentralization
The policy framework sets the structure and the operation of the particular issue that
needs the government’s attention for the purpose of attaining the goals (Anderson
1997; Gupta 2001). Since its beginning in the late 1990s, the current decentralization
has received the government’s attention through the development of a Policy Paper
for Decentralization (1998) which to some extent relates to other policies such as the
Public Service Management and Employment Policy (1999) and the Education and
2.2.6 Education Policy in context

Current education reform literature in Tanzania points to decentralization as the key component of reform. Decentralization in education involves bringing in different actors and agents; non-governmental organization, state bureaucracy and international aid agencies working together to improve education. Decentralization as the defining component is agreed upon because universally, decentralization is regarded as a tool for building democracy “on the basis of greater local sovereignty and increased responsiveness to the needs of marginalized groups” (Kamat, 2002:2). However, what is significant to note and consequential to this particular study is that comparative analysis of decentralization has shown us that there are various models of decentralization, some of which translate into greater centralization and others which have exacerbated the social inequalities that exist at the local level (Bray, 1999; Puiggros, 1996; Riddell, 1996 in Kamat, 2002:2). Some would observe that often a system appears decentralized, when in fact there is no decision making responsibility at the local levels, especially in the African context.

Decentralization embraces various forms such as deconcentration (strengthening of regional offices of education ministries), devolution (responsibilities given to local governments) and delegation of responsibilities to school councils. Moreover, there is involvement by the donor community in Africa and notably in Tanzania, which plays an important role in the reform process as a whole and education reform in particular. This brings in an important issue to be noted; that of the stakeholders in the policy process.

Moulton (2002) points to the importance of recognizing and acknowledging the significance of stakeholders in the policy process who often continue to negotiate priorities in a context of certain levels of uncertainty. The concept of central agents is introduced here defined as a small group of individuals who dominate reform ideology and formation. This is arguably the donor community in Tanzania, serving to produce what has been referred to by the presence of ‘technocratic policy making’ by Bunwaree (2005).
This brings to question the manner in which policy is not only formulated, but further the type of technology and agents employed in the implementing of policy. This stems from the proposition that foreign assistance is necessary to rehabilitate African education systems and that the type of change that should occur has its foundation from traditionally ‘western’ ideological canons (Samoff, 1993). What this observation does is illustrate the potential implications for implementation processes as education policy will be administered using various actors and agents from different areas; international, national, regional and municipalities. Further, education policy traditionally has been understood to be a directive of the state confined to national boundaries.

However, education policies worldwide take on similar and diverse characteristics signaling the potential for policies to be constructed based on the lens worn by the state. Education policy can be understood to be the product of different traditions in public policy. Some point to intuitionalism (Lub & Matveev), others as a product of policy transfer (Hulme), while some look to education policy as the product of the world-system in place (Shaw 2004; Leher 2004). It is important to acknowledge that education policy can be understood by difference theoretical approaches based on the lenses worn. This section has specifically made an attempt to address this point.

However, what is evident is that these broader theoretical approaches do not take into account the entire picture and there are elements of the aversion towards a ‘one size fits all’ approach to public policy. Additionally, with the case of developing countries, there is undisputed recognition that reforms are taking place in very complex environments. Educational activities therefore must be grounded on the view of using an approach that can accommodate multiple lenses that reveal the complexities of Africa’s political and power contentions in the landscape of public education; an approach that can accommodate for both structure and agency. Contingency theory is argued here to be better suited to deal with both the structure and agency components involved in the intricate settings of the Third World in general, and sub-Saharan Africa in particular. This is because contingency approach as an analytical tool, can better explain the outcomes of policy issues and the
behaviour of people, but also takes into account structural and institutional components of the policy process.

This policy paper has its genesis from the ruling party (Chama Cha Mapinduzi) election manifesto of 1995, and both the recommendations for the national conference on a shared vision for local government in Tanzania and the local government reform agenda of 1996. The policy paper sets the broad guideline for decentralization in Tanzania. The main emphasis is to decentralize the responsibilities for social service provision, including education service to the localities, in order to improve the state of service delivery (United Republic of Tanzania 1998).

The policy paper on decentralization provides that the improved service delivery requires human resource function and especially that of recruitment to be governed by less cumbersome procedures and be more responsive to the actual needs of the local and grassroots institutions. The policy paper insists that in order to achieve the objective of decentralization, no uniform structure needs to be introduced and imposed on the local institutions (United Republic of Tanzania 1998). Hence the role of the central institutions (from the ministries, regional administration to the headquarters of the local government authorities) is not to perform those decentralized responsibilities but rather to issue policies, guidelines and standards to be followed by the local level institutions.

2.2.6.2 Public Service Management and Employment Policy 1999
This policy instrument enables the government to take strong measures to improve the management of service provision to the public. For a long time the government in Tanzania, through its central institutions, has been performing almost everything in the provision of services. The system of regarding the central institutions as the sole providers has failed to meet the challenges and expect stations raised by the increased demand in the service delivery in the localities. That means, as argued by Harrison and Shirom (1999), ‘when power and authority are highly centralized,
control over important (human) resources and delivery of services is concentrated in the higher ranks (central institutions).’ This approach tends to increase the burden on the central institutions and reduces their ability to adequately solve the diverse problems occurring in the localities.

Therefore the aim of this policy instrument is to reform the role of the central institutions from being the sole providers into being enabling and facilitating institutions. While on the other hand, the decentralized responsibility for service delivery is supposed to be shifted to the local level institutions. With respect to recruitment, the policy provides that the role of the central institutions is to facilitate the process in the local institutions to ensure that the standards set in the recruitment practice that is, being competitive, transparent and based on the merit principles are adhered to (United Republic of Tanzania 1999b). The Public Service Management and Employment Policy further points out that in order to sustain decentralization as a means to empower the local institutions, the actors in them need to be visionary and with the capacity to act. The policy notes that the highly centralized system of personnel recruitment is the reason for poor staff deployment and the unbalanced distribution of personnel in public service.

Impact of Governance Aspects on Service Delivery

1. Transparency and Equity

Equity has been a guiding principle in Tanzania since independence. It says in the NETP/1995 that:

(i.) Government shall guarantee access to pre-primary and primary education and adult literacy to all citizens as a basic right

(ii.) Government shall promote and ensure equitable distribution of educational institutions

This has been reinforced through the current version of the poverty reduction strategy where goal number 3 is ‘ensuring equitable access to quality primary and
secondary education for boys and girls, universal literacy among women and men and expansion of higher, technical and vocational education’.

In terms of inputs all indicators show a positive trend in Tanzania as enrolment rates are up, recruitment of teachers has been increased and more recurrent and capital funding are reaching the school levels. However, there are still considerable funds needed for construction of classrooms and for recruitment of teachers in the coming years. As Table 3-8 illustrates above the teacher/pupil rate remains very high even after a recruitment drive and upward trend of recruitment of new teachers during the past 5 years. However, some improvements have been noted in terms of availability of textbooks and materials overall throughout the country the past few years as the Capitation Grant gives more local responsibility for purchasing textbooks.

In terms of transparency some initiatives are being implemented to strengthen the monitoring and evaluation functions. In addition, all government MDAs and LGAs move to enhance transparency by drafting anti-corruption strategies and action plans that were completed for all LGAs and submitted for final government approval in June 2005. Transparency towards the local communities is still weak even though measures such as posting notices on notice boards in villages, schools and wards have been taken. There seems to be a discrepancy between the need for equitable distribution of teachers throughout the country and one of the main points of decentralization, namely the issue of recruitment and overall management of teachers at district levels. It was stated during our field visits that recruitment of teachers could be done by the local authorities but they are not given the proper tools in the legislation, or support from CG, to enable them to carry out this. CG plays the card of equity to ensure that recruitment and control over teachers remains at central level.

2. Participation
Through the adoption of the Micro-Planning Guideline in 2002, schools and SCs where more involved with planning and executing activities at school level. SCs in
collaboration with sub-district councils play a key role in mobilization of resources. Accountability and reporting of these resources is poor. For instance, resources mobilized at the school level are not covered in school reports, for example, NGO contributions towards construction of schools. However, overall the reports focus more on financial resource inputs rather than outputs. The outcome orientation advocated through MKUKUTA requires that a bias towards outputs be adopted. This is not limited to the local government but also central government.

The value of such reports for decision making in addressing identified weaknesses may need to be enhanced. PETS, which is an important instrument for monitoring and tracking expenditure flows, has been used in Tanzania (Research on Poverty Alleviation (REPOA) 2003) but under criticism from the government side. Participation has become the cornerstone in all aspects of local development in Tanzania and the O&OD principle has been instituted as the participatory planning guide at local level. However, none of the visited districts had completed an O&OD exercise yet and their still seems to be quite some confusion in terms of conflicting planning guidelines traditionally used by the sector and how it will relate to the O&OD when conducted.

It was pointed out several times during the field visits that the local communities are confused in terms of contributing to several competing (TASAF II, LGCDG, Joint Rehabilitation Fund (JRF), PEDP etc.) and different development funding programmes at local level that all target potential school construction, health facilities, agriculture projects etc. And these funding have various degrees of community contribution attached (from 15 % in kind contributions to 5 % in cash). While parents are contributing less in direct payment to schools, they argue that they contribute more as direct contributions to development projects. So as participation has increased over the past few years and the communities feel a larger degree of ownership of the local school and the elements of planning, it is obvious that most people feel that decentralisation has brought more involvement and participation into the educational system at village level. All the village assemblies we talked to during our filed visits emphasised this point.
3. Accountability

A review of the Controller & Auditor General (CAG) reports on LGA accounts reveal improvements in financial management as evidenced in the trends in the number of clean certificates issued, adverse audit reports and disclaimer reports. (PMO-RALG PER for FY 2004/2005). The recent education sector review showed, that audit reports from 2003 (most recent available) taken for one district in 5 regions, that the main problem was the statements of expenditure, which should consolidate reports on actual utilization of PEDP funds by schools together with council records. Disbursements to school bank accounts from the district treasury have already been recorded as actual expenditures immediately upon transfer. This is because the schools did not compile or submit quarterly reports. Expenditure at school level was unknown which is a worrying sign. In addition to the identification of any specific ‘irregularities’, there were a number of other general financial management issues that arose in several or all of the districts.

