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**Tanzania Leaders' Perceptions of Practices that Resulted in Successes and Failures of
Educational Development Programs in Coastal Tanzania**

by

Nancy K. Shedrack

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of

St. Cloud State University

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Abstract

The leadership of development programs in developing countries is characterized by complex leadership processes failing to produce the intended results of improving education, economic development or poverty reduction in many developing countries. The research revealed that the programs had not been able to resolve such complex matters as the achievement gap and improvement of the quality of education in Tanzania. A lack of visionary leaders and leadership failures meant that these development programs did not produce their intended results.

The purpose of the study was to examine the past educational development program efforts in order to assess issues that contributed to their success or failure and secure recommendations to improve future educational development program implementation. Historical analyses of changes of leadership over significant periods demonstrated that leadership had a profound influence on the development or lack of development of the country. Thus, these failures bring into question the effectiveness of processes and leadership strategies that rely on foreign aid as the fundamental source for sustainable development programs in African countries.

The study focused on the evidence that many government programs sponsored by international institutions do not lead to improvement in education, social or economic development. The qualitative research study facilitated the use of an inductive approach (new information) from the selected coastal region in Tanzania to identify concepts that could lead to better leadership processes and strategies in the future implementation of educational development programs. Theoretical sampling of the emerging concepts may reveal mental models, strategic structure, processes and outcomes that could result in implementation of sustainable development programs in Tanzania in the future.

The study results indicated several educational development program successes included increased enrollment at primary and secondary school levels and increased access to education for female students. Results from the study illustrated that a shortage of teachers due to increased population, inadequate budgets to conduct school inspection, and cultural beliefs hindered development programs' successes. Two other areas reported as concerns included a lack of accountability and discrimination regarding special needs children. Participants' recommended training of visionary leaders, recognition, training and remuneration for teachers, and the updating of policies with clear expectations.

Dedication

To Professor Roger Worner, my Chairperson, thank you for being my teacher, my mentor. I am forever grateful for your time, support and guidance. This dissertation would not have been possible without Professor Worner's support and assistance. I have achieved my goal. God bless you.

Acknowledgment

The completion of this dissertation has been a rewarding and amazing experience, personally, professionally and for my growth development. A special thank you to my professors and especially to my committee members for agreeing to serve on my dissertation committee: Dr. Kay Worner and Prof. Roger Worner. Dr. James Johnson and Dr. David Lund. I truly appreciate all of their time and assistance.

Additional gratitude is offered to my Doctoral Center Facilitator, Michele Braun-Heurung, who provided resources, updates and feedback as I worked on my dissertation.

I could not have completed my study without the support of these amazing individuals.
Stay Blessed.

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List of Acronyms

IDA	International Development Agencies
WB	World Bank
IMF	International Monetary Fund
PEDP	Primary Education Development Plan
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
EFA	Education For All
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
ICM	Integrated Coastal Management
TANU	Tanganyika African National Union
FDI	Foreign Direct Investments
M&A	Mergers and Acquisition
SOE	State Owned Enterprises
SAP	Structural Adjustment Policies
PSAP	Priority Social Action Plan
ERP	Economic Recovery Programme
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategic Paper
GCA	Global Coalition for Africa
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
NGO	Non -Governmental Organization
IRB	Institutional Review Board
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VETA	Vocational Education training Authority

UPE	Universal Primary Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
UNPF	United Nations Population Fund
LEDC	Less Developed Countries
NORAD	Norway's Development Agency
DEC	Developed Countries
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers
PSLE	Primary School Leaving Examination

Chapter 1: Introduction

Leadership for development programs in developing countries has involved interventional activities orchestrated by International Development Agencies (IDAs) such as the World Bank (WB), the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and various agencies of the United Nations (Alfred, 2003; Asfaw, Kassie, Simtowe, & Lipper, 2012; Ellis & Mdoe, 2003; Evans & Ngalwea, 2003; Sigalla & Carney, 2012; Wedgwood, 2007). Leaders of national governments of developing countries, such as Tanzania, rely on foreign aid from the International Development Agencies (IDAs) as a primary source of funding for development programs in their countries (Moyo, 2009).

Unfortunately, the problem is that interventional programs have often failed to produce the intended results of improving education, economic development or poverty reduction (Gottschalk, 2005; Rakner, 2005). These failures bring into question the effectiveness of processes and leadership strategies that rely on foreign aid as the fundamental source for sustainable development programs in African countries (Moyo, 2009).

According to a 2011 Planning and Privatization Economic Survey, the economies of African countries have remained mainly at subsistence levels often involving small-scale farming and production (Sesabo & Tol, 2005, p. 256). Poverty is rampant in the rural communities, and people are over-dependent on natural resources. In nearly all-African countries, the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita is less than a standard unit of currency in international markets, such as the U.S. dollar 100 (USD) (UNDP, 2011). It is an indicator of Africa and their share in the total world population and economic performance (UNdata, 2016). In addition, it examines gross domestic product (GDP) and public finances, as well as trade in goods between African countries (UNdata, 2016).

The leadership processes in the International Development Agencies- (IDAs) sponsored programs are neither effective nor comprehensive (Collier, 2007; Moyo, 2009). The fundamental processes in the International Development Agencies (IDAs)-related development programs that involve the borrowing of foreign funds are accompanied by other processes that prescribe the use of these funds (Moyo, 2009). The borrowed funds prescribe the conditions on what the leaders can do or cannot do with the funds (Moyo, 2009; Jenkins, 2006).

Reliance on aid from International Development Agencies (IDAs) automatically initiates a set of processes that involve borrowing development funds from countries or organizations in order to obtain the aid. These processes result in African countries acquiring enormous debt and the loss of control of their economies to the lending nations, causing the local residents to fall even deeper into poverty (Moyo, 2009).

Dambisa Moyo (2009) a former economist at Goldman Sachs observed that over the past sixty years:

At least \$1 trillion of development-related aid has been transferred from rich countries to Africa. Yet real per-capita income today is lower than it was in the 1970s, and more than 50% of the population of over 350 million people live on less than a dollar a day, a figure that has nearly doubled in two decades. Even after the very aggressive debt-relief campaigns in the 1990s, African countries still pay close to \$20 billion in debt repayments per annum, a stark reminder that aid is not free. In order to keep the system going, debt is repaid at the expense of African education and health care. Well-meaning calls to cancel debt mean little when the cancellation is met with the fresh infusion of aid, and the vicious cycle starts up once again. (p.163a)

The leadership of development programs in developing countries are characterized by complex leadership processes and adaptation (Rono, 2012). For example, Sitta and Laddunuri (2012) examined the effects on Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) and its management over the last past 5 years. The Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) was created to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Education For All (EFA) by 2015 which had operational targets that were intended to ensure effective management of school funds and implementation of school activities. The Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) planned to achieve these objectives by collaboration between governments and parents to insure all eligible children would be enrolled in primary schools. Because of growing interventional activities orchestrated by International Development Agencies (IDAs), bureaucracy and corruption, the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) failed to improve quality education in Tanzania (Sitta & Laddunuri, 2012).

In Tanzania specifically, high dropout rates have been reported in both primary and secondary schools (Rono, 2012). In 2008 it was reported that 30 percent of primary school children failed to complete high school (Rono, 2012). The recently released Literacy and Numeracy across East Africa report by Uwezo under the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) (2013) program, which sought to explain whether children were learning, revealed that very few children enrolled in grade 3 (aged 9 and 10) could pass the individual literacy and numeracy tests (Rono, 2012). Those results illustrated that the school children were not acquiring basic competencies in their early schooling years.

The main objectives of Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) was to provide the resources to make learning more fun and make sure the children developed a love of learning

(Sitta & Laddunuri, 2012). Whatever the research revealed, it had not been able to resolve such complex matters as the achievement gap and improvement of the quality of education in Africa.

In nearly all of the African countries studied, organizational theorists in the social system dynamics, Sitta and Laddunuri, (2012) noted that educational policies and practices are strongly influenced by increasingly integrated international policies that are subject to severe crises; that international reforms and crises have significant effects on other nations; and that immigration and population flows from one nation or area to another have tremendous impacts on what counts as development, what counts as a responsive and effective education, what counts as appropriate teaching; all of these social and ideological dynamics and many more are now fundamentally restructuring what education does in terms of performance, enrollment, achievement, learning, quality and how it is controlled, and who benefits from it throughout the nations. (p. 8)

According to McKinsey Global Institute Report (2003) “massive loans for education, economic and infrastructure development are contracted to multinational corporations”. Lack of visionary leader and leadership failure were the reasons these development programs did not produce their intended results. Historical analyses of changes of leadership over significant periods demonstrated that leadership had a profound influence on the development of the country (Sayles, 1979). According to Sayles (1979) for a society to function and develop, its people must share beliefs, values and norms regarding the standards of agreement in the development of the country. Sayles emphasized that a leader has a symbolic function that serves as a representative of their group to outsiders and provides a way to simplify and find meaning in the group’s external environment.

Statement of the Problem

The communities of Tanzania's east coast bordering the Indian Ocean continue to experience a high prevalence of poverty of less than U.S. dollar 100 per capita (Mangora, 2011; Tobey & Torell, 2006). In spite of multiple economic development program activities in the coastal rural and urban areas of Tanzania, such as maritime harbor activities, fisheries, commerce and tourism, people still live in abject poverty (Vavrus & Seghers, 2010).

The specific statement of the problem asserts there are few studies that have been conducted to gather the perceptions of coastal Tanzanian community village and program leaders related to the high failure rate of educational development programs in coastal Tanzania and their role in sustainable development.

The study was focused on the evidence that many government programs sponsored by international institutions do not lead to improvement in education, social or economic development (Ellis & Mdoe, 2003; Holtom, 2007; Rakner, 2005; Wedgwood, 2007). For example, the Integrated Coastal Management (ICM) reported that its primary objective was the socio-economic development of coastal communities (URT, 2003). The ICM intended to achieve this primary objective by uniting the government with the community, science with management, and private with public interests to create and implement an integrated action plan. Rather than producing social and economic development, however, the ICM and similar development programs efforts resulted in social and economic decline among the people they were intended to assist (Lundin, 1997, p. 249).

The qualitative case research study facilitated collection of inductive approach (new information) from the selected coastal region in Tanzania to identify concepts that could lead to better leadership processes and strategies in the future implementation of educational

development programs. Theoretical sampling of the emerging concepts were intended to reveal mental models, strategic structure, processes and outcomes that could result in implementation of sustainable development programs in Tanzania in the future.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the past educational development program efforts in order to assess issues that contributed to their success or failure and secure recommendations to improve future educational development program implementation.

The study examined the following issues:

- The Tanzanian leaders' perceptions of leadership practices that have resulted in the past high rate of success or failure of educational development programs and could yield sustainable development of educational programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.
- The Tanzanian leaders' perceptions of factors that could contribute to the success of sustainable educational development programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.
- Tanzanian leaders' perceptions of those leadership practices that could support and aid in the sustainable development of educational programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.

Research Questions

The study examined the following four research questions:

1. What did coastal Tanzanian leaders report as the major past educational development program successes and their causes?
2. What did coastal Tanzanian leaders report as the major past educational development program failures and their causes?

3. What were the major leadership strengths and limitations of educational development partners reported by Tanzanian leaders?
4. What leadership practices did coastal Tanzanian leaders recommend be developed and implemented to increase the future success of educational development programs in coastal Tanzania?

Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

Researchers formulate theories to explain, predict, and understand phenomena. The theoretical framework is a structure that can hold or support a theory of a research study (Torraco, Swanson, & Holton, 1997; Sutton & Staw, 1997). Donabedian's (1996) structure-process-outcome theoretical model was intended to provide guidance in identifying these major causes of past development program failures and the limitations and practices that could be recommended to increase the future success of educational development programs in coastal Tanzania.

Donabedian's structure-process-outcome. The study was focused on the outcomes of leadership of educational development programs in coastal Tanzania. Donabedian (1996) explained that the outcomes of a particular program depend of the quality of the processes used in the program which, in turn, depend on the general structure of the program. The Donabedian structure-process-outcome model was a conceptual framework for evaluating outcomes of a social process. Donabedian originally developed the model for evaluating outcomes of medical care first described in his 1966 article, *Evaluating the Quality of Medical Care*.

According to the model, information about the quality of a development program can be drawn from three categories: *structure, process, and outcomes*. Structure describes the context in which the development program was implemented, including physical buildings, staff, financing,

and equipment. Process denotes the transactions between recipients of development programs and program leaders throughout the program implementation action plans. Outcomes refer to the effects of the development program on the social and economic status of populations (Figure 1). The Donabedian's insights could assist in explaining how the negative outcomes of development programs in Tanzania may be the result of faulty processes which are, in turn, the result of a faulty structure.