Classroom construction: certificates not issued by district engineer to provide evidence of inspections, standard building plan not always followed.

(i.) No cross-reference between cashbooks and invoices or receipts in primary schools.

(ii.) Lack of internal audit.

(iii.) No evidence of approval of fund requests.

(iv.) Incomplete or missing textbook and fixed asset registers.

(v.) Cash payments without proper receipts.

These deficiencies occur despite regular and repeated training. The introduction of a centralized payment system has improved expenditure control, as commitments cannot exceed budgeted funds; and there is now more formal record keeping (interview with PMO-RALG). Currently only around 50 % of LGAs have computerized accounts; full roll-out of IFMS would help improve monitoring and reporting. For 2004 – 2005, about half of schools submitted a financial report, although this varied between none in seven regions and over 90 % in four regions (data from PMO-RALG), although no attempt appears to have been made to check
them and they had not been verified. It seems that the problem goes beyond training and happens because of general lack of management at local levels.

4. Service Delivery Efficiency
The major areas of concern across the whole education system are: the efficiency of resource use, the relationship between inputs and outputs, and the effectiveness of graduates and the relevance of the education provided. Table 3-8 shows that the primary school enrolment rate has increased significantly over the past 6 years. The abolition of school fees has clearly been important but there is also the question of compulsion; some of those parents who have not enrolled their children in school have been fined. The primary PTR in Tanzania in 2001 was around 46:1 and has risen to 52:1 in 2005. But there are wide disparities in human-resource allocation, urban-rural differentiation and distribution across provinces and schools. At secondary school level the PTRs varied in 2000 from a high of 57 in Shinyanga to the lowest value of 26 in Lindi, and in 2005 from 74 in Shinyanga to 40 in Ruvuma and These differences need to be addressed so as to avoid further disadvantaging of the less favored schools and provinces whilst shifting average PTRs to more efficient levels. This has a direct relation to the discussion regarding improvement in teacher’s salaries and benefits and hardship allowance to enable a better and more equitable distribution of teacher resources over regions.

Key Lessons and Challenges
With the introduction of PEDP there is increased focus on reversing the negative trend within the education sector in terms of poor quality of teaching staff, lack of textbooks, lack of sufficient classrooms and attaining primary education for all. As demonstrated above these issues are now being addressed in terms of capitation grants to all schools, increased roll of SCs in management of funds and issues at school level, and the ambitious classroom construction programme.

Significant construction of new schools, classrooms, teacher houses, pit latrines, water tanks and desks is observed in many primary schools. PEDP review reports indicate that the number of government schools increased by almost 2,000 from 2000
to 2004. During 2003/2004 constructions of classrooms reached 72.7 % of the planned target. But this is still not sufficient to cater for the growing demands in view of the expanding school enrolment.

The PEDP process has demonstrated that increased community involvement in enhancing the quality of education has been real and tangible. PEDP is backed by huge financial resources from the government as well as development partners and enhanced by local participation in terms of labour, management and supervision and indirect school contributions. Consequently with more financial, material and human resources, new schools and classrooms have been constructed across all communities in Tanzania. The observed impact on improved GER/NER, availability of textbooks, enhanced school facilities is largely attributable to the adoption of the direct support to schools through the capitation and development grants mechanism with increased amounts of funds directly reaching the school level through LGs. These direct transfers, coupled with improvement in school management, particularly of financial resources, has led to increased levels of effective use of the available resources and therein impacts on school performance.

However, it is noted that this process has been with major problems such as misuse and non-accounting of expenditure at school level but this has to a large degree been explained by the confusion that dominated the early phases of PEDP, where many SCs/head teachers still did not know how to account for the increased inflow of funds. A key lesson from the process is that direct transfers to schools which involve community voluntary contributions such as labour makes grassroots institutions more responsible to their schools and thus develop a sense of ownership which did not necessarily before. The education sector has been successful in addressing the issue of UPE and the NER has increased over the years and is close to 100 %. However, the issue of quality of education is still very pertinent as the PTR is over 50 and there are more than 70 pupils per classroom even after the PEDP classroom construction programme. Simply addressing the enrolment issue has not solved the diverse differences that are found throughout Tanzania in terms of schooling disparities.
especially between urban and rural areas and especially remote rural areas where teaching resources are scarce.

There is growing recognition that increasing access to education is a necessary but not sufficient objective. There are other important objectives that have to be pursued by the Tanzanian education system. These are: (i) access to quality education for all children. (ii) School and training institutes able to generate measurable learning improvements. Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) is one of crucial cross-cutting issues affecting performance of the education sector. Government’s response to HIV/AIDS in the education sector continues to receive special attention in the financial resource allocation from the national budgets but the impact of the disease is still felt at local level in terms of lack of available teachers.

**Education and training policy 1995**

The policy guides the development and provision of education service in Tanzania. Its emphasis is on decentralizing education by empowering communities and educational institutions to manage and administer education service delivery. The target of the policy is to place the delivery of education service under the authority and responsibility of schools and local communities. The policy provides that the role of the central institution(s) is to ensure equity in distribution and allocation of resources for education provision in the localities.

(i.) Enhancement of partnership in the provision of education and training, through the deliberate effort of encouraging private agencies to participate in the provision of education, to establish and manage schools and other educational institutions at all levels.

(ii.) Broadening the financial base and cost effectiveness of education and training, through more effective control of government spending, cost sharing and liberalization strategies.

(iii.) Streamlining of the management structure of education, by placing more authority and responsibility on schools, colleges, universities local communities, districts and regions.
(iv.) Emphasizing the provision of quality education through curriculum review, improved teacher management and introduction and use of appropriate performance and assessment strategies.

(v.) Strengthening the integration of formal and non-formal education relationship, by instituting knowledge comparability and inter mobility within the two sub sectors of education.

(vi.) Increasing access to education, by focusing on the equity issue with respect to women, group with special needs and areas in the country.

(vii.) Facilitating the growth of the culture of education and training for job creation and

(viii.) Self employment through increased quality and availability of opportunities for vocational education and training.

(ix.) Promotion of quality non-formal education and training through the improvement of Folk Development Colleges (FDCs) in terms of physical infrastructure, tutors education and improved tutor management.

Despite its emphasis being on education decentralization, the National Education Act No. 25 of 1978 centralizes the administration of secondary schools to the Ministry responsible for Education. The outcome is the persistent centralization of decisions such as teacher recruitment in public secondary schools in Tanzania (United Republic of Tanzania 1995: 25).

Overview of legal framework for education decentralization Legal framework provides ‘the broad guiding principles’ for the implementation of decentralization (Anderson 1997). The objective of the legal framework is to have the mechanism or tool for achieving the underlined targets of the decentralization initiative. In Tanzania, such targets include improvement in the quality of and access to services provided in the localities. The legal framework creates responsibilities and obligations on the sides of both local and central government institutions. The legislation that guides staff recruitment and decentralization of social services in Tanzania are Local Government Laws (Miscellaneous Amendment) Act No. 6 of
1999 (including Amendment of 2006); Public Service Act No. 8 of 2002 (including Amendment Act No. 18 of 2007) and Public Service Regulations of 2003.

2.2.7 Local government laws (Miscellaneous Amendment) Act No. 6 of 1999

The Act No. 6 of 1999 provides that the policy of decentralization has to be implemented by an Act of Parliament and incorporated into Tanzanian laws through the Local Government Laws (Miscellaneous Amendment) Act No. 6 of 1999. Its main purpose is to bring the existing local government laws in line with the government policy on decentralization and hence to allow its implementation.

The Act No. 6 of 1999 decentralizes the functions and powers for service delivery from the central government system to the local government and within the local government system, from the district council to lower level organs such as wards and villages. In terms of decentralization the role of the central institutions is to facilitate the exercise of power and discharge of decentralized functions by the local institutions in the manner that gives due recognition to the autonomy of the grassroots institutions.

Despite the fact that the Act No. 6 of 1999 acknowledges the heterogeneity nature of the grassroots institutions, it still allows the central institutions to have overriding decisions in respect to the matters taking place in the grassroots institutions on ‘the basis of necessity or desirability’. Public Service Act No. 8 of 2002 and Public Service Regulations of 2003 The Act No. 8 of 2002 (including amendment Act No. 18 of 2007) and Public Service Regulations of 2003 are the foundation and the basis of the centralized human resource recruitment approach in the public service in Tanzania. The Act and its regulations provide that when recruitment is performed by other institutions, it is regarded as a delegated function on behalf of the Public Service Commission. Public Service Commission is a central government institution that has the obligation to issue guidance, to monitor and to conduct merit based recruitment in the public service in Tanzania (Public Service Act No. 8).
The power to recruit teachers is vested in the Public Service Commission – Teachers’ Service Department. The Act and its regulations allow the commission to further delegate its powers and functions to other central government institutions.

For secondary school teacher recruitment, the power is delegated to the Ministry of Education and Vocational Training. Regulation 119 (3) of Public Service Regulations (2003) provides that ‘the Ministry responsible for Education shall comply with the terms and conditions pertaining to employment of secondary school teachers as prescribed by the commission through the Teachers’ Service Department.’ That means secondary school teacher recruitment is centralized and performed by MoEVT in Tanzania.

Ward secondary schools as an education decentralization initiative Decentralization initiative in Tanzania is a vast and dynamic effort for change (United Republic of Tanzania 1998). Through it the government has embarked on the massive mobilization initiative nation-wide to build secondary schools in each ward. In responding to the government initiative, local communities and their leaders in the wards have mobilized themselves in not only contributing with their labour but also financial and material resources for building secondary schools in the localities. In this perspective, education decentralization has achieved positive results towards secondary education service provision at the grassroots levels in Tanzania (Ministry of Education and Vocational Training 2007).

Local communities and ward secondary schools Decentralizing secondary education service provision to the wards means a changed position and role of local communities, from being passive recipients into being active participants in secondary education service delivery (United Republic of Tanzania 1995). The successful implementation of the Universal Primary Education Programme in Tanzania has created unprecedented social demand for secondary education (United Republic of Tanzania 2001a). In coping with the renewed social demand for education service beyond primary level, the essence of the local communities at the ward level to participate in secondary education service delivery becomes inevitable.
In revealing the position and role of local communities in secondary education decentralization, the Education and Training Policy (1995) provides that ‘communities shall be encouraged and given incentive to establish, own, manage and administer at least one secondary school in each ward.’

The Education and Training Policy insists that for Tanzania to provide quality and guarantee access to education service to its people, ‘active involvement’ of the local communities in the wards is essential. The aim is to provide more opportunities to the communities to be more responsible in managing their ward secondary schools instead of staying aside. ‘Active involvement’ of the local communities is viewed as the mechanism to give them an opportunity to plan for the development of their schools at the ward level. This is supposed to be accompanied with giving the local communities sufficient freedom and ownership of the grassroots institutions so that they are able to offer them (grassroots institutions) the necessary support both materially and morally (Ministry of Education and Culture 1998).

2.2.8 Operation of Secondary Schools

According to Tanzania Secondary Education Master Plan (2000), the operation of secondary schools in Tanzania is influenced by the concept of ownership. The ownership of secondary schools in Tanzania is classified into government schools and non-government schools. Government schools consist of two categories, namely, the traditional national schools and community built secondary schools (ward secondary schools). The latter are the result of the education decentralization initiative. Though they are built by the local communities, on the basis of the two broad categories of secondary school ownership in Tanzania, they are operated and managed by the government. The non-government secondary schools, on their part, are privately owned by individuals, non-government organizations and church based organisations. These secondary schools are also operated and managed by their respective owners.
2.2.9 Characteristics of Secondary Education

The structure: Secondary Education in Tanzania consists of two tiers:

The first cycle is Ordinary Level [OLevel], of four years post primary education. The cycle follows both a core and common national curriculum and specialized optional subjects at the end of which pupils sit for nationally set examinations. It has four curriculum tracks or biases, which are Technical, Agricultural, Commercial and Home Economics. There is a category of students pursuing a pure academic program without any of these biases. Secondary education the enrolment stand at 225,866 for this cycle as per 1999. (or 2000)

The second cycle is Advanced level, [A-level] which is two years post O-level during which students follow a National curriculum and at the end of which they sit for national examinations. The cycle is divided between Science and Arts streams. It prepares students for tertiary and higher education, as well as entry into the world of work. There were 21,713 students at this cycle as per 1998 figures 41999 or 2000

Ownership of schools: Secondary schools in Tanzania are classified into:

i) Government schools: Government schools consist of two categories the traditional national schools and Community built schools. The later are schools built by local communities, but operated and managed by the government.

ii) Non-government schools: This group includes schools by communities NGOS individuals owned and managed and seminaries. The public non government schools are owned and operated by communities, individuals, NGOs or individuals. Seminaries form the second group of non-government schools.

They are owned and operated by religious bodies and provide both general secondary education and specific religion vocation instruction.
**Operation of secondary schools**

Schools in Tanzania can be either for boys only, girls’ only, or co-educational. The majority of government, community and private schools are co-educational. Seminaries tend to concentrate on boys only schools [66%] while the Government has almost a parity of 26 boys and 22 girls only, out of its 92 schools. The rest 44 schools are co-educational. Schools can also be operated as either day or boarding schools, depending on geographical location, catchment areas, and affordability. The majority of the schools are day schools. Similarly, a school can have both O-level and A-Level, or one of these only. A majority of the schools combine both levels. [Annex 7]

**The geographic distribution of schools**

Annex 7 gives the distribution of schools by regions, districts, ownership, and level. It reveals that there are great variations in the number of schools between regions and districts. While all schools are open to any child, day schools have restricted catchment areas, and thus children in districts greatly endowed with schools have an advantage over others.

**2.2.10 Significance of Cognitive Quality of Education Teaching and Learning Materials**

Ward secondary education is a good system in trying to meet the need of education and requirement for every young student who qualifies for further education after completing his/her primary education. It seems not to achieve the cognitive and active learning outcomes intended by programmes developers because of several challenges including unqualified teachers, lack of facilities, and teaching, training materials. In most cases students’ academic performance in ward secondary schools has been very poor compared to other government and non-governmental secondary schools. It is for this reason that the researcher saw the need to assess and analyzes the quality of education in these secondary schools in order to determine their significant effects on ward secondary students’ academic achievement.
According to Ellis (1972) learning is relatively permanent process that is inferred from performance changes due to practice biologically. All learning begins with some form of personal contact with actual objectives, events or circumstances in life. Contacts occur through sensory organs. The process by which senses transmit meaning to the brain is known as perceptions. Humans formulate concepts that give understanding of life (Ibid).

The presented biological explanation of learning and learning process highlights the importance of teaching and learning materials. Therefore hearing, seeing and smelling, touching and testing are the primary means of human learning (Ibid).

According to communication Theory, teaching and learning materials are vitally important to arouse learner’s involvement through primary means of human learning and thus increase chance of getting messages across (Mhina 1987). Teaching and learning materials include such materials like text books, programme, models, pictures cartoons, graphs, posters, slides, filmstrips, photographs, computers, television, overhead projectors, laboratory, equipments, apparatus and chemicals (Bount and Klausmeir, 1968) modern teaching materials use interactive and participatory methods that demand use of many teaching and learning materials. Cooksey Mmuya (1997) observed that quality of education depends among others on quality and quantity available teaching and learning materials.

2.2.11 Teaching and Learning Materials

The use of such teaching and learning materials creates conducive environment for teaching and learning process to take place (Dale 1964). Dale (1964) pointed out that teaching and learning materials help to relieve the problem of pupils who for one reason or other, did not hear well what the teacher had put across in the lesson and thus, they arouse a high degree of interest from pupils in the lesson. Secondly, such materials make learning more pleasant to students because they offer reality, which stimulates self activity and imagination on part of students. Thirdly teaching and learning materials develop continuity of students’ thought especially true mission picture, which a simple and enable students to think consecutively about subjects.
Fourthly teaching and learning material provide experience that is not easily obtained through other materials and also contribute to efficiency, depth and variety of learning. Finally availability of qualified/trained teachers, teaching and learning materials contribute to growth of meaning and interpretation of what is taught in the subject and hence vocabulary development than reading and discussion alone.

He added that events, concepts and processes become greatly meaningful to student when visual aids are used to help him/her better conceptualize what the prior or spoken words attempt to describe. He mentioned that audio materials enhancing teaching and learning process are opaque and include overhead projector, filmstrips, cartoons, posters, flat pictures, graphs and glass slides. In most cases it has been found out that when you have well trained teachers together with students who participate in using instructional materials are able to perform better than those taught without instructional materials. In this Nzabo (1981) found out that students interacting within instructed materials achieved significantly higher scores than those who did not. Director’s report of Audio – visual institute(1980) observed that the use of audio – visual materials stimulate realms and faculties of seeing, hearing as well as touching such stimulus gives a straightforward impact on the human mind when it enables the message to be Cumprinted and stay put (AVL 1970).

Blount and Klaus Meir(1968) argued that although audio – visual materials cannot replace the teacher’s face to face leadership of learning activities, or the students independent reading and direct experiencing, or small group and whole class discussions or problem solving or undisturbed reflective thinking, most students can learn certain concept, skills and process better through audio – visual.

2.2.11.1 Qualities of Good Teachers, Teaching and learning materials:
Qualified teachers, teaching and learning materials are very important in teaching science as well as Arts subjects in schools. For effective teaching and learning to occur, teachers, teaching and learning materials should be relevant to learner’s environment and should be of good quality (Njabili 1999) Andry (1972) pointed out that learning materials need to be relevant to learners and should take into
consideration the learner’s environment for learning to be effective. He (ibid) added that materials like textbooks should contain relevant up to date and appropriate materials to the users.

On the other hand Njabili (1999) argue that production of text book that are being used in schools, particularly in secondary in the region have not adequately addressed relevant content and cultural basis. This is so mainly because they are published outside the region mostly in the limited kingdom and the unites of America (ibid).

2.2.11.2 Practical work

Practical work is very important in teaching and learning in science. According to Chonjo (1980) practical work in essential especially science subject like physics, chemistry and biology because it familiarizes students with certain pieces of opportunity and certain skills. Chonjo 1980 argued that practical work in chemistry and other science subjects could be used to demonstrate certain principles and initiate independent work in that way they help to demonstrate certain principles and initiate independent work. In that way they help to develop potentialities that could not be achieved in another way.

2.2.11.3 Availability and use of instructional materials

Characteristics of education sector in Tanzania are very gloom (Galabawa and Norman 2004). There is shortage of teachers, class and room buildings. If there are available they are in poor shape and teaching materials are lucking. Teachers are in short supply, and in many cases are neither qualified nor motivated for their profession (Galabawa and Norman 2004) shortage of books appears to be most serious problem facing both students and teachers, According to Galabawa and Noramn (2004) provision of a conducive school environment for teaching and learning process in appropriate due to shortage of instructional materials since its availability contributes to quality of education. The number of students enrolled in secondary schools is large compared to availability of buildings. Furniture’s such as
desks and instructional materials. Availability of facilities does not satisfy the increasing demand for quality of education to be realized.

The availability and the use of teaching and learning materials greatly influence the quality of education provided (Lyons 1981). It has been found out that application of instructional materials depends much on teachers (Osaki 1991) some schools have teaching and learning materials, but are not effectively used by both teachers and students. Osaki (1991) found out that some schools models, charts and other teaching media but teachers never referred to any of those materials. He (ibid) urged that further that it might be rooted from lack of motivation to use materials, lack of Knowledge or rather due to time constraints.