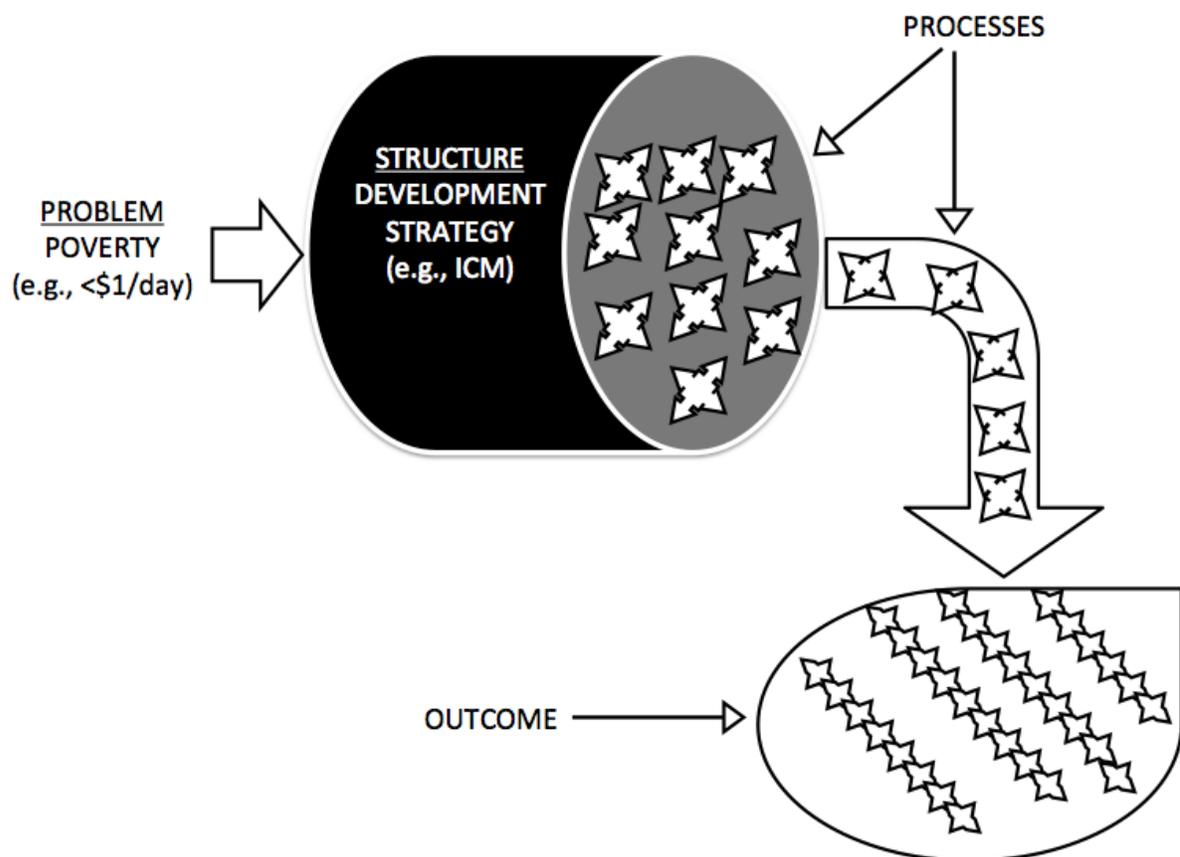


Figure 1. Strategic structure—process—outcome leadership model. (Note. Illustrated model modified by the author to depict the sustainable development program from Donabedian, 1996).

Donabedian's process of outcomes assessment involved five steps that comprise an iterative cycle of goal setting, planning, implementation, analysis, and feedback. The process can be conceptualized through the analogy of development programs in coastal Tanzania. Following

implementation of a development program, an evaluation of the program by the program leaders would assist in identifying a problem list, set mutual goals, best practices, establish a plan of action, and the recipients of development program (i.e., inhabitants of coastal Tanzania) would respond accordingly. Then, the program recipients' responses to the intervention would be assessed. If the recipients respond favorably and the goals in the plan of action were met, goal attainment would be communicated and documented. If the program recipients failed to respond, adjustment would be required based on data collected, a change made in the plan, and the process would begin again. By identifying the strategic structure and processes therein, the study may provide solutions that could aid in the development of leadership strategies that would support sustainable development programs in coastal Tanzania.

The study assisted in understanding how coastal Tanzanian leaders' assessments of past improvements match the five steps that comprise the iterative cycle of goal setting, planning, implementation, analysis, and feedback in the Donabedian's model. For instance, what were the major causes of past educational development program failures? The following terms could be addressed or used to examine, assess and recommend program changes such as data on the performance, patterns emerging from those data, interpretation and generation of hypotheses specific to pattern analysis, actions taken based on the hypotheses and assessment of the consequences of action(s) taken.

Senge (1990) confirmed Donabedian's observation that structure determines a process outcome. As such, the development outcomes directly depend on the underlying structure. Senge explained that the structure is the foundation of success. He stated that a good structure produces positive outcomes. A bad structure produces negative outcomes. Therefore, negative outcomes

call for the Tanzania coastal government leaders to evaluate the fundamental structure of the process.

Donabedian (1996) explained that outcomes are the result of specific processes in operation in an organization. The processes, in turn, are the result of strategic structure of the organization. This is in keeping with Deming's (1945) thought that a structure is perfectly designed to achieve the results it produces. Otherwise stated, the structure determines the outcome. Senge (1990) explained that leaders create structures based on the way they think about them—or their mental models. As such, a structure is the result of a particular mental model.

Figure 2 is modified to depict the influence of mental models on strategic structure.

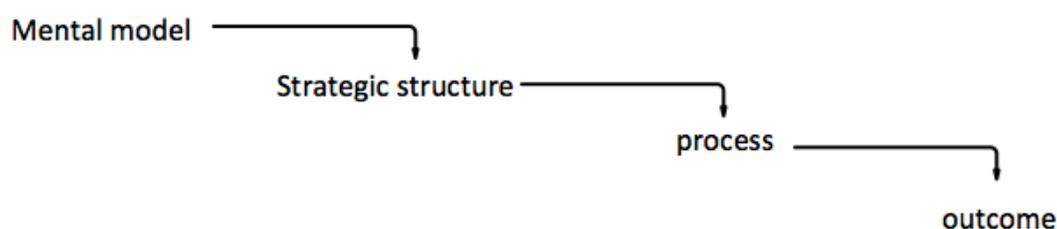


Figure 2. Mental-model that drives strategic structure for development projects that, in turn, drives development processes and their ultimate outcomes.

When leaders do not evaluate the governing structure, they tend to apply and promote the same strategy repeatedly. Senge (1990) explained that forcibly promoting a strategy that does not work is detrimental. According to Senge, the harder one pushes, the harder the system pushes back. The harder the world leaders fight poverty the higher incidence of poverty increases in “fixes-that-fail” system archetype. Figure 3 is an illustrative example of fixes that fail system archetype following poverty reduction initiative of the IDA sponsored Integrated Coastal Management Initiative-Education Programs.

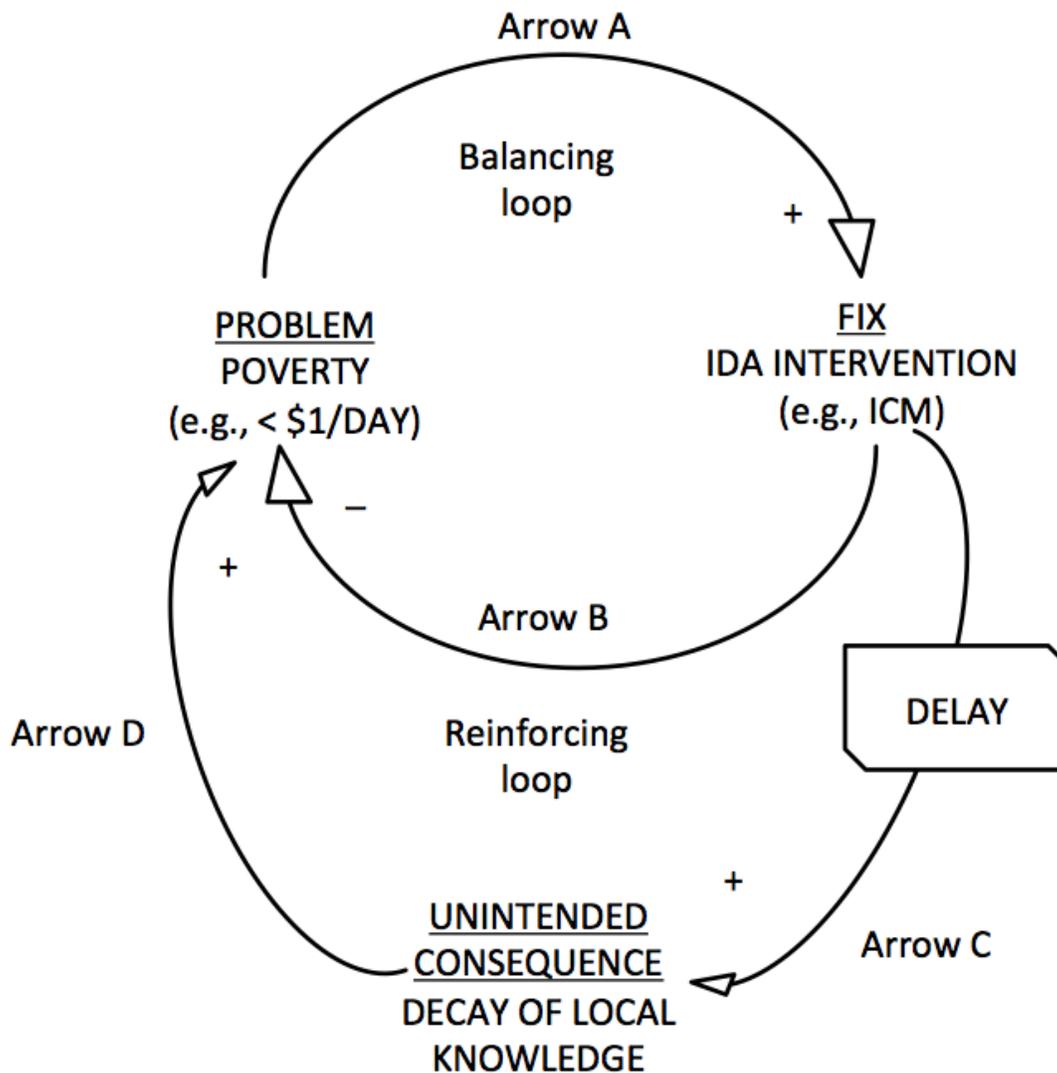


Figure 3. Fixes-that-fail system archetype in systems thinking (Senge, 1990).

In this example, the International Development Agencies (IDA) noticed the antecedent condition of widespread poverty among people living in coastal region who spent less than dollar a day. To overcome this problem the World Bank prescribed the Integrated Coastal Management Program (ICM) as a fix (Arrow A). This fix seemed to reduce poverty momentarily (Arrow B). In system's thinking, the ICM fix, for example, was intended to reduce the poverty in a balancing loop on Figure 3. The ICM proposed that all the local people had to do was to follow the ICM

prescription. In doing so, they abandoned their traditional practices and diverted their attention to the ICM prescription. This inattention to the traditional way of solving the poverty problem led to delay in traditional knowledge as an intended consequence of the ICM intervention. The problem is that the delay of the traditional knowledge occurred slowly (Arrow C).

Forrester (1998) stated that the world's leaders are correctly fixated on economic growth as the answer to virtually all problems. Mental models drive the strategic structure that leaders adopt to correct a problem. Figure 4 illustrates a mental model that leaders use to determine development strategic structure.

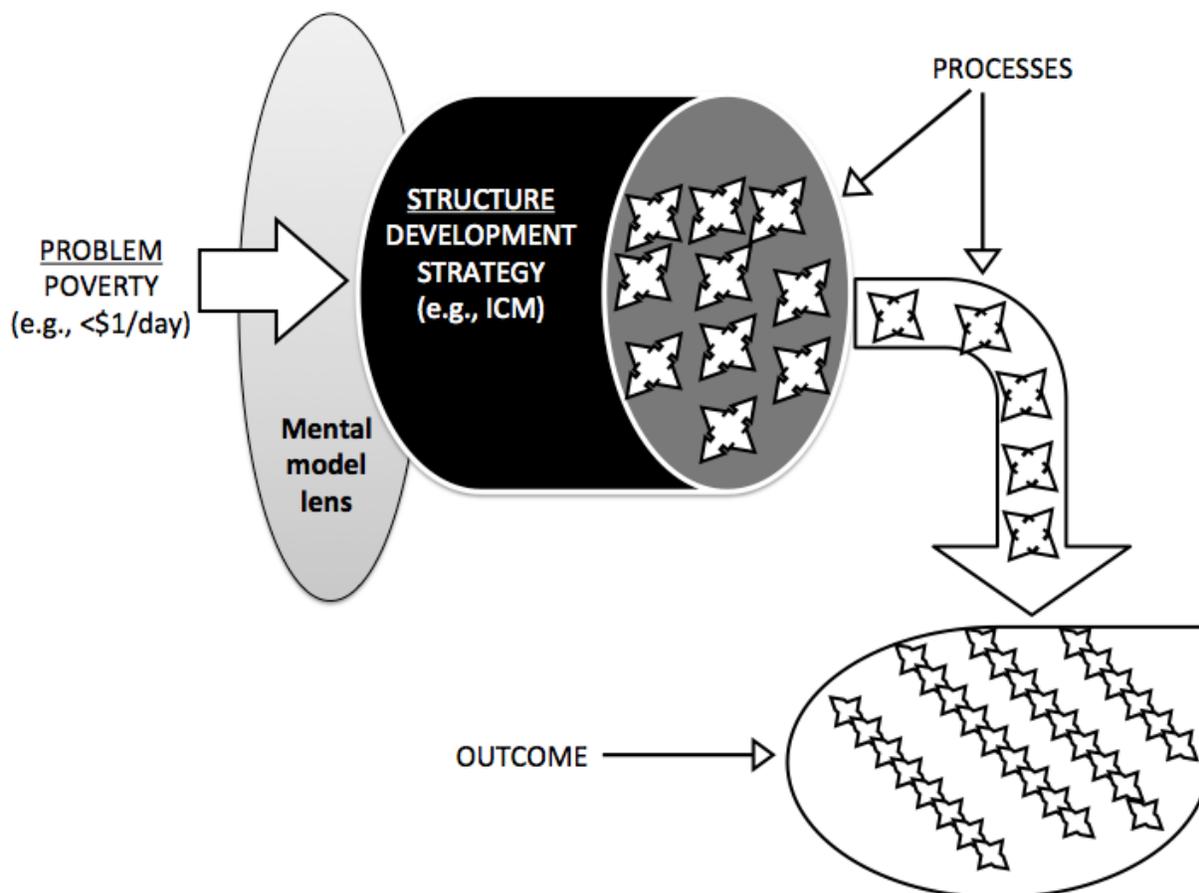


Figure 4. Illustration of leadership mental-model-lens that drives the strategic structure for development that, in turn, drives development processes and their ultimate outcomes.