2.2.11.4 Causes of shortage of Teaching and Learning materials.
There are many factors that contribute to the cause of shortage and learning materials. Poor provision of teaching and learning materials is one of the factors that cause to such shortage. (Chonjo et al; 1996) Nabudere (1978) pointed out that lack of teaching and learning materials was due to our government failure to provide funds for purchasing of necessary required materials for secondary schools. He added also that lack of facilities for repair and maintenance of broken and destroyed equipment accelerated shortage of teaching and learning materials. Generally lack of funds to both the government and parents contribute to great shortage of teaching and learning materials in due regard it affects teaching and learning process.

2.2.11.5 Teaching methods
Teaching methods applied by teachers in classrooms have a great role in initiating classroom interaction (Lyons 1981) Osaki (1995) pointed three teaching approaches namely transmission, transaction and transformation. Transformation involved direct methods such as lecturing, direct teaching and even indirect methods, such as private reading, listening to radio broadcasts watching video or charts Osaki (1005). This method is known as teacher – centred learning whereas. Transaction and transformation are learner- centred approach. Teachers are encouraged to use different teaching methods in teaching and learning process. Physics for example
cannot be taught by a single approach (Nyonyi 1980) Selection of teaching methods depends on the objectives of the topic.

2.2.11.6 Consequences of lack of sufficient Teachers, Teaching and Learning materials.

Student’s involvement in learning process is very important because it ensures fully participation (Mlekwa 1977). But this has been very difficult to implement in some schools owing to materials scarcity, which force teachers to teach by transmissions. Mlekwa (1977) argue that teaching materials constitute an important element in the teaching and learning process. Their absence will have a negative bearing on realization of the intended outcome of and education programme Meena (1978) argued that inadequate of teaching and learning materials forced teachers to resort to a teacher centred method. Shortage of teaching learning materials is the barriers of effective teaching and learning process because it makes difficult for modern students to understand the subject matter effectively.

Kahindi (1996) noted that scarcity of teaching and learning materials hampers success of technical programmes in schools. Inadequate teaching and learning materials can enforce teachers to embark on lecturing methods Osaki (1995). Shortage of books appears to be most serious problem facing both students and teachers Kyando (1993). Shortage of books implies that both teachers and students would not got enough opportunity to use the books effectively hence the learners do not get enough instruction in reading skills Kyando (1993).

2.12 Theoretical Literature Review

2.12.1 Maslow’s theory Need Hierarchy Theory

Different scholars have put forth different explanations on how motivation can be achieved within a company or an organization. Prominent amongst them is Maslow with the theory of “Maslow’s Hierarchy of needs”. Consequently, Maslow in 1943 reasoned that human beings have an internal need pushing them on towards self actualization (fulfillment) and personal superiority. Maslow came up with the view
that there are five different levels of needs and once we happen to satisfy a need at one stage or level of the hierarchy it has an influence on our behavior. At such level our behavior tends to diminish, we now put forth a more powerful influence on our behavior for the need at the next level up the hierarchy.

Firstly, individuals are motivated by Psychological needs: By Maslow this psychological needs forms the basic need for survival and this may include food, warmth, clothing and shelter. When people are hungry, don’t have shelter or clothing, there are more motivated to fulfill these need because these needs become the major influence on their behavior. But on the other hand when people don’t have a deficiency in those basic needs (psychological needs), their needs tend to move to the second level where it is equally seen by Maslow as the higher order of needs.

The second level is seen as the security needs: Security tends to be the most essential need to people at this level. This is expressed in safety in the employee’s health and family.

The third level of needs by Maslow was the social needs. When feeling secured and safe at work, employees will now place job relations as their focus that is trying to build up a good friendship, love and intimacy. As we keep moving up the ladder we will have self-esteem needs: This fourth level of needs by Maslow presents the recognition to be accepted and valued by others.

The highest or last level of Maslow’s need is self-actualization needs: Self actualization was to develop into more and more what one is to become all that one is competent of becoming. (Srivastava 2005) Figure 2.2.4.1 illustrates Maslow’s five hierarchy of needs.
According to Srivastava (2005) Figure 2.2.4. 1 illustrates Maslow´s five hierarchy of needs.

Despite the limited empirical support, needs hierarchy theory has had a positive impact on organisations, as it has focused attention on the importance of addressing employees’ needs at work (Spector, 2003). In addition, one of its main constructs, the self-actualization concept, has become very popular with especially managers and
executives who have accepted this high-level need as a potent motivator (Schultz & Schultz, 1998).

According to Maslow, as each of these needs becomes substantially satisfied, the next need becomes dominant. Champagne and McAfee (1989) as cited in Ramlall (2004: 60) suggest some potential ways of satisfying employees’ needs as follows: Physical needs employers can build cafeteria and drinking fountains. For security needs, employers should provide economic solution through wages and salaries, fringe benefits, retirement benefits, and medical benefits, and physiological solution through the provision of job descriptions, good working conditions, heating and ventilation, and a rest period. To provide a solution for social needs, organisations must encourage social interaction, create a team spirit, facilitate outside social activities such as social club membership and allow participation in trade unions. To satisfy esteem needs, educational officer should design challenging jobs, use praise and awards, delegate responsibility, give training and encourage participation in decision making. Self-actualization should be satisfied using executive training, provide challenges, and encourage creativity.

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory provides a useful guide for educational officer toward motivating and retaining their employees (teachers). In order for organisations to be able to retain high performing employees, educational officer should ensure that key employees enjoy satisfaction with their jobs as job satisfaction/dissatisfaction is known to be positively related to poor performance of the teaching process.

2.12.2 Contingency Theory
What organizational contingency approach to public policy provides is “a model, which suggests that certain inherent policy characteristics affect the use of policy discretion, the structural attributes of policies and programs, and the number of unintended consequences. It is a blend of these characteristics that explain the unique outcomes in different policy areas” (Bouchard & Carroll, 2003:2) and as Child (197
2:8) observes, “if organizational structure is not adapted to its context, then opportunity are lost, cost rise, and the maintenance of the organization is threatened”.

Policy discretion in this research will borrow from Carroll & Siegel (1999) definition as “the ability to adjust programs or policies to suit the circumstances. It is a process by which the administrator is able to use a judgmental decision strategy to change or alter programs to suit the client, or in some cases, the administrator”. Unintended consequences are understood as described by Bouchard & Carroll (2003) as “unforeseen and unexpected outcomes, either positive or negative, of public policy decisions brought about by inattention to the actual implementation process”, whereas structural attributes include “historical arrangements such as the public/private provisions of goods and services, the choice of policy instruments and the rules and procedures in place”.

Not to argue for the perfection of this particular approach, however, what is significant to note here however, is that this approach travels well and can accommodate different contexts. It further has the ability to take into account the various aspects of discretion, unintended consequences and structural attributes. Owusu (2005) here adds to this approach by pointing further to the need for an approach that is “flexible enough to accommodate country-specific constraints of the organizations (ie constraints imposed by broader socioeconomic and political environment) as well as organization specific strategies for responding to such constraints.

This is of particular importance in Tanzania where the performance of public organizations has been influenced by a series of external constraints such as colonial legacies; culture in which organization exists; and economic crises and reform. In looking at organizational contingency theory therefore, the specific characteristics that can be utilized will be broken down into four main groupings: structural, contextual, process and outcomes, following the more generic (Context, Inputs, Process, and Product/Outcome) model which is utilized extensively in educational evaluation. The father of the Context, Inputs, Process, and Product/Outcome model
states explicitly that this model “has been the most prevalent type used in the name of educational evaluation” (Stufflebeam, 1980:8).

Munishi (2000) writing about the quality of education uses Context, Inputs, Process, and Product/Outcome and asserts that in examining the quality of outputs and outcomes in education, one must look at a number of factors such as infrastructure, motivation, accountability, teacher/student ration, educational levels of teacher; all variables that are accounted for by the Context, Inputs, Process, and Product/Outcome model. Lockheed and Verspoor (1990) further use the Context, Inputs, Process, and Product/Outcome model to develop four school quality indices (outcome measures) in Tanzania and use variants of this model to assess the impact of education on development in many parts of the developing world such as Pakistan, Zambia, Sri Lanka and Tanzania to name a few. Context, Inputs, Process, and Product/Outcome as a model allows both researchers and practitioners in the field to apply both quantitative and qualitative methodologies, creating for a better ability to absorb different variables in the analysis of policy.

The Context, Inputs, Process, and Product/Outcome is a comprehensive framework for guiding formative and summative evaluations of projects, programs, personnel, products, institutions and systems. The model’s core concepts evaluate an entity’s context, inputs, processes and outputs or products and as such serves as an appropriate tool in attempting to answer the overall question guiding this research. Context evaluations assess needs, problems, assets and opportunities to help decision makers define goals and priorities and help the broader group of user’s judge goals, priorities and outcomes. Input evaluations assess alternative approaches, competing action plans, allocating resources. Process evaluations assess the implementation of plans and Product evaluations identify and assess outcomes, intended and unintended, short and long term (Stufflebeam, 2003, 1-3).

Context, Inputs, Process, and Product/Outcome can be used effectively in guiding the planning and implementation of development efforts; education being one such effort. This is because this model contributes to both formative and summative
evaluation. Formative evaluation is conducted for the purpose of improving an evaluation whereas summative evaluation assists in assessing accountability which requires determining the overall effectiveness or merit/worth of a project or policy. For this research, the modification of the basic model occurs with the Input evaluation. Here structural evaluation will be utilized, embodying arguably the same aspects as inputs but more suited for the policy environment.

2.12.3 Fifty-Fifty Theory
The fifty-fifty theory was developed by John Adair as a motivational factor that could influence company performance. From his perception fifty percent of motivation comes from within a person and the remaining fifty percent comes from the environment, mainly from people around us. This rule is not used to declare the exact proportions, but it tries to explain that, fifty per cent of our motivation comes from within us and fifty per cent from an external influence, that is, from our environment, particularly from the people around us. These observations are indicative rather than mathematical and they may differ from person to person. Within these important external factors the nature and quality of the leadership present is essentially important. Hence the tough link between leadership and motivation becomes vital to determine employee’s motivation.

The Fifty-Fifty rule does have the benefit of reminding leaders that they have a key role to play for the success or failure in the motivation of employees at work. Fortunately or unfortunately not all the cards are in their hands, for they are dealing with people who are self motivating in various degree. These are the challenges that confront the HRM to galvanize employee motivation with the work environment (John, 2007).

2.12.4 Adam’s Equity theory of Job Satisfaction
Adam theory or Equity describe that we often equate our condition at work place with other contemporaries. When one as an individual develops feeling that he has not been fairly treated in terms of input he puts in his work and what he gets output. This state might leads to diminishing job satisfaction level. When people observe a ratio of inputs to outcomes that either favours other people or themselves they
experience inequity, which is assumed to be enough unpleasant experience to motivate changes in either behavior or perception, or both. Adam’s theory suggest balance between outputs like salary, benefits, responsibility, reputation, praise and sense of achievements and inputs like hard work, skill, effort, flexibility and adaptability. According the theory of equity balance between inputs and outputs might enhance employee’s level of pleasure which they derive from their work. This will lead to probably less sick leave, absenteeism, efficient work environment and cost effective workers.

2.12.5 Job characteristics theory “Hackman and Oldham’s task enrichment theory”

Job characteristics’ theory was introduced in 1980 from Richard Hackman and Greg Oldham’s model, (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). It developed out of the authors’ research on objective measures of job characteristics that correlated with job satisfaction and work attendance (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). The theory is based on the premise that three psychological states in particular are necessary to enhance a person’s motivation and job satisfaction, namely: the experience of work as meaningful; the experience of work responsibility, i.e. the level of personal responsibility for a person’s work; insight in job performance, i.e. how much insight a person has in how well or how poorly he is performing on his job.

Fundamental to this theory is the notion that the need for personal development, creativity and challenge has a very significant impact on the successful execution of a meaningful task. In addition, due to differing individual drives and needs, different people will respond differently to the same task (Van Niekerk, 1987). The concept of task enrichment has proven to be very meaningful and useful in the workplace, and Hackman and Oldham’s theory therefore continues to stimulate investigation. A met analysis of 200 studies, for example, confirmed the positive relationship between job characteristics, job satisfaction and performance (Fried & Ferris, 1987).
2.12.6 Vroom’s Expectancy Theory

The concept of the expectancy theory was first develop by Victor Vroom and was published in 1964. Victor Vroom offered an expectancy approach to the understanding of motivation. As a result, motivation is a product of the anticipated value to a person in an action. He perceived probability that the person’s goals would be accomplished as a product of the anticipated value in an action. Thus the Vroom’ model is built around the concepts of value, expectancy and force. The concept of force is on the whole equivalent to motivation and may be shown to be the algebraic sum of the products of valences and expectations. Thus,

Motivation (force) = Valence x Expectancy

Valence is the strength of an individual’s preference for an outcome or goal. The strength may be negative (fear demotion or transfer to less important job) or positive (prospect for promotion). Expectancy is the probability that a particular action will lead to a required outcome. If the employee has a particular goal, some behavior has to be produced to accomplish that goal. The employee has to weigh the likelihood of various behaviors that will accomplish the desired goals and select the most successful behavior. Thus the employee’s motivation according to Vroom may be augmented by changing the perception or by boosting the expectancy level through better communication and augmenting the actual reward that will result.

Vroom’s theory clarifies the relationship between the employee and the organizational goals and recognizes the differences between employees in producing work motivation. Furthermore, this theory is consistent with the idea that a manager’s job is to design an environment for performance, necessarily taking into account the differences in various situations. Thus Vroom’s theory is quite consistent with management by objectives. However, this theory is difficult to research and is confronted with practical difficulties in its application (Bose, 2004).

Vroom tackles three beliefs and brings out with some clarity and applicability. Each of the beliefs deals with what employees think will happen if they put out effort to perform. The first (B1) comprises of the relationship between effort and performance, that is, (B1) is the employee’s belief about the probability that effort
will lead to performance. Another definition is that, B1 is the expectation that effort will lead to success. (B1) can be seen as the employee’s belief about whether or not what is expected can be done.

The second (B2) comprises with the relationship between performance and outcomes, that is, the employee’s belief about the probability that performance will lead to outcomes. B2 can be stated in different ways, that is the employee’s belief about the relationship between “what you do” and “what you get.” It is the belief about outcomes following performance and the third (B3) looks at the relationship between outcomes and satisfaction. The third belief (B3) is the employee’s belief about how satisfying or gratifying the outcomes will be. It is the belief about how fulfilling or worthwhile they will be. It is the belief about how much value the outcomes will have in the future when they are received, rather than what their value is now (Green, 1992).

Within an organisation, immediate supervisors should create, monitor and maintain the expectancies and reward structures which will lead to good performance. Supervisors should motivate subordinates by defining clear goals, setting clear reward expectancies, and providing the right rewards for different employees. Educational officer has the responsibility to provide supervisors with an awareness of the nature of motivation as well as the tools (control over organisational rewards, skill in administering those rewards) in order to create motivation. The Expectancy theory as simplified by Staw (2001: 44) also suggests that individual employees should be allowed to choose the type of rewards they prefer since different people have different needs and valences.

Effective motivation must come through the recognition that not all employees are alike and that organisations need to be flexible in order to accommodate individual differences. This implies the building in of choice for employees in many areas, such as reward systems, fringe benefits, job assignments and others. Individual teacher should be allowed to choose the fringe benefits they want, rather than those imposed by the organisation which may not be attractive to the employee no matter how expensive they may appear.
2.12.7 Public Service Motivation (PSM) Theory

The Public Service Motivation theory postulates that public employees are unique and differ from their private sector counterparts insofar as they are driven primarily by intrinsic motives rather than extrinsic ones, such as financial rewards (Anderfuhren-Biget et al., 2010). The idea of PSM was developed in response to the rise of the New Public Management movement since the beginning of the 1980s, which calls for the introduction of market-style mechanisms like performance-related pay into the public sphere (Perry/Wise, 1990; Perry/Hondeghem, 2008). NPM proponents believe that public employees are motivated by their own self-interests, and thus their behavior should be controlled by extrinsic incentives (Perry/Wise, 1990).

PSM, on the other hand, posits that public servants are driven by higher-order needs and have a zeal for serving the general public good. Therefore, Le Grand (2006) names the former “knaves”, whereas the latter he calls “knights”. Several attempts have been made in the past to define PSM (e.g. Perry/Wise, 1990; Vandenabeele, 2007), yet most of them were quite obscure. Lately, Perry and Hondeghem (2008) offered a simple definition, which claims that PSM focuses on “motives and action in the public domain that are intended to do good for others and shape the well-being of society”.

Perry and Wise (1990) recognize three categories of PSM:

(i.) Rational – individual’s involvement in the public sector is grounded in a wish for utility maximization. For instance, attraction to public policy making.

(ii.) Norm-Based – involvement is generated by efforts to conform norms, e.g. the desire to serve the public or self-commitment to reach social equity.

(iii.) Affective – involvement is triggered by emotional responses to social contexts. That can be compassion or self-sacrifice/altruism.

All three categories have been proven to have motivational influence on public employees (Anderfuhren-Biget et al., 2010). In part, this can be explained by a self selection process that helps endow public organizations with a high PSM workforce (Gailmard, 2010). The growing evidence of the existence of PSM has led Paarlberg,
Perry, and Hondegem (2008) to develop strategies that reinforce individuals’ PSM behavior. These strategies “incorporate public service values across all levels of the organization’s management system” (ibid. p.268). That is, the work of Paarlberg, Perry, and Hondegem actually ascribe PSM-oriented tools to traditional motivational factors. For that reason, I prefer not to assign PSM theory a new motivational factor, but rather use existing factors, which help to harness in practice the positive effects of PSM.

Drawing, then, on Paarlberg, Perry, and Hondegem’s strategies, PSM supports the use of training, feedback, important work, goal-setting, participation, interpersonal relationships, relatedness, and rewarding as motivational factors. Furthermore, alongside PSM, recognition has been shown to be a strong motivator in the public sector (Anderfuhrren-Biget et al., 2010.).

2.13 Review of related studies

2.13.1 Quality of education

Several studies have been undertaken to determine significant differences in academic performance and the factors that give rise to the differences for example Feingold (1988) in Turkey, reported that academic performance among students was affected by various factors, including individual and household characteristics such as student ability, motivation, the quality of secondary education, the differences on the pursued courses and biological differences between sex. However the researcher has added on the attained performance gap but didn’t go further by viewing what exactly type of quality education are we suppose to achieve.

In a study aimed at assessing the effect of perceived quality of work life in education Coster (1992), for example, found a positive correlation between goal involvement in the execution of tasks and job satisfaction. Corroborating results came from the work of Bellenger at al. (1984) and Strydom and Meyer (2002), who rated the experience of success through goal attainment as the most important source of job satisfaction within an education arena. Kirkup and Prummer (1990) the others identified
differences in academic performance between students. The findings revealed that woman were lagging behind man and dropout rate was a great problem among female students registered in different schools. The authors concluded that the situation will be better in future. In spite of the fact that the researcher has concluded that the situation will be better in future but still the situation seems to have not yet improved and in addition goal attainment as the source of job satisfaction within education arena has resulted into poor practice.

These results are easily explained by the significant contribution that success and achievement made towards a person’s self-esteem (Beach, 1980), and which also reinforce his or her sense of making a positive contribution towards the organisation. People with a need for achievement and who experience success in this regard acquire a stronger belief and confidence in them, which encourage them to contribute towards the goals and objectives of the organisation. Furthermore to what researcher has concluded makes sense because individual drive has a positive result and will lead to good performance but still the researcher has not given how to attain the quality of education in secondary schools.