Rather than pursuing the same strategy and expecting different outcomes, Senge (1990) explained that leaders must critically evaluate the mental models that drive the strategy to comprehend how its processes are yielding negative outcomes. Then they must have the determination to reframe that mental model (rather shift the lens through which they perceive development) in order to discover a new context that would allow development to occur. Reframing a mental model is the work of the education enterprise (Senge,1990).

Significance of the Study

The study was significant because it intended to identify the perceptions of leaders about the processes and strategies that may produce sustainable development programs in coastal Tanzania. To identify the prerequisites to success in complex collaborative efforts, Forrester (1998), the founder of the system dynamics method, pointed out “that the missing element is often a clear vision for how the work itself becomes developmental. This means employing models of change that weave together an outcome, the creative tension, and the gap between visions process, and human development made operational via embedded developmental practices” (p. 46).

The perceptions gathered in the study could provide guidance to local coastal Tanzania community leaders, coastal government leaders, and the leaders of the international development community in achieving greater success in implementing educational development programs. Growing the capabilities to become a more effective leader is hard work (Forrester, 1998). It needs to occur in difficult settings and under pressure to deliver tangible results. Transparency and accountability are critical ingredients to respond to problems in the change process of leadership (Selart, 2010).

In the final analysis, the study intended to provide guidance for developing visionary leaders who are involved in improving management and leadership processes in decision-making through the enhancement of accountability, transparency and responsibilities in the development programs of coastal Tanzania.

Delimitations

Delimitations are factors that could determine where the results of the study could be applied or not be applied (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Results of the study could only be applicable to similar populations living in the same geographic locations. Thus, delimitations determine where the results of the study could be generalized, and to which populations they could be transferable (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Factors that delimit a study include the target population, sample, and the specific groups included in the study such as the following:

1. Participants in the study were limited only to government leaders in the coastal region only of Tanzania who are managing educational development programs.
2. To minimize conflicts of interest, data were collected from participants who had no political party affiliations. The results of the study were applicable only to participating groups and may not be transferred to other settings in Tanzania.
3. The study selected one area of the country (coastal) of Tanzania for study and, therefore, study findings may not be generalizable to other areas of Tanzania or Africa.
4. The study was limited to interviews of a small sample of non-governmental organization and business leaders in Tanzania and, therefore may not be generalizable to all such leaders in Tanzania or coastal Tanzania.

Definition of Terms

Development Strategy. Most vision or goal statements provide a picture of an achievable and highly desired end product. It also provides an anchor for the remainder of the program.

Leadership Practices. For the purpose of the study, the term references processes, practices, policies, and/or procedures implemented by individuals in educational leadership positions.

Mental Models. The image of the world around us, which we carry in our head, is just a model. “Nobody in his head imagines all the world, government or country. He has only selected concepts, and relationships between them, and uses those to represent the real system” (Forrester, 1973, p. 1).

Mental-Model-Lens. One’s self-reflective behavior and meta-level mental models in general (Hamalainen & Saarinen, 2008, p. 59).

Sustainable Development. Sustainable development is inclusive form of development that operates from the ground-up that allows participation of all stakeholders in decision-making (Waruingi, 2010).

System Structure. According to Forrester (1973), all structure in all models comes from theory. Theory in turn comes from observation of systems, which means that theory comes from mental models (p. 48). System structure describes interrelated parts in a model.

Inspection Process. Inspection process is an ongoing, never-ending activity in order to keep pace with the constant changes in the organization (Sennewald & Baillie 2016)

Organization of the Study

The research study is presented in five chapters. Chapter 1 presents a background of the study of the coastal region of Tanzania, the statement of the problem, the statement of the

purpose, research questions, conceptual and theoretical framework of the study, significance of the study, delimitations of the study and definitions of terms. Chapter 2 presents a review of literature about the two central phenomena of this study: (a) economic development in the coastal region of Tanzania and (b) the strategic structure and processes of leadership for development programs in Tanzania. Chapter 3 presents the method of research, research design, geographic location, target population, instrument and data collection, data analysis, limitation of the study and ethical issues. Chapter 4 presents the findings of the study, and Chapter 5 presents recommendations and summary conclusions of the study.

Chapter 2: Review of Related Literature

The purpose of the study was to examine the past educational development program efforts in order to assess issues that contributed to their success or failure and secure recommendations to improve future educational development program implementation.

The study examined the following issues:

- The Tanzanian leaders' perceptions of leadership practices that have resulted in the past high rate of success or failure of educational development programs and could yield sustainable development of educational programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.
- The Tanzanian leaders' perceptions of factors that could contribute to the success of sustainable educational development programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.
- Tanzanian leaders' perceptions of those leadership practices that could support and aid in the sustainable development of educational programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.

Chapter 2 contains a review of literature about the two central phenomena of this study: (a) economic development in Tanzania and (b) the process and strategic structure of leadership for development programs in Tanzania. The chapter explains the two central phenomena from three perspectives (a) historical framework of each phenomenon, (b) current state of each phenomenon, and (c) the gap in literature about each phenomenon.

For the purpose of the study, history includes events published in scholarly literature from pre-independent Tanzania to the year 2009. As such, all works about the phenomenon published prior to December 31, 2009, constitute history in this review. All works published in scholarly

literature between January 1, 2010, and the present describe the current status of the phenomenon.

Tanzania Economic Development before and after the 1961 Independence

Tanzania gained independence in 1961. The country's name prior to independence was Tanganyika (Bagumhe 2007). Germany controlled Tanganyika's economy until the early 1920s when the British assumed control of the country until independence in 1961 (Bagumhe, 2007; Ngowi, 2007). Like many other colonized African countries, Tanganyika (Tanzania) was under colonial domination following political decisions made in Europe at the Berlin Conference in the mid - 19th century (Bagumhe, 2007; Ngowi, 2007). Indeed, it was at the Berlin Conference that the Europeans resolved to divide the African continent among European nations (Ngowi, 2007). According to Frantz Fanon in his book, *The Wretched of the Earth*, (1961) the goals of African colonization were to expand the European territories, to extract natural resources, and obtain free labor, in form of slavery.

European colonization of the African continent had a profoundly disruptive impact on the economic, social, political and governance, family and individual systems in the colonized nations (Bagumhe, 2007; Fanon, 1961; Ngowi, 2007). Those impacts influenced great changes and impacted economic development of the colonized countries in many ways (Bagumhe, 2007; Fanon, 1961; Ngowi, 2007). The economic expansion of the colonizers was the main motive of colonization. Extraction of raw materials, free or cheap labor, and acquisition of new territories for economic development of the colonial masters were the main motivators for colonization (Austin, 2010). By mid-19th-20th century, Tanganyika (Tanzania) became a great supplier of minerals and a market for such ready-made goods from Europe as porcelain, jewelries, ornaments, bracelets and cosmetics. This extraction approach to colonization did little to promote

the economic development of Tanganyika (Tanzania) (Austin, 2010; Andrews, 2009; Bagumhe, 2007).

The political economic structure created by the colonialists' affected the economic development of African countries for more than fifty years after independence (Austin, 2010; Bagumhe, 2007; Rodney, 1972). According to Sunseri (2006), the prevalent challenge of economic development in African countries was traceable to political decisions made by Europeans at the Berlin Conference (cited in Rodney, 1972). The ramifications of the Berlin Conference structured the current economic development of many African countries. Not only did they continue to affect the economy but also continued to determine the investment flow and business partnerships with their former allies (Matunhu, 2011). The colonial political economy resulted in much disruption in local communities that continued to manifest itself as conflicts and wars in such Africa countries as Congo, Somalia, Sudan, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Burundi and many others (Matunhu, 2011; Obidegwu, 2004).

Post-independence Tanganyika became Tanzania, a nation which concentrated its focus on building an independent nation (Ngowi, 2007). Despite the exit of the British colonialists, Britain, Arabian, and Asian countries continued to control post-independent Tanzania's economy. The British and Asians continued to own sisal plantations, processing mine industries and other large commercial activities continued (Ngowi, 2007). Tanzania relied on excessive manufactured goods from western countries rather than developing its own manufacturing economy and continued to use and rely on the policies made by the former colonialist (AFRODAD, 2002; Andrews, 2009; Ngowi, 2007).

Post-independence Tanzania entered in to a neo-colonial relationship with its former colonial master where the original colonial government remotely governed Tanzania through

policy manipulation (Alemazung, 2010; Bagumhe, 2007). In the neo-colonial relationship, the British government introduced policies aimed at implementing programs that depended on foreign investment to support local economic development programs in Tanzania (Ngowi, 2007). British inspired policies resulted in the implementation of the first five-year plan for independent Tanzania. This 5-year plan stipulated that Tanzania must continue to use the mode of production inherited from colonial powers (Bagumhe, 2007; Ngowi, 2007).

The post-independence policies did not augur well for Tanzania and economic imbalances manifested in the 1960s (Alemazung, 2010; Ngowi, 2007). The country's political decision to adopt and implement prescribed post-independence policies led to a number of economic challenges including market competition and economic failures (Alemazung, 2010). The Tanzanian government could not intervene in the economy because of the indirect control exerted by the western powers (Andrews, 2009; Alemazung, 2010; Flintan & Tedla, 2010). Currently, many African countries and their leaders have experienced the challenges created by the economic imbalances that were immediately adopted and embraced after independence (Andrews, 2009; Ngowi, 2007).

Arusha Declaration and Ujamaa Policy 1967-mid-1980s

Tanzania leaders were not unaware of these problems and immediately began to develop policies that would relieve the country of the indirect manipulation by the colonial masters (Flintan & Tedla, 2010). In 1967-1980 Tanzania established Ujamaa policy (“a socialist system of village cooperatives based on equality and self-help that a person becomes a person through the people or community”) following the Arusha Declaration of 1967 (Ngowi, 2007; Ngowi, 2009), President Julius Kambarage Nyerere proposed the Arusha Declaration's doctrine that outlined policy of socialism and self-reliance (Ngowi, 2007; Ngowi, 2009). The Arusha

Declaration ended the capitalist mode of production. This was a major transforming change of economic development in the country (EISA, 2010).

The Ujamaa policy was characterized by a socialist mode of production and socialist-oriented economic and political policies (Bagumhe, 2007; EISA, 2010; Ayanda, 1967). Ujamaa replaced the capitalist mode of production controlled by the colonial powers (Ayanda, 1967). This ushered in nationalization where all major means of production were nationalized and governed by Tanzanians, including manufacturing industries, agricultural and commercial plantations, mines and commerce. All became properties of the national government with the state becoming the owner, controller and managers of all enterprises, which were known as State Owned Enterprises (SOEs) (Chachage, 2003; Ngowi, 2010). Ujamaa policy encountered unintended consequences as the policy did not yield the anticipated results. The economic gap between rural and urban populations “widened” a lack of competition among enterprises atrophied, and the incentive for innovation and optimization of resources was underutilized (Chachage, 2003). Land use and marketing became stagnant (Chachage, 2003).

After these economic challenges occurred, Nyerere presented an alternative vision in 1967 as outlined in the “Arusha Declaration” under the Tanganyika African National Union (T.A.N.U.), then the ruling political party of Tanzania (Ayanda, 1967). Under T.A.N.U the vision focused on eliminating over reliance on foreign assistance in economic development (Ayanda, 1967). Thus T.A.N.U. called for changes in the party that ensured the country followed only socialism as the means of production.

Emergence of the new vision led the government to further nationalize and control such private companies as banks, insurance companies and other private enterprises including the country’s manufacturing industries (Chachage, 2003; Ayanda, 1967; Ngowi, 2007). The Arusha

declaration changed the country's policies and created a socialist egalitarian society with public ownership of the economy (Ayanda, 1967).

The intended goal of socialism and its good intentions failed. In a paradoxical manner, the nationalization of all major means of production, including the private sector, became the biggest contributor to the country's economy. After nationalization implementation, the country's economy deteriorated and the rate of poverty grew inexorably (Bagumhe, 2007, Chachage, 2003).

The country had become monopolistic in nature (Obidegwu, 2004.). State owned enterprises (SOEs) collapsed leading to massive unemployment (Obidegwu, 2004.). The remaining enterprises were neglected and under supported by the Ujamaa policy (Obidegwu, 2004.). The private sector firms were viewed as the country's economic threat (Austin, 2010; Alemazung, 2010; Rodney, 1972). Because of the inefficiency and ineffectiveness of leadership, lack of dynamism and innovative and lack of visionary leaders, this became the beginning of the deterioration of economic development in Tanzania (Andrews, 2009; Flintan & Tedla, 2010).

The per capita income that had grown by 0.7% per year in the period between independence and the Arusha Declaration was decimated (Chachage, 2003; Ngowi, 2007). The main economic activities were agriculture and manufacturing.

Importation of goods and services became stagnant (Chachage, 2003; Ngowi, 2007). The Tanzania government operated as a monopoly in marketing goods and services, trade controls and prices and exchange rate adjustment (Alemazung, 2010; Andrews, 2009; Chachage, 2003; Ngowi, 2007).

The Ujamaa policy suppressed the private sector businesses, and there were no opportunities for entrepreneurship among Tanzanians (Ngowi, 2007). However, during this

period the government provided high subsidizes of up to 100 per cent for social services (Chachage, 2003; Ngowi, 2007). Primary education, health services and water were among of the social services that receive government funding priorities. The main concept was that the country was trying to invest in human capital to foster economic development. Many investment and political decisions which were fostered during this period shaped the current social services and economic development in Tanzania (Austin, 2010; Bagumhe, 2007; Karume, 2006; Sunsuri, 1997). The present economic, social service, and political decisions of the country are the product of the 1967 Arusha Declaration (Nationalization, state owned enterprises and socialism policies).

External Political and Economic Factors in 1970s-1980s

In the mid-1970s-1980s Tanzania experienced external political and economic forces (Alemazung, 2010; Rweyemamu, 2009). Some of these forces had positive impacts and some had negative impacts on the country's economy. During this period Tanzania started to receive development assistance, otherwise known as foreign aid, from other governments (Andrews, 2009; Rweyemamu, 2009). Some of the economic assistance was direct and some indirect (Andrews, 2009; Rweyemamu, 2009). Foreign aid came in the forms of technical skills, managerial skills, technological and financial support and were provided on the basis of the political ideologies of the aid-providing countries (Alemazung, 2010; Austin, 2010; Rweyemamu, 2009; Sunsuri, 1997). Socialist countries such as China, Canada and such Scandinavian countries as Denmark, Sweden and Norway began providing development assistance to Tanzania because of its socialist political leadership (Sunsuri, 1997).

During the same period of time, there was a major split between capitalist West countries and socialist East countries. This was the era of cold war, a period of economic competition and

expansion between East and West (Sunsuri, 1997). Tanzania joined the Non-Aligned Movement, which allowed the country to receive development assistance from both capitalist and socialist countries. This was the initial period of time during which Tanzania began to depend financially on countries with different political ideologies, both capitalist and socialist countries (Andrews 2009; Austin, 2010).

In 1978-1979 Tanzania engaged in war with Uganda (Ngowi, 2007). Uganda was under the dictatorial political leadership of Iddi Amin. The war affected some parts of the country, such as the Lake Victoria region, in which the economy of the country was adversely affected. The economy of the country deteriorated further because of the financial investment required during and after the war (Alemazung, 2010; Khapoya, 2012). The war brought about political and economic instability both domestically and internationally (Khapoya, 2012). International traders whose firms had invested in the country were negatively impacted by the war as the work force and production performance deteriorated as a result of the war's manpower commitments (Chachage, 2003).

Tanzania, like many other colonized countries in Africa strived to achieve its economic freedom and political liberation (Austin, 2010; Brown, 2001; Khapoya, 2012). Unfortunately, this goal failed to be achieved during this time period because Tanzania had to support neighboring countries, including Mozambique, Zimbabwe and South Africa, which were still colonized (Austin, 2010; Khapoya, 2012;). Tanzania shared its country's resources to support liberation movements in these neighboring countries. The country supported freedom fighters and refugees from South Africa during this period (Austin, 2010). These actions contributed to further deterioration of the economic development of Tanzania because of the cost of the support (Alemazung, 2010; Khapoya, 2012; McPherson, 2000). Political leadership instability in one

country, has the potential to create many far-reaching consequences on the economic and political development of other countries, both domestically and internationally (Andrews, 2009; Matunhu, 2011; McPherson, 2000).

Economic Reformation: 1980-2008

In the mid-1980s, Tanzania reformed its economic management following major economic changes across the globe (McPherson, 2000). Tanzania adopted a capitalist mode of production in 1985 and began operating with a capitalist market oriented economic system with an independent private sector which were characterized by the forces of demand and supply (Ngowi, 2007; Lindemann & Putzel, 1990). This 1985 reformation led to economic development changes in the country (Lindemann & Putzel, 1990). The country deregulated its economic policies reversing the nationalization agenda of the 1967 Arusha Declaration. Among the new policies initiated were removal of importation barriers, price controls, deregulation in various manufacturing industries and creating multiparty democracy in the country (Bagumhe, 2007; Lindemann & Putzel, 1990).

These political decisions had a profound impact on the country's economic development (Lindemann & Putzel, 1990). As a result of this shift, Tanzania experienced major economic impacts including substantial inflow of foreign direct investments (FDIs) in the form of Mergers and Acquisition (M&As) of the former State-Owned Enterprises (SOE) and greenfield investments (Chachage, 2003; Lindemann & Putzel, 1990; Rweyemamu, 2009). The lost tax incomes and other subsidies were relieved, entrepreneurship opportunities were given priority, microfinance banks and private owned banks were established and country's employment rate increased (Lindemann & Putzel, 1990). In addition, the workforces' technical skills were improved as were managerial skills, hence, government revenues increased because of profits

and taxes from the privatization proceedings and increases in the economy's supply side with improvements in the quantity and quality of goods and services (Bagumhe, 2007).

However, the policy reformation also had negative impacts on the country's economic development particular in the social services such as education, health and water services. Hence cost sharing policy was introduced in order to reduce the poverty situation in the country (Bagumhe, 2007).

Development Projects and Economic Reform: Structural Adjustment Policies (SAPs)

The Khartoum Declaration of 1988 states that "Since the human being is the center of all development, the human condition is the only final measure of development. Improving that condition is essential for the poor and vulnerable human beings who comprise the majority of peoples in Africa. Africa's men and women are the main factors and the ends for whom and by whom any programme and implementation of development must be justified" (Flintan & Tedla, 2010; Wangwe, 1996)

There have been a number of development programs from international development agencies and governmental and non-governmental organizations to improve economic conditions in developing countries (Flintan & Tedla, 2010; Lugalla, 1997). One of the programs in the Structural Adjustment Policies (SAPs) whose main objective is to stabilize the economic crisis which has been impacting Tanzanian economy since the late 1970s.

Tanzania signed an agreement with the World Bank and the IMF in 1986 to adopt Structural Adjustment Policies (SAPs) (World Bank Report, 1995). Other programs which were adopted related to SAPs are the Economic Recovery Programme One (ERP I & II) in 1986 to

Social Action Plan (ESAP) and the Priority Social Action Plan (PSAP) in 1989 and the Poverty Reduction Strategic Paper (PRSP) (Lugalla, 1997; Wangwe, 1996; World Bank Report, 1995).

Structural Adjustment Policies (SAPs) are designed to alleviate developing countries' external and internal balance of payments and services problems (World Bank Report, 1995). The main purpose was to promote a country's export and import growth through devaluation, control producer price changes, trade liberalization, privatization and legal reforms (Lugalla, 1997; Wangwe, 1996). The historical background of Structural Adjustment Policies (SAPs) in Sub-Saharan African countries originated with the World Bank's 1981 Berg Report on social and economic crisis in the Africa continent (World Bank, 1995; Wangwe, 1996). In response to this report, the World Bank advocated the adoption of structural reforms in Sub-Saharan African countries. The major principles of Structural Adjustment Policies (SAPs) included the control of exchange rates, devaluation of the local currency, reduction of public borrowing and government expenditure, (particularly in unproductive sectors of the economy) and the introduction of user charges (cost-sharing) in education and health (Bagumhe, 2007, p. 167). Other measures included trade liberalization, reduction of tariffs, creation of a conducive environment for foreign investments, abolition of price controls, privatization of parastatals, withdrawal of subsidies, retrenchment of workers and, above all, democratization, which is generally understood to mean multiparty politics (Ngowi, 2007, p.43). Since the early 1980s, most countries in sub-Saharan Africa have been forced to implement these measures as a pre-condition to aid and loans from the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank, and other donor agencies (Lugalla, 1997, p. 26).

Structural Adjustment Policies (SAPs) in Tanzania are sophisticated development programs whose implementation led to the decline of the social and economic status of people

for whom it was designed to help. The Structural Adjustment Policies (SAPs), with all its good intentions, ultimately did not stabilize the economic livelihood of people in Tanzania (Lugalla, 1997).

The Structural Adjustment Policies (SAPs) program has been unsuccessful due to the lack of understanding social, economic, cultural, and environmental factors that influence the decision-making process of Tanzania communities (Ngowi, 2007). In this way, Structural Adjustment Policies (SAPs) and Poverty Reduction Strategic Paper (PRSP) are examples of relevance paradox (Ngowi, 2007). Tanzania has been implementing these policies prescribed by international financial institutions, like the World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF), as a necessary step for improving the socio-economic crisis of the country. (Wangwe, 1996). The livelihoods of people of most Tanzanians have worsened (Lugalla, 1997; Ngowi, 2009). Unemployment and real incomes of most households have declined sharply, malnutrition is rampant, food production has fallen relative to population, and social services have deteriorated both in quantity and quality (Lugalla, 1997; Wangwe, 1996).

In addition, Tanzania's population has exploded amidst severe socio-economic and environmental crisis. According to the United Republic of Tanzania report of 2005, 36 per cent of the country's population is living below the poverty line despite macroeconomic reforms and market liberalization. Many countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, of which Tanzania is one of the poorest, have experienced only moderate socio-economic improvement (Lugalla, 1997; Wangwe, 1996).

Transformation: 1961-1996

Tanzania's economy operated primarily under free market conditions, and the government adopted the World Bank's policies for agricultural development as a component of

its first five-year plan (Word Bank, 1995). With the cooperation of the World Bank, the Tanzania government adopted a three-year Structural Adjustment Policies plan, which was based on the advice of the Tanzanian Advisory Group (Word Bank, 1995). The plan was an exclusively national effort without any World Bank or IMF “financial support” (Ngowi, 2009; Wangwe 1996). At first, the Structural Adjustment Policies did not result in any significant changes in Tanzania’s economic performance because the government was reluctant to implement the policy measures (Ngowi, 2009). It was not until fiscal year (FY) 1984/85 that Tanzania launched its first significant reform aimed at liberalizing the economy (Wangwe, 1996; Word Bank, 1995).

The following were the main policy measures:

- Agricultural producer prices were raised by 46-55%.
- Cooperation unions for crop marketing were reintroduced.
- The Tanzanian shilling was depreciated by 40%.
- The nominal government budget deficit was frozen at the prior year’s amount.
- Government wages were raised by an average of 30%.
- Domestic trade of food products was liberalized.
- Consumer price subsidies for maize were eliminated.
- The Own-Fund Import Scheme, which allowed imports purchased with foreign currency deposited abroad, was initiated (World Bank Report 1995).

Although the international donor community welcomed these measures as a first step in the right direction, the measures only marginally affected overall economic performance. Consequently, the international organizations increased their pressure on the Tanzania government to take further action and pursue a stricter coordination of its economic policies (Ngowi, 2009).

Daron Acemoglu and James A. Robinson, the authors of *Why Nations Fail* (2012), presented that over the past 65 years:

The thinking in many international and government aid agencies that large donations can remedy poverty has dominated the theory of economic development but the results have not been so good. More than a quarter of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa are poorer now than in 1960s with no sign that foreign aid, however substantive, will end poverty there. In 2011, according to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), official development aid to Liberia totaled dollar \$765 million, and made up 73 per cent of its gross national income. The sum was even larger in 2010. But last year every one of the 25,000 students who took the exam to enter the University of Liberia failed. All of the aid is still failing to provide a decent education to Liberians. One could imagine that many factors have kept sub-Saharan Africa poor-famines, civil wars. But huge aid flows appear to have done little to change the development trajectories of poor countries, particularly in Africa. Why? As we spell out in our book, this is not to do with a vicious circle of poverty, waiting to be broken by foreign money. Poverty is instead, created by economic institutions that systematically block the incentives and opportunities of poor people to make things better for themselves, their neighbors and their country. (p. 45)

Adverse Impact of Corruption on Development Programs

There is increasingly concerned about the problem of corruption and its impact in the development programs. According to the Global Coalition for Africa (GCA), the World Bank (WB), the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) and others development partners have been an important and integral part of the process

of economic reforms. Their contribution was manifest in two distinct ways: providers of substantial financial and technical assistance and adjudicators and monitors of government's performance (or nonperformance) in implementing economic reforms (World Bank Report, 2016).

Financial support from development partners, both bilateral partners and multilateral institutions enabled the government to aggressively reverse the socialist policies after the 1986 reforms and helped to bring economic recovery and improvement in public service delivery (World Bank Report, 2016). Technical assistance contributed to capacity building, strengthened institutional framework and helped to create a conducive environment for a market- driven economy (World Bank Report, 2016).