2.14 Synthesis and Research Gap
Despite the fact that ward secondary education is an excellence method of reaching many students, little rigorous research has been carried out to investigate the determinants of students’ academic performance and how their needs could meet through ward secondary education. Few studies have been conducted on this topic has concentrated much on the quality of education (Mhehe 2002), Bhalalusesa(2000), Sanday (1981).Kelly (1982) point out that studying by thus method require high commitment which calls for motivation, supportive environment and sacrifice that many students could not perform well in their study. It is within this context that the argument for assessing the quality of education in wards secondary schools in Temeke district is important.
2.15 Conceptual Framework

The assessment on quality of education in ward Secondary schools in Tanzania required a model that highlighted essential components on which data collection and analysis were analyzed and based on. In this study an electric model that combines various options and aspects of certain models is ideal. The model that guided this study had the following components; basic inputs, various interactions enabling conditions school climate, teaching and learning process as well as academic achievement.

According to Carton and chau (1992) the basic inputs include; infrastructures, teaching and learning materials. Those basic inputs are crucial variable in determining the success of academic achievement (Njabili, 1993). In this study heads of schools in ward Secondary schools, teachers as well as students are payed the highest level of attention to availability of basic inputs. The evaluation was made to assess the availability and utilization of science and Arts subject facilities, students’ characteristics and quality of teaching.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
This chapter provides methods used to obtain the needed information. It describes the research design and approach, population, sample and sampling procedures, data collection methods as well as data analysis.

3.2 Research approach
This refers to what research design or approach was used. This study focused much on the case study because it is flexible, accurate in terms of data collection and analysis. Research design involves mixed method quantitative or qualitative. The present study used the quantitative research design which Strauss and Corbin (1990) cited in Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997: 22) describe as “studies whose findings are mainly the product of statistical summary and analysis”. The main feature of quantitative research is the heavy reliance of the researcher on data analysis to arrive at findings or conclusions. Numbers are assigned to the properties in the phenomena to represent their qualities. Qualitative research on the other hand is also referred to by Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997: 22) as “that research which produces research findings that are not arrived at by statistical summary or analysis and lack quantification altogether”. They are most commonly obtained from interviews and observations and can be used to describe individuals, groups or social movements.

The choice of a quantitative research design for this study was informed by its primary strengths because, according to Blanche et al. (2006: 132) “the findings are generaliseable and the data are objective”. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005: 109) also assert that a quantitative research design is more scientific than a qualitative research design.
3.3 Area of study

Temeke was first established as a district in 1972 following the introduction of the Decentralisation Policy in Tanzania. Prior that time Dar es Salaam City and Coast Region constituted a single region known as Coast Region which constituted Mzizima, Kilwa, Rufiji, Kisarawe Bagamoyo and Coastal districts. Later on, the region was further subdivided into two Regions namely Coast (Pwani) and Dar es Salaam. While the former included Kisarawe, Bagamoyo, Rufiji, Mafia, Mkuranga and Kibaha districts, the later encompassed Ilala, Kinondoni and Temeke districts. Of recent, a portion of land was apportioned from Mkuranga District and added to the present Municipality's area of jurisdiction.

Temeke Municipal council comprises of the seven (7) departments each of which performs different activities and functions. Those departments includes; Administration and Human Resource, Education and culture, Industries and Trade, Urban and Planning, Works and fire rescue, planning and Monitoring as well as Finance.

Temeke district has been chosen because it is among the government offices. Thus any government offices have the equal chance to be selected as the case study for the matter of this study. This study will examine the impact of stress towards the performance of Temeke municipal council workers, how does it affect their production and work efficiency.

Temeke has been chosen to be an area of study because it has got many ward secondary schools which were easily accessible by a researcher in the whole process of data collection. These areas are Nzasa secondary school, Mbagala kuu secondary school, Charambe secondary school, Saku secondary school, Chamanzi secondary school as well as Mbande secondary school.
3.4 Population of the study

The targeted populations of this study were the heads of the schools, teachers, students and district education officer. The total population of this study was 3509 respondents in which total number of teachers 10 from each ward (three/two ward). The targeted population was provided with an appropriate questionnaire. On this particular oversight research crack and bring about the targeted response towards the existing gap.

3.5 Sample size

The sample size of the study was 57 respondents of which there were two schools from each ward (three wards). In each ward the distributions of respondents were as follows; 1 head master, five (5) teachers and three (3) students. However there was 1 (one) ward education officer.

Table 3.1: Distributions of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Total population</th>
<th>Sampling criteria used</th>
<th>Total sample</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Head teachers</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1 From 6 Schools</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>5 From 6 Schools</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>52.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>3200</td>
<td>3 From 6 Schools</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>31.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ward Education Officers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1 From 3 Wards</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>3509</td>
<td></td>
<td>57</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Data 2012

3.6 Sampling techniques;

The sampling techniques in this study were purposive and simple random techniques. Purposive sampling technique was used to ensure that key informants are involved or
included in the research while with simple random it was easy to capture the information from a great number of respondents in a short period of time as well as the chance of inclusiveness was high. The sample which was selected randomly was used for quantitative analysis and the questionnaires were administered to them, while for purposive sampling was used for qualitative analysis in which the structured interview was carried out to them.

3.7 Primary data collection methods
Primary data was used to draw information from respondents through questionnaire and interviews as follows;

3.7.1 Questionnaire
Questionnaire technique was applied to obtain information from the Head of Schools as well as Teachers in the selected schools. The similar types of questionnaire were prepared, both closed and open-ended questions in order to gather information accurately. Questionnaires were distributed in form of hard copy and were filled by the respondent. Questionnaires for Head of Schools attached (see Appendix 1) and Questionnaire for Teachers also attached (see Appendix 2).

3.7.2 Interviews
Interview was held with the identified units of investigation involving personalities whom the researcher believed that they are well-informed; these include Ward Education Officer and Students from the chosen wards Secondary Schools. During an interview, researcher was flexible in adapting the situation and gets as much information as possible. Interview guide questionnaire for District Education Officer attached (see appendix 3) and Interview guide questionnaire for Students attached (see appendix 4).

3.8 Secondary data collection methods
The researcher scrutinized different documents such as records of examination performance, continue assessment, employee awarded letters and promotions. All these documents were relevant to the title with which the researcher came up with truthful and knowledgeable information from the study. All these available materials
were reviewed from Temeke district education officer and ministry of education libraries as it is where the accessibility of these documents were found. Researcher reviewed them easily and came up with clear findings.

3.9 Data analysis
The data collected was analyzed, both qualitatively and quantitatively depended on their nature. Collected data was edited and analyzed by using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The researcher scrutinized the validity of the data collected as well as the creativeness and relevance to the study. In a course of data processing, the researcher ascertained the reliability of the data by making cross checking on the information obtained from secondary data and observation and how they responded. The presentations of findings are in form of tables, figures, text descriptions, diagrams, bar chart and pie charts for easier interpretation and understanding.

The choice of a quantitative research design for this study was informed by its primary strengths because the findings are generaliseable and the data are objective. Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005: 109) also assert that a quantitative research design is more scientific than a qualitative research design. Quantitative studies whose findings are mainly the product of statistical summary and analysis. The main use of quantitative research is the heavy reliance of the researcher on data analysis to arrive at findings or conclusions. Numbers are assigned to the properties in the phenomena to represent their qualities.

3.10 Reliability and validity
Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997: 127) refer to reliability as “the ability of an instrument to produce similar results at different times with the same group of respondents”. Validity is the extent to which a test measures what it claims to measure. It is vital for a test to be valid in order for the results to be accurately applied and interpreted. The scale used in the study was measured using Cronbach’s alpha. This describe Cronbach’s alpha as a measurement of how well a set of items measure a single one-dimensional talent construct. When data have a one-dimensional structure, Cronbach’s alpha will usually be low. According to Nunnally
(1978) as cited in Struwig and Stead (2001: 133), for consistency to be present, the alpha must be above 0.7, but not higher than 0.9. The Cronbach’s alpha result for the questionnaire used in collecting data for the present study was 0.85 thus confirming the reliability of the research questionnaire.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction
Essentially, this chapter spotlight on scrutinizing and discussing the findings and interpretation of data. Quantitative data were analyzed by using SPSS and Microsoft Excel Spreadsheet. Nevertheless, expressively statistics were derived shown in frequencies and percentages. Direct citation were used to demonstrate what respondents have said about the issue being analyzed, thus supporting the statistical information. In actual fact, the analysis and discussion of field data was based on the research questions presented in the form of tables, pie charts and bar charts. Data were collected from 18 students, 36 teachers and 3 Ward Education Officers, all of Temeke District Council in Dar es salaam. The secondary schools in which the study was done are Nzasa, Mbagala kuu, Charambe, Saku, Chamanzi and Mbande.

4.2 Respondent profile
The distinctiveness of respondents in this section is in terms of their sex, level of education, age as well as working experience. The percentages of individuality of each group of respondents were based on the 57 total numbers of respondents.

4.2.1 Distribution of respondents by Age group
To researcher, it was very basic to get information related to age in this study as it helped me to see whether there is relationship between the provision of quality education and the age. The age groups less than 25 years had 2 (7%) respondents, 25 – 35 years had 15(50%) respondents, and 35-45 years had 12 (40%) respondents, while more than 50 years had 1 (3%) respondents. Table 4.2 and Figure 4.1 below present the distribution of respondents belonging to different age groups as follows.
Table 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of response</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-35</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-45</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.2 Sex of Respondents

As previously indicated, the total number of all respondents were 57, of whom 17 (57%) were male and 13 (43%) were female as it is shown in figure 4.2 below. This implies that the issue of gender is highly regarded in education sector. This suggests that there is uneven distribution of sex within the organization which confirms the general perception that women are not given priorities in employment sector due to weak education system in early stages of education, which fails to accommodate many women in higher education. Because of that, most of the findings of this study came from the views of the men, something that sometimes may result into biased responses if the study does not favor one side.
4.2.3 Education Level

According to Figure 4.3 below, the educational level of the respondents were as follows, First degree 18(60%), Diploma 7(23%) and 5(17%) did not identify their level of education. The level of education had its effects on their responses. For instance, most of diploma holders and those who did not identify their level of education were not detailed enough once were responding questions. On the other hand those who are degree holders were very attentive and argued with logic. That is to say we highly need this kind of teacher to educate our students.
4.2.4 Respondent’s working experience

Findings of the study have shown that all of the respondents had enough working experience within the organization, where more than 78% had working experience of over 10 years something that suggests that they had abundance of experience about secondary education in Tanzania. By having enough skills, respondents helped researcher to get relevant information concerning the study as they knew many things about their career.
4.3 Quality of instruction materials available in ward secondary schools.