The World Bank Report (1995) stated that in 1985, Tanzania had the highest primary school enrolment in sub-Saharan Africa 96% and girls made up 50% of pupils (World Bank Report, 1995). Women's life expectancy increased from 41 years in 1960 to 50.7 in 1980 (World Bank Report, 1995). Maternal mortality dropped from 450 per 100,000 births in 1961 to under 200 in 1973 (World Bank Report, 1995). But, development partners' support fell in the early 1990s when the reform effort temporarily collapsed after an adverse impact of corruption on those development programs. In the Bank's view economic reform and liberalization can play an important role in the fight against corruption or create them because many opportunities for corruption are provided by distorted economic policies and excessive regulations (World Bank Report, 1995; World Bank Report, 2016). While systemic corruption presents a long-term challenge to any government, the bank firmly believes that significant progress can be made in reducing corruption if there is strong commitment at the highest levels of government World Bank Report, 1995; World Bank Report, 2016).

Thus, according to Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, and Smith (1999), the systems thinking “iceberg” represents the comprehensive system of development. The tip represents the observable events, inability to manage their projects. Below the surface of the water line is the pattern that have developed over time within the system; the underlying structures in the form of policies, rules, such as the policy framework of the ICM as an example have generated the patterns and trends; and the mental models, that is beliefs, values and assumptions that led to the structures created. According to Peter Senge’s classic, *The Fifth Discipline*, and in the *Systems Thinker* newsletter, published by Pegasus Communication states that many important problems that face our societies today are complex, involve multiple actors, and are at least partly the result of past actions that were taken to alleviate them. Senge in his book, *The Fifth Discipline*, pointed out that one of the key benefits of systems thinking is its ability to deal effectively with just these types of problems and to raise our thinking to the level at which we create the results we want as individuals and organizations even in those difficult situations marked by complexity, great number of interactions, and the absence or ineffectiveness of immediately apparent solutions. Generally, an Iceberg model explains that what we see is only a small part of the whole situation. In other words, there is much more below the surface (Senge, 1990).

Therefore, in order to effectively understand, explain and solve the coastal Tanzania community problems we need to “surface” these deeper levels of understanding. The main question is why education as a whole, and leadership in particular, are limited in their ability to make a positive decision making by helping assure a comprehensive development. The important component is to find out what bases and qualities of change might lead them to become more transformative in this regard (Senge 1990). According to Senge (1990), real learning must be joined by generative learning”, learning that enhances our capacity to create (Senge, 1990).

Buckminster Fuller pointed out that social systems, such as global institutions, depend on both individual and collective levels of awareness (Senge, 2006). In other words, each of us carries the memory and expectations of our own experience. It is a place for the presenting of the prevailing systems of management. Many African leaders need to integrate thinking and doing (Mental models plus habits actions.) to establish. Therefore, we must incorporate and examine the patterns and trends that have developed over time within the system; such as policies, rules and regulations; includes the mental models, i.e. beliefs, values, traditions and customs that led to the structure created.

Transparency and accountability are critical ingredients to response to problems in the change process (Senge, 2006). As such, there is a need of developing an action plan that will improve governance through enhancement of accountability and monitoring of government officials and decision makers.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Leaders of national governments of developing countries, such as Tanzania, rely on foreign aid from the International Development Agencies (IDAs) as a primary source of funding for development programs in their countries (Moyo, 2009).

Unfortunately, the problem is that interventional programs have often failed to produce the intended results of improving education, economic development or poverty reduction (Gottschalk, 2005; Rakner, 2005). These failures bring into question the effectiveness of processes and leadership strategies that rely on foreign aid as the fundamental source for sustainable development programs in African countries (Moyo, 2009).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the past educational development program efforts in order to assess issues that contributed to their success or failure and secure recommendations to improve future educational development program implementation.

The study examined the following issues:

- The Tanzanian leaders' perceptions of leadership practices that have resulted in the past high rate of success or failure of educational development programs and could yield sustainable development of educational programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.
- The Tanzanian leaders' perceptions of factors that could contribute to the success of sustainable educational development programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.
- Tanzanian leaders' perceptions of those leadership practices that could support and aid in the sustainable development of educational programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.

Chapter 3 delineates the study's methodology including the purpose of the study, the research questions, geographic location, study participants, the human subject approval, the research design, the data collection instrument, data analysis, procedures and study timeline, limitation of the study, and summary.

Research Questions

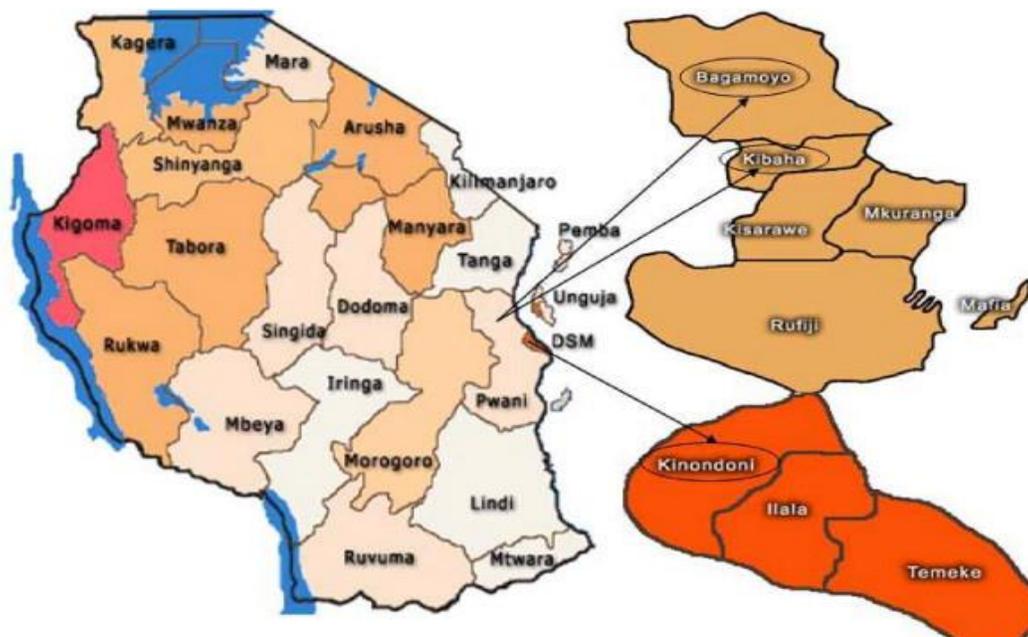
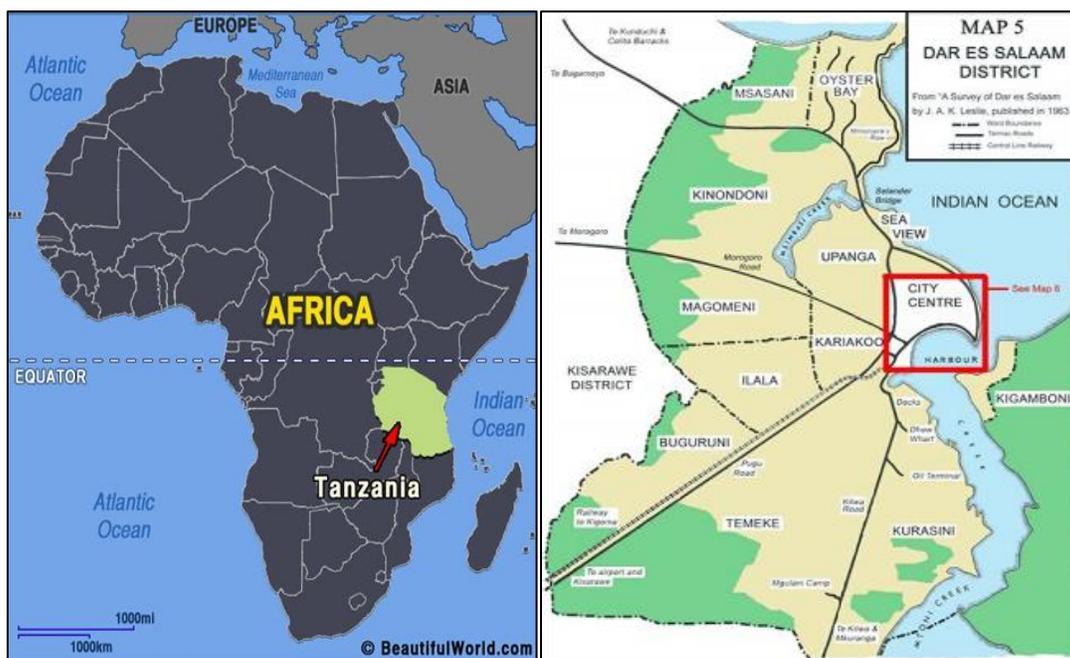
The four questions examined through the qualitative case study method during spring of 2018 were as follows:

1. What did coastal Tanzanian leaders report as the major past educational development program successes and their causes?
2. What did coastal Tanzanian leaders report as the major past educational development program failures and their causes?
3. What were the major leadership strengths and limitations of educational development partners reported by Tanzanian leaders?
4. What leadership practices did coastal Tanzanian leaders recommend be developed and implemented to increase the future success of educational development programs in coastal Tanzania?

Geographic Location

The qualitative study was conducted in Kinondoni district of Dar es Salaam. Dar es Salaam city is one of 31 administrative coastal regions of Tanzania. According to the 2012 national census, coastal Tanzania had a population of 1,098, 668. The coastal region's 2.2% average annual population growth rate was the seventeenth highest in the country and was the most densely populated coast with 34 people per square kilometer. The coastal region of Tanzania is divided into six coastal administrative districts: Bagamoyo, Kibaha, Kisarawe,

Mafia, Mkuranga Rufiji. The coastal region is bordered to the North by the Tanga Region, to the East by the Dar es Salaam Region and the Indian Ocean, to the South by the Lindi Region, and to the West by the Morogoro Region.



(Source: Coastal Profile for Tanzania: World Bank 2017)

Participants

The qualitative study involved systemic in-depth interviews of ten participants.

The participants included educational development program leaders in coastal Tanzania who were working with the Ministry of Education and other, select educational development program managers and team leaders who were involved in decision making on international educational programs in Tanzania at four leadership levels: village, district, and regional and central government.

In consultation with the University of Dar es Salaam, Department of Education, the ten participants to be interviewed were selected on the basis of the objectives and the purpose(s) of the study. The participants were intentionally chosen to reflect leadership ranging from the village level to the central government. Interviewees were comprised of village, district, regional and government level leaders who were administering educational programs.

The target population selected sample of the study included two groups with a total of ten participants.

Group 1: six coastal Tanzania educational development program participants in the Central, Regional, District and Village level.

Group 2: four select representatives of educational development programs who were working with international development organizations.

Sampling in research refers to the selection of individuals from a target population (Waruingi, 2010). Those individuals must have common characteristics with all other members of the target population. In the study, the target population participating in the sample will be individual educational development programs leaders in coastal Tanzania.

Purposive sampling was the study's technique of choice. Purposive sampling also known as judgmental, selective or subjective sampling and is a non-probability sampling technique (Molina & Martin, 2015). In non-probability sampling, individuals in the target population do not have an equal possibility of being selected as members of the sample group. Rather, the study's purposive sampling included participants from a convenience sample of educational development program leaders who were already known to be working in the educational development programs in the government and Non -Governmental Organization (NGOs). Thus, the participants were intentionally chosen by purposive sampling rather than by random selection. Participants were chosen to reflect the diversity of leadership ranging from the village leaders, to district, to regional, and central government leaders in the coastal Tanzania.

Human Subject Approval-Institutional Review Board (IRB)

Following authorization by the doctoral committee, the researcher submitted an application to the St. Cloud State University Review Board (IRB) to secure approval to conduct the proposed research study which involved interviewing human subjects. The researcher sought and received approval dated May 7, 2018 (SCSU IRB# 1799-2285) to classify the study as exempt in accordance with federal regulations (see Appendix A).

Instruments for Data Collection

Data collection is the process through which the researcher obtains data from study participants. Two techniques for data collection in the conduct of qualitative research are (a) in-depth interviewing and (b) a review of records.

To illustrate these two techniques, for example, a Forensic Accounting and Fraud Investigation conducted *in-depth interviews* to evaluate the credibility of witnesses and

statements of the suspects in a qualitative study (Silverstone, Rudewicz, Sheetz, & Pedneault 2012, p. 162). In another study of Fraud Investigation, researchers *reviewed records* and performed content analysis of database research, public records searches, and direct contact with government officials to secure additional important information. Regardless of whether or not the investigation was conducted nationally or internationally, access to those sources was essential to the qualitative study (Silverstone et al., 2012, p. 162).

The primary data collection instrument employed in the study was an open-ended survey of six questions which was administered to educational development program Tanzanian coastal leaders in individual, face-to-face interviews (see Appendix C).

Data collection in the study involved in-depth interviews of 10 educational development program leaders in coastal Tanzania. In addition to the interviews, secondary data were obtained through examination of documented education development programs reports. Information gathered from the data collection methods are important because they will contribute to the descriptive nature of the qualitative research (Merriam, 2002).

The researcher is the instrument in qualitative research (Barrett, 2007). Qualitative research asserts that the “researcher’s perceptual acuity in observation and finely developed capacity for eliciting detail from respondents are paramount” (Barrett, 2007, p. 417). As such, the researcher acts as the instrument.

To illustrate this point, for example, Piantanida and Garnan (2009) in *The Qualitative Dissertation* stated that the researcher is as much a part of the inquiry as the intent of the study and the inquiry process. In fact, “the researcher’s thinking lies at the heart of the inquiry by diverting attention from the very wellspring of knowledge that feeds the dissertation-that is,

student; own professional experiences, personal intellectual concerns, and assumptions about knowledge” (p. 24).

Research Design

The qualitative case study method was the preferred design for conducting the research study. The study type of qualitative research permits detailed investigation of such phenomena as leadership strategies and processes that have positively and negatively impacted the successes of educational development programs in the coastal Tanzania in the past.

The case study design is intended not only to describe and explore real life experiences but also investigate the realities of problems experienced by leaders in educational development programs in coastal Tanzania.

A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident (Bromley, 1986; Towne, 2002). The case study focuses on a pinpoint unit of study—the case study defines characteristic of research study (Yin, 2009, pp. 4-8). In addition, the case study lies in delimiting the object of study and integrating system (Yin, 2009).

In summary, the qualitative case study approach can be defined in terms of the process of actually conducting the investigations, the unit of analysis (the bounded system, the case), or the end product (Yin, 2009 pp. 23-29). As an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or social unit (Merriam, 1998), the case study research design was identified as most appropriate for the conduct of the study.

Procedures and Timeline

The researcher sent a formal letter to the identified interviewees to introduce the study and make an interview appointment. Additionally, a listing of the six interview questions was

distributed in advance of the interview to enable familiarization of the issues to be discussed with the interviewees before the individual face-to-face interviews occurred.

In order to establish trust with the participants, the researcher distributed an approved letter from the Regional Commissioner Officer, which introduced and explained the value of the research study to the participants (see Appendix B).

A consent form was signed at the beginning of each interview in order to establish trust with the study participants. Participants, their discussions, responses and comments were respected.

The research study did not cause harm or psychological disturbances in the interviews and interviewees could choose to leave the interview at any time. Anonymity of the interviewees was insured. Interview research documents were held in strict confidence, and information gathered from the study was used for research purpose only.

Audio recordings were used with the permission of participants. Interviews were documented in a notebook and stored electronically onto research's computer and hard drive. Each interview was assigned a folder. Each clip of audio was recorded on a single file. Each folder was named with the assigned interview code P1 for first participant, P2 for the second, and so on. The same process was used for each organizational representative interviewed in the study. Recordings were removed and converted to notes after each interview in the field. The researcher dedicated 30 minutes to each interview over a 5-day time period depending on the time availability of the participants. After each interview the researcher reviewed the recordings and developed notes.

The field work and interviews were conducted in March, 2018 after the IRB submission and approval. The researcher submitted data interpretation and analysis to the committee chair by

May, 2018 for review and comments, and the final dissertation defense was conducted July, 2019.

Two methods of data collection were used to enhance the validity of the study's findings: an in-depth interview of the participants and secondary data obtained through reading documented education development programs reports in the coastal region. Information from the two data collection methods was important as it contributed to the descriptive nature of qualitative research (Merriam, 2002). Participants were chosen to reflect their perceptions, experiences and challenges in the implementation of the educational programs in coastal Tanzania. Newspapers and other documented information (filed data) on educational conferences and summits in the coastal Tanzania were also collected and analyzed.

Data Analysis

In the study, comprehensive development is defined as development that is (a) shaped by long-term vision; (b) allows participation of individual humans at their level of existence; (c) participation of all sectors of economy including government, private sector and non-governmental organizations; and (d) goal oriented with measurable results (World Bank Report, 1995).

The information from the interviews, the field notes, audio recordings and secondary data through reading documented educational development program reports were analyzed and categorized in the following topical theme: (a) the major causes of past development program successes and failures; (b) the major leadership strengths and limitations of development partners reported by Tanzanian leaders; and (c) leadership practices coastal Tanzanian leaders recommend be implemented in the future to increase success of the development programs.

Chapter 4: Findings

Introduction

The communities of Tanzania's east coast bordering the Indian Ocean continue to experience a high prevalence of poverty of less than US \$100 per capita (Mangora, 2011; Tobey & Torell, 2006). In spite of multiple economic development program activities in the coastal rural and urban areas of Tanzania, including maritime harbor activities, fisheries, commerce and tourism, people still live in poverty (Vavrus & Seghers, 2010).

The study was focused on gathering and examining the perceptions of coastal Tanzanian community village and program leaders regarding the successes and failures of educational development programs in coastal Tanzania and their impact on sustainable development. No such studies had previously been undertaken.

The research study was designed to facilitate collection of data from the coastal region in Tanzania by employing an inductive approach that would enable leaders to develop mental models, strategic structures, processes, and outcomes that would result in successful implementation of sustainable educational development programs in Tanzania.

The study findings revealed that while there were limited successes, many government programs sponsored by international institutions did not lead to improvements in education, social or economic development (Ellis & Mdoe, 2003; Holtom, 2007; Rakner, 2005; Wedgwood, 2007). For example, the Integrated Coastal Management (ICM) reported that its primary objective was the socio-economic development of coastal communities (URT, 2003) and was intended to achieve the primary objective of uniting the government with the community, science with management, and private with public interests to create and implement an integrated action plan. Rather than resulting in greater social and economic development, however, the ICM and

similar development program efforts resulted in social and economic decline among the people those programs were intended to assist (Lundin, 1997, p. 249).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine past educational development program efforts in order to identify issues that contributed to their successes or failures and secure recommendations to improve future educational development program implementation.

The study was intended to examine the following issues:

- Tanzanian leaders' perceptions of leadership processes that have resulted in the past high rate of success or failure of educational development programs and could yield sustainable development of educational programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.
- Tanzanian leaders' perceptions and other factors that could contribute to the success of sustainable educational development programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.
- Tanzanian leaders' perceptions of those leadership practices that could support and aid in the sustainable development of educational programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.

Research Questions

The study was designed to examine the following four research questions:

1. What did coastal Tanzanian leaders report as the major past educational development program successes and their causes?
2. What did coastal Tanzanian leaders report as the major past educational development program failures and their causes?
3. What were the major leadership strengths and limitations of educational development partners reported by Tanzanian leaders?

4. What leadership practices did coastal Tanzanian leaders recommend be developed and implemented to increase the future success of educational development programs in coastal Tanzania?

The researcher conducted the study in Kinondoni district of Dar es Salaam. Dar es Salaam city is one of 31 administrative coastal regions of Tanzania. According to the 2012 national census, coastal Tanzania had a population of 1,098, 668. The coastal region's 2.2% average annual population growth rate was the seventeenth highest in the country and was the most densely populated coast with 34 people per square kilometer. The coastal region of Tanzania is divided into six coastal administrative districts: Bagamoyo, Kibaha, Kisarawe, Mafia, Mkuranga and Rufiji. The coastal region is bordered to the North by the Tanga Region, to the East by the Dar es Salaam Region and the Indian Ocean, to the South by the Lindi Region, and to the West by the Morogoro Region.

Target population. The study participants were intentionally selected to reflect Tanzanian leadership ranging from the village to the central government level. The participants interviewed were comprised of village, district, regional and government level leaders who administered educational programs in coastal Tanzania.

Sampling. Systemic in-depth interviews were conducted with ten educational development program leaders in coastal Tanzania who were working with the Ministry of Education and other, selected educational development program managers and team leaders involved in decision making on international educational programs in Tanzania at four leadership levels: village, district, regional and central government.

The target population included educational development leaders in the government, educational development managers and team leaders in the Department of Education (Ministry

of Education), village leaders on the educational development program committees, educational officers at the District levels, the regional educational officer and the Minister for Education and Training in the central government.

The researcher interviewed selected country representatives of educational development programs who were working with International Development Agencies (IDAs) including country representatives of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), the Millennium Challenge Corporation (2017-2018), which oversaw the implementation of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG's), the World Bank and UNESCO. The samples were selected through a group leader who worked directly with educational development programs in the coastal region. Each village, district and region had a representative to those educational development programs.

Each research question was addressed during the conduct of interviews with the heads of educational development programs in the government. In the study coastal leaders' perceptions of issues related to past educational development program efforts were reported and recommendations were secured to improve future educational development program implementation in the coastal Tanzania.

Research Question 1

What did coastal Tanzanian leaders report as the major past educational development program successes and their causes?

Success 1. Enrollment of children in schools increased.

The researcher interviewed participant 1 at the regional level who reported on two recent major educational programs which had been implemented that positively impacted student

enrollment in Tanzania: The Primary Education Development Program (PEDEP) and the Secondary Education Development Program (SEDEP).

The PEDEP was implemented from 2000 to 2006 and SEDEP was implemented from 2004 to 2009. These two programs “achieved considerable successes in coastal Tanzania. One of the successes was the increased enrollments at both the primary and secondary levels where a number of young children who previously were unable to enter both levels had opportunities to do so as a result of the programs”, according to school inspectors who based their statements on class registers and meetings with Head-teachers. As a part of their jobs, the inspectors inspected schools and gathered data from each day’s class register. Their statements provided evidence of changes in attendance.

This evidence was further supported by the 2017 USAID report which stated that free education for students had increased student enrollment at the primary and secondary school levels (USAID Report 2017). Toward that end Tanzania has made progress in its goal to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG’s), a United Nation initiative which established a target for all countries to offer free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education for all children by 2030 (MCC 2017). This goal was further enhanced when a new government was elected in late 2015, and the Universal Primary Education (UPE) which provided free education (primary and secondary levels) was implemented, resulting in even greater growth in student enrollment.

The new government placed a special emphasis on education, including greater access to primary education and a reduction in the inequalities that existed between girls and boys having access to education. “In addition, Tanzania has attained gender parity in its enrollment (equal enrollment for girls and boys).” These findings were supported by data reported by UNESCO

which illustrated that between 2000 and 2006, the years in which the PEDEP were implemented, Tanzanian's net primary level enrollment increased from 52.8% to 94.6%. Gross primary level enrollment increased from 67.9% to 108.8%. (Gross enrollment is the ratio of total enrollment- regardless of age- to the population of the age group that officially corresponds to the level of education examined) (UNESCO Institute of Statistics.)

Success 2. Increased number of teachers employed.

When compulsory education was introduced for primary children in 1978, teacher shortage was a major issue. The Tanzanian government had to “Literally call on all schooled persons to come to its rescue and get short training to teach and run the Primary schools.” This teacher shortage became worse in the 1990s when there was a “90% shortage of teachers” (The Teacher Education Development and Management Strategy 2007/08 to 2010/11, p. 7). The shortage continued with Tanzania's increase in population. With a 2017 population of 57.3 million, the country's population had increase by 25.7 million or 81.3% since 1997.

During an interview, participant 2 stated that because of implementation of the PEDEP, Tanzania constructed such school amenities as classrooms, a strengthened education system and, hired additional teachers. Participant 2 verified these increases.

Unfortunately, with the rise in student enrollment, the Tanzanian government needed to respond by hiring additional teachers. The response was to quickly employ people who had little training or education to fill the massive gap in the teacher supply. Therefore, the success was only a qualified one because the employment of substandard teachers has had an impact. Participants 3 who were interviewed verified that a major success achieved was “larger numbers of teachers were being trained at Master's and Ph.D. levels at Tanzania's universities.”

Education has been a national priority for successive Tanzanian governments (USAID Report, 2017). This reveals that the increase in teachers in Tanzania did ameliorate the teacher shortage, but teacher training and quality were variable with some teachers having high levels of training and some having very little training. Unfortunately, while this has created a larger pool of teachers, those who were well-trained have tended to leave public school teaching to work in private schools. While the number of teachers has risen in Tanzania, many perceive those increases as woefully inadequate in their training.

Success 3. Quality of education.

There is evidence that the quality of education in Tanzania has improved; extent of improvement has been variable.

First, A representative of organization 2 in the Tanzanian Education Department explained that the government, through the Ministry of Education, has managed to improve the quality of education and achieve passing marks. Direct evidence of improvement in the quality of education was verified through Form 4 examination grades which improved by 7% from 2016 to 2017. However, some interviewees claimed that, with statistics, one has to be wary as government intervention has revealed to have politicized grades. In the year 2012, for example, the pass marks were significantly lowered because too few children passed their examinations.

Second, a representative of organization 2 stated that the Tanzanian government's increasing financial commitment, demonstrated through its budget allocation to education was consistent with the country's growing population, and funding was now distributed directly to schools not through the municipal council (District Executive Directors).

Third, students with lower grades have been given the opportunity to obtain Vocational Education training Authority (VETA).

Finally, type 3 participants noted that the Government programs did improve the curriculum by modernizing content skills.

Success 4. Streamlining bureaucracy.

One of the unintended successes of PEDP and had been the removal of layers of bureaucracy that previously impeded the development of educational initiatives. Previously, educational funds were allocated, first, to the Ministry of Education or through local councils. This was problematic because it delayed funding allocations to schools and did not enable schools to establish their own expenditure decisions and plan their own priorities. Some of the funds never reached the schools.

Participant 2 of the central government insisted school leaders should be given opportunities to participate in decision-making and program designing of relevant education programs in their areas. The purpose of participation was to enable coastal Tanzania school leaders to meet their expected outcomes and improve the quality of the primary and secondary educational system. They believed participation did enhance the quality of education through shared decision-making. The program leaders stated that this was beneficial.

Through participation in decision making, education funds were allocated directly to schools. This resulted in improvement of some infrastructure projects and services for the children. “The impact assessment shows that the direct support to schools approach in the Primary education sub sector is more effective in delivery of these services compared to the earlier approach in which expenditure decisions were made and implemented either by The Ministry or local councils” (“Evaluation of the Impact of the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP),” 2002-, The Economic Research Bureau (ERB) (UDSM, 2007, p. 7).