The researchers wanted to know about the quality of instruction material availability in these schools. 14 (78%) students argued that there are laboratories but they don’t have enough equipment. 4 (22%) respondents agreed that there were enough teaching and instruction material in their schools. This kind of response shows that not all ward secondary schools lack teaching and learning materials. However most of them they face difficulties in their studies as they lack facilities. Indeed, many learning activities are somewhat less than successful because necessary materials are unavailable and it is apparent that school and community resource are not fully utilized. Mlekwa (1977) states that interaction with instruction material helps the student build their confidence and creativity in the learning process. It also familiarizes students with instruction material and hence, attracts their interest to learning. Absence of such material affected the whole process of teaching and learning.
4.4 Effective use of instruction materials

The students were asked if the available facilities are properly and effectively used. 6 (33%) respondents agreed that the available facilities are properly used, that make them understand properly their subjects while 12 (67%) respondents did not agree that the available properties are effectively used. They also complained about shortage of teachers, five teachers responded that there were lack of science teaching and learning material. Some responded that there were misuses of the few teaching and learning material available in the schools. On other hand, one teacher responded that there was no contribution from parents’ and community to buy teaching and learning materials.

The findings show that in some schools the little facilities available were not properly used. Most of the students claimed that they did not understand the science subjects because of lack of facilities and improper use of the available facilities something that resulted to poor performance.

4.5 Quality of instruction material

The researcher was interested to know what are the challenges facing these head teachers in provision of quality of instruction education. From an in-depth interview with these teachers they had the following remarks; 4(67%) of all respondents from Mbagala Kuu Secondary school, “A” Secondary school, Mbande secondary school and Saku secondary school said that: there are many challenges hindering the provision of quality of instruction material, however the common ones are, shortage of teachers compared to the number of students they are teaching, lack of teaching and learning facilities for stance; laboratories, libraries as well as classrooms.

On the other hand 2(33%) respondents from “B” Secondary School and “C” commented on Larger number of students compared to the classrooms, slow learners, some parents are too poor and ignorant to prioritize education for their children, the problem of transport to both teachers and students, most of teachers and students leave far from schools, this affect a lot as they arrive at school very late and tired and irresponsible students, other students they don’t know their responsibility, they are
not serious with their studies. This kind of response implies that; there are some challenges caused by the students themselves, parents and the government. That is to say; the provision of quality education is an integrated responsibility. Each stakeholder has to play his/her role effectively so as to ensure the quality education.

4.6 Teaching Methods
Researcher aimed at knowing the teaching methods adopted by teachers in Temeke District Council. In some cases students’ poor performance had been claimed to be due to the use of poor teaching approaches in the classroom, as it is teacher-centered, with students relying heavily on the teacher and old notes, and classroom time often not being used efficiently and effectively for mental engagement of the students (MOEVT 2010). Findings revealed that at Temeke District council the availability of a particular teaching material determined the type of teaching method used. The commonly used method includes lecture and participatory methods. Other practical studies such as laboratory tests were conducted basing on the availability of laboratory and equipments Table 4.2 below shows teaching methods and learning materials used

It was evident that the methods of teaching are not enough in sample school. Shortage of this method makes teaching and learning process difficult and result to inefficiency. The study conducted by Mafumiko (1998) on problem facing secondary school revealed that were faced with lack of laboratory equipment, apparatus, textbook, and chemical. Although the study was done ten years ago, the problem still existed.

Through questionnaires, teachers were asked if student were doing experiments and practical work in their learning. Two teachers respond that their students were using laboratory for doing experiment and practical works, while six teachers responded that their schools had no laboratory at all although they had few laboratory and apparatus. The researcher then interviewed physics teacher about the failure of student to do practical works for school with physics laboratories. The teachers responded in the form four National examinations practical’s are allowed where as
for the rest of classes (form one, two, three) were not allowed to perform practice work due to shortage of laboratory equipment, chemicals and apparatus. Instead, they were allowed to visit laboratories only for demonstrations. The system applied in these schools was not good because it does not give students room to interact with laboratory equipment and apparatus. Such pattern leads to student poor performance and student’s lose interest in physics subject.

Teachers were asked, through questionnaires, about problems facing them when they did practical with students. Two teachers respond that most of the students had poor background in laboratory equipment and apparatus. Thus, they did not know even how to read and take measurement using instruments such as micrometer screw gauge, Vernier Caliper and so on. So they used much of their time to teach them how to read and take measurement before practical works. Also they argue that there was large number of students against laboratory equipment and apparatus. That it made difficult for them to distribute available facilities in a good ration. Six teachers responded that they were not doing practical works in their school because their school had no physics laboratories.

The aim of laboratory works at school level is to help student understand concept by liking theory and practice lesson so as to acquire development skills in their ability to recognize questions that can be investigated through experiments (Cohen and Colleagues, 1985). Also they help to plan, carry out, evaluate and report about such experiments. Failure of doing practical work means the whole process of teaching and learning become difficult. The quality of teaching and learning is poor because most of sample schools do not have laboratories. Practical work was not conducted. For school with laboratorie, the laboratories equipment and apparatus were inadequate. They affected the quality of teaching and learning.

4.7 Teaching environment at schools

Teaching environment has the effect on the quality education. If there is no Conducive environment for teaching and learning it is obvious that there could be no quality education out of it. 3(100%) respondents said that there is no Conducive
environment. All of them pointed out that; in their schools there is no fence for security thus it is very hard to control the student’s movements. Moreover, there are no enough desks, good blackboards as well as nice toilets. There are no laboratories to some schools, even to those schools which they have, they only have the extended laboratories which they are just rooms within the class not even designed for laboratory purposes and they are very small to accommodate all students. On the other hand, they also claimed to have small number of qualified teachers and those small teachers are not even motivated to boost their working morale. In this condition it is very difficult to meet the intended outcome of having the quality educated generation.

4.8 Challenges facing teachers in their working environment

As the basic question, researcher wanted to acquire information patterning to the challenges for provision of quality education. Teachers were asked this question as they involve direct on the whole process of teaching. 15 (50%) of all teachers pointed out that; the common challenges which they face are; Shortage of teachers, teaching and learning facilities like laboratory, classrooms, library as well as books compared to the actual number of students. This response made a researcher hold an interview with different teachers at different point of time. A teacher from “D” secondary school said;

“Honestly, we are working in a very difficult environment, we teachers are very few compared to the students that we have, we do not have enough teaching materials and facilities, we do not have enough class rooms to accommodate a big number of students that we have in our school. In this kind of environment we do not expect to provide the quality education that we all aspire’’. (Interview form two B class teacher)

Teacher from “B” secondary school and “C” also commented on the same view; the biggest challenges are; we don’t have facilities, the ration of teachers students is not observed, students are too many to handle. We also have shortage of books especially of science subjects and its teachers; there is lack of laboratory equipments, we don’t expect best result out of this condition.
3 (10%) respondents had different arguments; teachers from “A”, “F” and “E” secondary schools identified low salary, no incentives, indiscipline, poor attendance as well as English language as the challenges that they are facing. They argue that, life is very expensive nowadays, our salaries are very low and we do not have time to do other business, pattering to the discipline, one teacher said, “some students have bad behavior but this originate from where he came, parents have to teach their children morals that will help us a lot”. English language is also a challenge; “students do not have a basic or good foundation in language as a result facilitates student’s poor performance” commented one teacher. Other students have poor attendance this affects a lot their performance.

2 (7%) of all respondents commented on poverty. Some respondent noted that parents are poor; they fail to afford fees and other needs of their children. Apart from that, there are different social networks like face book and twitter, most of students misuse them; they spend much time on those things than studying. Other identified challenges were; lack of seriousness in the studies, transport and political interference in education. All these lead to poor quality education. 5 (17%) respondents argued on incompetent teachers, student’s awareness as well as poor policy while the remaining 5 (17%) respondents identified poor cooperation from parents and poor syllabus as the challenges that they face. Those are challenges as pointed by teachers in different schools as pointed earlier.

Following the presence of those challenges, the researcher wanted to know if these teachers were given opportunity to air out their voices. 12 (40%) of all respondents agreed that they were given chances to express their views and opinion patterning to their carrier and challenges that they are facing. On the other hand 18 (60%) respondents disagrees that they are given opportunities to express themselves. This finding gives an impression that, to greater extent, teachers are not given the opportunities to express themselves pattering to their needs for quality education. Figure 4.4 below summarizes this response.
4.9.1 Rewards to Teachers

A researcher wanted to find out as to whether there is a system of rewarding teachers so as to increase their morale. 20(67%) respondents said there is no reward provided to any teacher who contributes on delivering the quality education. While 10(33%) agree that there is reward which granted to those teachers who contribute to the provision of quality education. There are two kinds of rewards, financial rewards and non financial rewards. The financial rewards were given in terms of cash, and non financial rewards were things like promotions, certificates, house allowances, transport allowances and free medical treatment. These rewards were given to teachers such as Mbande, Chamazi and Charambe Secondary Schools whose students’ performances were very high, scoring between A and B in each subject. The researcher found out that the schools which had a system of giving incentives to motivate the teachers had a very high performance compared to those schools which had no system of motivation to boost the morale of teachers. This implies that, to some schools there is the system of rewarding while to others there is none. Figure 4.5 illustrate the findings.