The effectiveness of this change was verified by a representative of organization 3 who, when interviewed, highlighted this success.

Success 5. Increased expenditures on educational consumables, learning materials, administration and furniture.

The increase in expenditures for a wide range of educational goods and services has had a positive impact on improving educational outcomes according to interviewees. Government spending on the education sector as a percentage of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) rose from 2.5% in 2000/01 to 4.0% in 2005/06, indicating the impact of PEDP and SEDP (BEST Report, 2012-2016, p. 8).

In 2014 the proportion of GDP spent on education was 3.5% (BEST Report, p. 8). This revealed that the Tanzanian government increased spending but then lowered it (distributed funds) to schools over time. Leaders stated that the overall allocation of funding had improved in real terms.

Research Question 2

What did coastal Tanzanian leaders report as the major past educational development program failures and their causes?

Failure 1. Culture and beliefs.

Culture and belief systems are strong in Tanzania. Norms and values that guide decision making in families have had an impact on educational development in the coastal region (UNFPA, 2012).

The SEDEP and PEDEP did not address issues surrounding differing belief systems, and this lack of cultural awareness resulted in the limited success of initiatives.

Participant 3 stated that cultural factors were a major problem in the coastal areas during implementation of PEDEP and SEDEP. “Some families were taking their daughters from school for initiation rites (*kuchezwa ngoma*) when they reach puberty” This issue, too, had been discussed by the Parliamentary Education Committee which stated that “this needs to be abolished immediately”. They said, “Boys and girls need equality of opportunity.” However, this has not been supported by parliamentary action.

Indeed, the Government has only recently reversed its position on teenage mothers being readmitted to schools. In southern coastal Tanzania, the decision to enroll a child in school was dependent on cultural practices and traditional norms and values of the village. In the eastern coast of Tanzania “the Zaramo tribe ritually encourages early marriage from the age of 12 after a girl experiences her menstruation for the first time,” participant 3 explained. This is a serious issue as 37% of Tanzanian girls get married before they are 18 years old. (“Tanzania Child Marriage Harms Girls,” 2014, Human Rights Watch, UNFPA). This statistic on child marriage impacts the likelihood of those women not pursuing further education. Of women who are married underage, only 5% have achieved a secondary education while 61% of the women who get married have no education (Child Marriage Fact Sheet, UNFPA, 2012). Even discussing this issue is taboo in Tanzania, and research in this area has been met with refusals by (tribal leaders) to engage in any studies on the topic, as stated by participant 6.

In a somewhat related issue, participant 6 stated “distance from school prevents many adolescents especially girls from completing their secondary education.” They are deceived by *bodaboda*-motorcycle riders (some of them are men) who them free rides to schools and rape them), resulting in them becoming pregnant and quitting school.

The Tanzanian government now prohibits teen mothers from returning to school especially in Mainland Tanzania (USAID Report, 2017). Adolescent pregnancy led to almost 3,700 girls dropping out of primary and secondary education in 2016. More than one third of all girls are married by the age of 18, and girls from poor families were twice as likely to be married early than girls from wealthier homes. Participant 6 added “Parents are not interested in discussing child marriage or development” and have opposed all attempts by the Tanzanian government to engage these issues. Parents complained that they believed discussion of these issues was an intrusion in family matters. Consequently, many children have not been attending school because of family traditions on early marriage and other family matters.

Failure 2. Parental attitudes and lack of awareness of the value of education.

One of the persistent education-related issues has been the number of parents who do not appear to value education. Participant 1 stated that “families did not value education and that this tradition restricted the importance of education”. Some families would “rather send their children to conduct petty trade rather than go to school.” This is not a new phenomenon and has been noted in many Less Developed Countries (LEDCs). Children are seen as being part of the earning capacity of the family and a resource through dowry payments upon marriage and after leaving the family.

An organization 2 representative reported “in many coastal villages, education was not a priority, and they (parents), did not see that sending their children to school had any added value to the family or economy. Many children age of 5 to 10 are hidden especially in poor families” he added. “These families believe that children must assist in daily household chores such as livestock keeping and grazing, cooking, looking after their siblings, water fetching, picking wood for cooking and vending produce in the streets.”

During interviews, participant 3 from the educational development program committees stated that a lack of awareness about the value of education had contributed to major failures of past educational development programs in coastal Tanzania. Participant 3 stated, “this lack of valuing education came from some parents and other local coastal traditional leaders who were not assigning a high priority to primary or secondary education.”

In conclusion the social atmosphere on education has not been conducive or favorable for children, girls especially. Because so many adults from the coastal region are not educated, many parents and community residents do not value education, and that attitude creates a vicious cycle. Tanzanian government leaders have been trying to break this cycle through various programs after Tanzania’s independence. This has proven difficult to address.

Failure 3. Academic performance inspection processes.

In Tanzania, schools are inspected for academic performance only. There have been too few inspectors, too many scattered schools and an overall lack of management to insure consistency in the quality of Tanzanian schools. For example, in the 2011/2012, the government planned to inspect 2100 secondary schools, but only 935 secondary schools were inspected (HakiElimu, 2013). According to HakiElimu Educational Development Research Program 2013, it was reported that “Only 21% of all secondary schools have been inspected in Tanzania until now” (p. 245).

During an interview with participant 3, it was reported that “there are no specific budgets directed to the inspectorate process. Participant 3 added “funds are allocated only on the wishes of the Regional Educational Officers at the Regional Level.” This meant that there was no defined budget in coastal Tanzania for inspection, resulting in variable quality of academic performance (test scores) in the schools and a lack of accountability for Head-teachers. This lack

of consistency in inspecting schools is highlighted in the results tables (national examination results/scores per school). Private schools achieved significantly higher exam results than Government schools yet even within Government schools there are huge discrepancies in examination results.

A shortage of transportation is a primary challenge that has faced Tanzanian school inspectors. Participant 2 reported “a lack of vehicles makes it difficult to reach the schools for inspections especially during the rainy seasons”. This constraint has resulted in large numbers of schools not having been assessed. Effective inspections require that adequate funds are made available “to purchase and maintain the vehicles that will convey the inspectors to and from schools, and other logistics during the exercise.”

Participant 2 added. “The lack of school supplies (notebooks, chalks, pens and books) and other logistics arrangements make it difficult for meaningful reports to be prepared after inspections.”

Thus, the lack of inspections impacts the quality assurance process necessary to insure a quality education in the schools. In the absence of data from inspections, the Tanzanian government must rely on data from the schools or seek data from the various NGOs and private schools operating in the sector.

During an interview with participant 6 the researcher observed antagonistic views with regard to the relationship between the inspection process and academic performance. Participant 6 reported, “there is a tendency for school management (teachers) to see recommendations as support for their existing ideas and their desire for change which finally leads to rising academic performance”. On the other hand, research by Erly (1998) and Wilcox (2000) stated that school inspections lead to frustrations, stresses and panic among teachers and, hence, lead to hampering

academic performance. Teachers believed there are many other issues that are more urgent to be rectified and view the inspection process as flawed and sometimes political. Head-teachers are often perceived as political appointees, and this undermines the validity of the process.

The educational validity of the inspection process has been questioned in various parts of the world. Tanzania governments support inspections because they can use the process to assess the impact of their educational policies (BEST Report, 2012-2016. p. 46). However, Rosenthal (2008) found a slight decline in student performance after inspections. Similarly, Ferguson, Earley, Fidler, and Ouston (2000) in their evaluation of Ofsted school inspections in the UK found that inspections were not a catalyst for improvement and advised that a system of internal self-inspection be used (Ofsted Inspection Report, 2019, p. 56).

Failure 4. Teacher shortages.

The population of Tanzania has been increasing very rapidly. In 2002 the population was 34.4 million (Agwanda & Amani, 2014) and by 2012 it was 43.6 million. Currently, the population is estimated at 59.01 million (World Population Review). Population growth has impacted the delivery of education in a number of ways.

The researcher interviewed a participant 2 who reported that “due to the rapid increase in population there has been a shortage of qualified teachers in many Tanzanian schools.” Participant 2 further noted that the increasing Tanzania population has resulted in an increase in the number of children enrolled and a higher student to teacher ratio as a result of an insufficient number of teachers.

First, the physical number of children in classrooms had an immediate impact on the quality of learning as there was a higher teacher to student ratio, currently estimated at 46:1

(Human Development Report, 2016). Such a ratio has caused teachers to spend less time with each child and provide them with less assistance (Human Development Report, 2016).

Failure 5. Inadequate infrastructure.

The researcher examined research conducted and documents produced by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) in 2016-2017. The research studies were conducted collaboratively with other development partners including the World Bank and the European Union. They related two major common challenges that were observed in coastal Tanzania as follows:

- There is a lack of adequate school buildings due to overcrowding of students after the introduction of free education in 2016 which has resulted in a pupil-to-qualified-teacher ratio at pre-primary level of 131:1. This ratio in public pre-primary school is compared to 24:1 in private schools. Most children, especially those in rural areas, enter primary school poorly prepared due to the lack of access to early stimulation, poor nutrition and the low quality of pre-primary education (USAID Report, 2017). An organization 1 representative said, “many secondary schools suffer from a basic lack of infrastructure, educational materials, and qualified personnel”. Representative organization 1 added, “the government has not carried out its plan to build enough safe hostels to accommodate girls close to schools”.
- Further, a representative of an organization 2 said schools are not able to fund basic needs they previously paid for with parents’ contributions (additional fees charged by schools to pay for running costs (including school construction and renovation, the purchase of learning materials, and hiring of additional teachers).

The abolition of school fees has left all development partners trying to deal with significant gaps in school budgets, fueling further underperformance.

Failure 6. Teacher qualifications and skills.

The training of teachers in Tanzania has been an ongoing issue. Most of the high-level university students have been attracted to academic fields other than education such as law, engineering or medicine which offer higher salaries (USAID Report, 2017).

Participant 4 complained of a “massive lack of quality of Tanzanian teachers applying for teaching posts”. He said that candidates “from other East African countries are better educated and better trained than their Tanzanian counterparts “participant 4. This is attributed to the low status of teachers, poor salaries offered and the poor working conditions in Tanzania. According to the International Journal of Educational Research and Technology 2012 Status of the School Education in Present Tanzania and Emerging Issues Laddunuri, “80% of the teachers are unqualified teachers”. They will not “cope with changes in the curriculum,” and this results in low performance of the school children. This supposition was offered by participant 5 who noted that many unqualified teachers were recruited during the implementation of Universal Primary Education (UPE).

Even when the teachers were available, the quality (competence) of many of them had been questioned. Subsequently, former President Jakaya Kikwete introduced a teacher’s fast track to training “crash program.” The Tanzanian Government decided that teachers could circumvent the full teacher-training program by doing a 3 months intensive training program. Head-teachers did not respect or value this training and viewed it dimly as below average. High school leavers became teachers who were deemed to be of poor quality (Parliamentary Committee Report, 2015). The researcher noted that while there had been an increase in the

number of teachers, population growth remained a major challenge in Tanzania. The Tanzanian government tried to rectify the issue through the intensive SEDEP and PEDP program, however even this poorly received intervention was insufficient as the rapid population growth meant that the program was too little and too late.

Failure 7. Curriculum and relevance and quality.

The quality of the NECTA curriculum has been cited as a constraint to learning since it has not been updated to suit the current needs. Parliament discussed this matter during its September 2017 parliament session. The Parliamentary Education Committee stressed that the curriculum needed to be designed to encourage girls, more especially, regarding school enrollment and aspirational goals. This demonstrated that the Tanzanian government itself has recognized the curriculum issue needs to be addressed to achieve relevancy and higher quality (Tanzania Education Committee Report, 2018).

The Tanzanian curriculum largely focuses students on the retention of facts with little emphasis on analysis, creativity or evaluation. Consequently, it does not equip students to become critical thinkers, writers or actors, participant 3 stated. The curriculum dates back to missionary involvement and has not been updated since the colonial times.” It was also suggested that “curriculum update” has a vested interest in maintaining the current curriculum as book suppliers and publishers are involved in the curriculum decision-making process. One of the USAID initiatives tried to supply books for schools in Tanzania at a value of 18.5 million USD through the program “Textbook and Learning Materials Program 2015”. However, the Tanzanian government rejected this as it was believed the dollar allocation was too little for the whole of Zanzibar much less the entire country and would require the entire curriculum would need to be adapted. The involvement of outside agencies has been problematic and

uncoordinated. Many recognize that change in curriculum needs to occur. According to the representative of organization 2, this is currently being discussed by the country's Parliamentary Education Committee.

Failure 8. Lack of transparency and allocation of funds.

Tanzania continues to have a major issue with corruption at all levels of society. Education has not escaped the impact of this issue.

Participant 3 stated “half of the educational development funds were not directed to where they were needed” and further stated “the central government failed to control the disbursement process, and there are many drivers in decision making behind donors' decisions on the funds allocation and procurement”. The statement suggested that the participant 3 viewed the process of distribution as being political and not transparent. Participant 3 reported that “for the past five years, coastal Tanzania has only received one percent for education development funds out of the total allocation for the country, as most of these have been allocated to other public infrastructure.” Further, it was stated that “a not so transparent large budget for the last past ten years in coastal Tanzania created huge debt in the country with no measurable success of any development programs such as education.”