Figure 4.4: Self Expressions
4.9.2 Support from Employer

Any employee aspect to get full support from his employer. Supports can be in many aspects, can be the efforts to improve working environment, it can also be in terms of provision of teaching and learning facilities. Having seen that, a researcher wanted to find out as to whether teachers of six schools in three wards of Temeke district are getting full supports from their employers to ensure that they meet their teaching needs. Figure 4.6 and Table 4.3 depicts the response toward the question. 4(13%) respondents admits that they get supports from their employers while 26(87%) did not agree that they receive full supports from their employers. This kind of response gives an impression that teachers are not receiving supports from their employers. In actual fact, it demoralizes a lot their efforts on working hard so as to meet the intended outcome, hence poor quality education.

Table 4.4: Support from Employer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category Of Response</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Data 2013
Support from the government

The government has a very greater role to play on ensuring that, these ward schools operating in a Conducive environment by granting them funds in a right time. To furnish them with all the necessary facilities and equipments required for the quality education. The government has to look seriously and prioritize in education sector. Education is the heart of any nation. A researcher wanted to find out about the time the government assists these ward secondary schools in full filling their educational needs. The findings show that, 13 (43%) respondents argued that they receive the assistance in one year time, 3 (10%) respondents said they receive assistance in two years time while 8 (27%) respondents said they receive in three years time and 6 (20%) they did not respond to this question. Table 4.4 and Figure 4.7 present the response towards the supports provided by the government.

Table 4.5: Support from the Government

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of response</th>
<th>Frequency (F)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One Year</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two Years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three Years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Data 2013

Conclusion

The findings of this study show that, common challenges facing all schools under investigation include; lack of learning and teaching facilities (books, laboratory, library and classrooms), shortage of teachers, and lack of cooperation from parents, government and students themselves. These challenges have been obstacles for the attainment of the quality education in these schools. The government has a very nice motive to establish these schools; the intention was to eradicate ignorance by ensuring that, each child at all levels has the access of secondary education. The problem is, these schools operate in the very hard conditions as the findings portray it
selves. The findings demonstrate that Tanzania has a long way to go to bring about improvement in education sector.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Introduction
This chapter presents the summary of the study. It gives a researcher’s remarks based on the findings attained during the field. The researcher also recommends on key matters which he believes that, if they will be put into reflection they will convey changes in the recent situation.

5.2 Summary of study
The ground of this study was to assess the quality of education in ward secondary school in Temeke district. The main objective were to identify the quality of instructive material available in ward secondary schools Temeke district which is one of the public service organizations the following were research questions meant to be answered in the course of conducting this study; What is the quality of instructional materials available in ward secondary schools in Temeke district?, What are the various methods used by teachers in teaching students in Temeke district?, How are the learning and teaching environment of these schools?, What are the difficulties experienced by ward secondary schools in the efforts to improve the quality of education?

Review of relevant literature in chapter two identified existing policy on education with the total decentralization system of education Tanzania supporting motivational theory in the study chapter three presented research methodology in terms of design tend to use applied research which was focus much on the case study. The study employed a mixed approach based on the qualitative and quantitative research in social science at Temeke district in Dar es Salaam which includes 57 people in number. Sampling techniques used included probability and non-probability. Therefore in probability simple random sampling was used and in no probability purposive was used to investigate the study. Primary data involve questionnaire plus interview with secondary data documentaries were analysed by the Statistical
Package for the Social Sciences. Chapter four provides research findings and discussion of the results while chapter five provide the conclusions as well as draw recommendations for improvement.

Additionally, the study on the quality of facility of teaching and learning environment the study revealed that the situation was not satisfactory. There was a very serious problem of shortage of instruction materials, and poor working environments. The situation was worse for audio-visual material. There was shortage of student’s textbook, in sample schools. Due to the shortage of textbooks, teacher failed to assign their students homework and assignments. Moreover schools had the problem of laboratories. Only two schools had laboratories while four not. The four schools had never conducted any experiment or practical. Thus, students had never participated in any practical work. Laboratories equipment and apparatus were not enough in sample schools. Shortage of teachers, lack of cooperation from the parents, teachers’ poor compensation and benefits, poor participation and student’s moral decay contributed to much harder teaching and learning environment for both teachers and some students.

5.3 General Conclusion

From the scrutiny made during field it shows that, the situation in the all researched ward Secondary schools is more less the same. The common challenges that all schools facing include; lack of learning and teaching facilities (books, laboratory, library and classrooms), shortage of teachers, lack of cooperation from parents, government and students themselves. These challenges have been the hindrance for the attainment of the quality education in these schools. The government has a very nice motive to establish these schools; the intention was to eradicate ignorance by ensuring that, each child at all levels has the access of secondary education. The problem is, these schools operate in the very hard conditions as the findings portray it selves. The findings demonstrate that Tanzania has a long way to go to bring about improvement in education sector.
5.4 Suggestion for the further research study

Government should focus and put its efforts more on designing better ways to improve the quality of education in ward secondary schools. Also it has been observed that the level of teacher in delivering daily teaching activities is low, though the reasons for that are not known organization should put focus and must find out the reasons with valid solution as to make more research.

5.5 Recommendations

(i.) The government has to increase the number of teachers so as to balance the students - teacher ratio.

(ii.) These schools has to have enough teaching and learning facilities so as to easy the teaching process (laboratories with enough equipments, books, libraries as well as classrooms)

(iii.) The government has to increase their salaries, it has to pay their debts, they have to provide incentives and rewards to increase teacher’s morale.

(iv.) Teachers have to be given the opportunities to express their views. Through table discussion with Regional and district education officers it will be easy to identify the challenges and the possible solution toward those challenges.

(v.) Each stakeholder has to participate fully on ensuring the quality education by playing its role and not neglecting their responsibilities. There must be cooperation between government, civil societies and Donors, teachers, parents and students themselves.

(vi.) The government has to grant enough capitations on time so as to smoothen the operation.

(vii.) The government has to build teacher’s houses so as to solve the problem of transport.
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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for Head of Schools

1. What do you consider to be the major problems in providing quality of education in secondary schools in Temeke district?

…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………

2. What are other responsibilities you are involved in your career apart from being head of school?

…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………

3. Does an employee get any opportunity to use and express his/her problems concerning his/her career?
   (i.) Yes (          )
   (ii.) No (          )

4. What difficulties do you experience in handling the school matters in providing the quality of education in your school?

…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………

5. Are there an incentives offered to teachers after delivering quality education in Temeke district?
   (i.) Yes (          )
   (ii.) No (          )
6. What challenges do you face in providing quality education in your school?

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

7. What do you think would be a solution to the problems pertaining to the quality of education in your school?

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

8. How difficult is it to establish quality of education in ward secondary schools?
   (i.) Difficult (   )
   (ii.) More difficult (   )
   (iii.) Most difficult (   )
   (iv.) Simple (   )

9. Do Temeke ward secondary schools provide the quality of education?
   (i.) Yes (   )
   (ii.) No (   )

10. What is your opinion on the quality of education in regard to teaching and learning process in ward secondary schools?
...........................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................

11. How do teachers, education officer and other academicians participate in the process of providing quality education in ward secondary schools?
...........................................................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................................................
12. How does the education officer meet the needs of teachers in ward secondary schools?

(i.) Regularly (  )
(ii.) Not regularly (  )
(iii.) Seldom (  )
(iv.) In time (  )

13. How long does it take for the government to assist ward secondary schools in fulfilling their educational needs?

(i.) Six months (  )
(ii.) One year (  )
(iii.) Two years (  )
(iv.) Three years (  )
Appendix 2: Questionnaire for Teachers

Please fill in the black or put a tick (✓) as indicated below:

1. Name ……………………………………………………………………………………..

2. Gender
   (i.) Male (          )
   (ii.) Female (          )

3. Age…………………………………………………………………………………………

4. Qualifications
   (i.) Certificate (          )
   (ii.) Diploma (          )
   (iii.) Degree (          )

5. Experience
   (i.) 1-2 years (          )
   (ii.) 4 years (          )
   (iii.) 7 years and above (          )

6. What do you consider to be the major problems in providing quality of education in your secondary school?
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………

7. What are other responsibilities you are involved in your career apart from teaching?
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
   ……………………………………………………………………………………………
8. Do you have any opportunity to use and express your problems concerning your career?
   (i.) Yes ( )
   (ii.) No ( )

9. What difficulties do you experience in teaching within your school?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………

10 a) What are the teaching methods do you use?
    ………………………………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………………………………
    ………………………………………………………………………………………………………

   b) What are the challenges in the use of a particular teaching method for teaching?
      ………………………………………………………………………………………………………
      ………………………………………………………………………………………………………
      ………………………………………………………………………………………………………

11 Are there any rewards received by you as a teacher after delivering quality education in your school?
   (i.) Yes ( )
   (ii.) No ( )

12 What challenges do you face in providing quality education in your school?
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………
13 What do you think would be a solution to the problems pertaining to the quality of education in your school?

……………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………

14 What is your opinion on the quality of education in regard to teaching and learning process in ward secondary schools?

……………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………………………

15 Do you think the employer is providing you adequate support to meet your teaching needs?

(i.) Yes ( )
(ii.) No ( )

16 How long does it take for the government to assist ward secondary schools in fulfilling their educational needs?

(i.) Six months ( )
(ii.) One year ( )
(iii.) Two years ( )
(iv.) Three years ( )
Appendix 3: Interview Guide Questionnaire for District Education Officer

1. Does Temeke ward secondary schools offer quality education? How?

2. Are there any difficulties in implementing quality education in Temeke district?

3. What do you think are the results of poor quality education in Temeke district?

4. What do you think are the main causes of poor quality of education in ward secondary schools in Temeke district?

5. Are there any measures been taken towards improving the quality of education in Temeke district?
Appendix 4: Interview Guide Questionnaire for Students

1. Are teaching and learning materials available for learning science and arts subjects in your school?

2. What difficulties/problems do you face when your teacher teaches you without using instructional materials?

3. Do you have laboratories for practical and experiments in your schools?

4. Do your teachers make use of teaching and learning materials more effectively?

5. Do you have problems in understanding science subjects?
   (i.) Yes (   )
   (ii.) No (   )

6. If yes what are the problems?

   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………………………………………

7. In your own opinion what recommendations would you like to make towards effects and problems facing you in teaching and learning subjects under shortage of instructional materials?