The lack of funding transparency is obvious; however, being able to change the process has been a problem. Many politicians have addressed this issue at the parliamentary level, through changes have been slow to occur.

Failure 9. Measuring success.

Assessing the success of Government educational programs has not been a priority. Agencies, both Government and NGOs, have struggled to measure the efficacy of programs because of the lack of criteria for measuring success, transparency and accountability.

The researcher interviewed a representative of organization 3 on that country's evaluation strategies. The representative oversaw implementation of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG's) findings and confirmed it has been a major challenge over the past ten years to assess performance and evaluate the outcomes of the educational development programs in Africa (MCC Report, 2018). In one case for example, funds from Norway's Development Agency (NORAD) that were intended to improve learning in primary schools were not assigned specific goals by the Central Government (Ayittey, 2017) During an interview with participant 5, it was implied that general development aid was intended to promote economic growth and reduce poverty in the country as a physical capital investment, not for improving learning.

It had been difficult for the development partners to assess the effectiveness in other less tangible and concrete projects especially in educational development programs in the country as whole. This was due to a lack of specification of measurable goals and funding objectives. "Often education funds invested in coastal Tanzania have had no specifically stated objectives or priority," participant 5 stated. This "could be a major reason that funds were embezzled and corruption increased in Tanzania," participant 5 added.

Finally, during an interview with participant 5 it was reported that "politicians have influenced them to focus more on the school children enrollment because higher enrollment will attract other larger development aid which includes education, hence assume economic growth and more funds for them." There is ongoing discussion in Parliament about the manner in which funds are allocated to one area but then become redirected into another department without authorization by the Parliament. Finance Parliamentary Committee. April-July 2018.

The World Bank Report on Africa Region Macroeconomics and Fiscal Management Global Practice (2017):

Aids to education are justified under economic principles of the country and not otherwise, given the instrumental role that education plays in widening people's opportunities and breaking the structural causes of poverty and also as a fundamental human right for every child in the country. However, the country can decide where to allocate the funds depending on the priority in the Ministry of Education in order to fulfill their government yearly framework plan. (World Bank Report, 2017)

In conclusion there was substantial evidence provided during interviews that highlighted the redirection of funds to areas of the economy other than education. This has had a major impact on Tanzania's education funding for educational improvement in which was believed, by interviewees has been heavily politicized especially during elections and revealed that politicians recognize the vote winning potential of education as a means of improving society.

Failure 10. Lack of coordination between development partners, NGOs and the Tanzanian Government.

The government has not systematized the coordination of the different programs among development partners, NGO's and the Tanzanian government. This has resulted in duplication in some areas and a dearth of support in other areas. Furthermore, this lack of coordination has enabled corruption to occur.

Participant 1 stated concerns about both the imbalance and duplication of mandates of the departments and agencies in the central government which are involved in providing oversight of education development programs. School leaders shared challenges about how USAID and the European Union had established their own decision-making processes which were not necessarily aligned with those of the Tanzanian government's aims and priorities or those of other aid agencies. In addition, selected districts in coastal Tanzania expressed major past

educational development program failures caused by the development partners themselves. Participant 1, 2, 3, 5 insisted. “During the implementation process, some representative organizations from donor countries were not researching information regarding education development in the coastal Tanzania. Participant 1 stated this “created a gap between implementers (participant 3) and funders. Hence there was a funding imbalance in policies, conditions and prescriptions that did not necessarily fit with or respond to the nature of problems in schools.”

A representative of organization 4 in the program department said there was “a lack of coordination and transparency between funders’ institutions and stakeholders at various levels in the country. This enabled and escalated corruption activities especially during the implementation process of those educational programs.”

Bureaucratic inefficiency was identified as one of the issues that caused a lack of coordination that hindered progress. Participant 3 asserted that “central government bureaucracy that manages the funded educational programs for the past 20 years has been a major challenge”. Continuing participant 3 added, “they have been experiencing problems accessing relevant consultants because of lack of funding.” This has resulted in Government education policy not being seen as a priority while other, non-educational programs benefitted at the expense of education.

Failure 11. A lack of clear vision.

Participant 3 said “a lack of harmonization and alignment between international development partners and domestic educational policy priorities in the country has led to discussions in Parliament and National Audit, the central government, questioning aid effectiveness and success in outcomes and, in particular, those past educational development

program failures.” Participant 3 added, “the country is implementing an industrialization strategy; it is here where the design of effective education policies becomes critical because they cannot afford technical expertise for industry from Developed Countries (DECs) such as Europe and The United States.”

Participant 3 reported that “some educational programs in the coastal region of Tanzania do not have a clear vision of what the real effects of programs are yet.” It was added that, “the fact that most evaluations of these programs depend on specific ratings based on measures at a specific given time has been a major challenge in the country as a whole due to a lack of reliable and current data.”

“Central Government Leaders (decision makers) have failed to demonstrate success in aid performance itself because of the effectiveness of ratings in those educational programs. This is best explained at a country level rather than a regional level; therefore, this could be pronounced as leadership challenges in the country as a whole” participant 3 reported.

Failure 12. Lack of prioritization and issue identification within education initiatives.

Participant 3 reported that their districts and others were “confused” and, were “still facing major challenges, including regular complaints among their communities, educational leaders and other stakeholders under their jurisdiction that development partners had failed to consider sufficiently their needs and priorities in coastal Tanzania.” This, “they believed”, led to under performance in those educational development programs.”

During the interviews, participant 1 said “the number of politicians who participated in decision making increased compared to the last five years. Unfortunately, many politicians were focused with profit-oriented programs to back up the Government agenda of industrialization. The improvement of the quality of education and learning was not one of their priorities.” In

addition, participant 1 stated, “for success of the educational development programs in coastal Tanzania, a more complex set of policy strategies will be needed to achieve the much more ambitious targets of new Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) by 2030 (MCC Report, 2017). This will ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all children in the country.”

Further, participant 1 presented documentation of past educational development programs which were provided by the educational administrator from the coastal Tanzania office. Based on this documentation, it was suggested that the following measures could be employed by the central government to identify areas of priority: (1) “enhancing the teaching of English language starting at an early age (kindergarten) to not lose connection with international standards. This can allow and enhance teaching to Ivy league standards (private funding with tax exemptions) for elite/subsidized scholarships for talented school children (through donor funding) at the same time as lifting basic standards to a higher level for all children (government funding, priority in using tax monies)”, and (2) “change the educational premise at tertiary education from mono-directional to more reciprocal and practice-based teaching methods, (studio teaching, research-by-design-by-research, teach writing skills starting from earliest possible moment), invest in afri-centric intelligence and wisdom (divert historiographic focus) and invest in African top-thinkers in tertiary education.” The interviewee’s views were based on his unpublished research evidence.

Research Question 3.1

What were the major leadership strengths of educational development partners reported by Tanzanian leaders?

Strength 1. Changes in policy are agreed between government development partners and Non-government development partners.

Three educational development partners among the four interviewed in the study had been instrumental in the provision of education funding in Tanzania. A number of programs and projects were financed by these partners. For example, both SEDEP and PEDEP were financed by World Bank loans as well as by other partners which contributed through basket funding (donation) as well as “stand alone” projects. Both multilateral and bilateral partners provided leadership in many aspects of the educational developments including capacity building of key participants in the education system. Some of the analytical work conducted by one of the USAID initiatives provided important information which was used in decision-making processes from project to policy level.

Strength 2. Willingness to improve accountability.

A major leadership strength cited by representatives’ organization 1, 2, 4 was that “despite the major issue of accountability faced by them, government officers were still willing to work with them to improve financial accountability. This was a good point for both sides, as it showed a shared desire to improve educational programs. This action will enable them to determine whether or not and how to increase funds and services only if it will boost economic growth for those who need it most. This is especially important for the disadvantaged groups who are often disconnected from linkages to the growth process and decision making.” Thus, the desire to improve educational processes in Tanzania was identified as a shared goal by both NGOs and the Government and this has led to a more united approach in achieving accountability.

Strength 3. Effectiveness of educational development programs.

Tanzania is one of the 155 countries that adopted the “World Declaration on Education for All”. The declaration was created by UNESCO, the World Bank and other multilateral institutions, as well as non-governmental organizations (NGOs) (UNESCO, 2007). Since then much work has been undertaken to improve the effectiveness of aid to education in many developing countries including Tanzania (UNESCO, 2007). According to the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), this step has led to a greater engagement and participation among multilateral and bilateral organizations in improving education in Tanzania. Educational frameworks and strategies were created and also adopted by the external participants, including private sector businesses and NGOs. Furthermore, the Dakar Framework for Action reaffirmed the commitments of international development Agencies (IDAs), such as USAID, World Bank, IMF, to achieve Education for All by the year 2015 (UNESCO, 2002). In addition, the global initiatives, such as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), in particular, Goal 2 was introduced to achieve Universal Primary Education.

Tanzania was one of the countries to adopt the initiatives (UNESCO, 2002). It is important to note, however, that these global initiatives have caused changes in the structure and composition of aid to education in developing countries due to conditions and prescriptions those initiatives imposed. For instance, according to a European Union report of 2015, conditions and prescriptions of development partners have steadily increased in particular with the implementation of educational programs in primary and secondary education to prevent corruption. It remains to be seen the impact these initiatives will have on education in Coastal Tanzania.

Research Question 3.2

What were the major leadership limitations of educational development partners reported by Tanzanian leaders?

Limitation 1. Poor advice from donor agencies.

While development partners have demonstrated a number of strengths in improving education systems in Tanzania, there have been instances where their policy advice has been detrimental to the Tanzanian education sector. One of the most frequently cited examples was the World Bank's advice in the 1980s that developing countries should invest mostly in lower forms of education and less in higher education (URT Report, 2005). Many African countries, including Tanzania, followed that advice and have come to regret it since changes in the science and technology sector globally have required of higher education levels to function successfully in the modern economy (URT Report, 2017).

Limitation 2. Bureaucracy and allocations of funds.

The manner in which funds have been allocated in Tanzania has been problematic. Participant 3 stated that “due to bureaucracy and elements of corruption in the process of funds disbursement in school programs, donors and diplomats turned to NGO's and community-based organizations as alternatives to being funded through governmental educational development programs.” Education leaders perceive the Tanzanian government process of fund distribution to be flawed.

During an interview, participant 6 viewed the relevance of funding from NGO's and community-based organizations as a major challenge and said that it “did accelerate unaccountability and lack of transparency. Hence, central government was unable to restructure the public institutions effective delivery of public services in the country”.

Limitation 3. Success criteria are decided by individual organizations.

The participant 3 pointed out that development partners often establish their own criteria for determining success, and they make decisions based on reports and other evidence related to their success criteria-not those of Tanzania. For projects to be recommended by their countries of origin for further funding and implementation, they must first assess the current needs in Tanzania.

Limitation 4. Issues with aid conditionality.

The researchers' findings from documents distributed by the Ministry of Education revealed that the primary focus of "aid" was on poverty reduction not other development programs such as education. According to the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs) for the country, poverty reduction in general has a strong foundation in principles of social justice and equity compared to single development programs (PRSPs Report 2016).

A representative organization 1 stated that "most loan disbursements to developing countries have been dominated by the multi-commercial and trade interests of donors (profit making entities). A representative indicated "wealthier countries are more focused on their national security interests including colonial economy, culture and history." "For example, the World Bank continued to experience major challenges in monitoring funds because its processes remain highly fragmented and uncoordinated within recipient countries. This has been a major challenge and hindered the capacity to assess or evaluate the performances and the outcomes of implemented programs as they have to deal with multiple new government regulations, policies and other programs simultaneously, each with their different procedures in implementation." This identification is not unique to Tanzania as many LEDCs face the same problems with aid or

loans. A significant proportion of the loaned funds is returned to donor countries through consultancy services.

Limitation 5. Poor performance and learning.

Levels of academic performance in coastal Tanzania are poor. The Government programs SEDEP and PEDEP have not resulted in enough change.

In addition, the participant 5 said, “the government controls the number of students who enter secondary education by relying on the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE), an examination administered at the completion of primary school”. The government only allows students who pass the examination to proceed to secondary school, and the examination cannot be re-taken. This means that children who fail their examinations are not permitted to continue with formal schooling and frequently drop out of school without completing their last year of primary education. Since 2012, more than 1.6 million adolescents have been barred from secondary education due to their failure on the Primary and Secondary Schools leaving examination.

For development partners, the Primary School Exam Policy was their major obstacle in decision making and funds allocation for educational development programs.

During an interview, representative organization 5 admitted, “the quality of secondary education is poor, and many schools in coastal Tanzania lack enough teachers to cover all subjects, with worrying gaps in mathematics and science subjects. Students sometimes go without teachers specialized in these subjects for months and must often find alternative ways to learn these subjects or pay for private tuition or fail exams as a result.” It was emphasized that more educational development programs are needed in coastal Tanzania because the primary quality of education and learning achievements of children are especially concerning.

A representative organization 2 pointed out that “school age children often do not achieve foundational learning outcomes such as literacy, numeracy and life skills, which determine future performance. For example, results from the 2014 Primary School Leaving Examinations in mainland Tanzania revealed that only eight per cent of Grade two pupils could read properly, only 8 per cent could add or subtract, and less than 0.1% showed high levels of life skills (academic grit, self-confidence, problem-solving).” “In addition, primary school aged children from the poorest families, both in coastal and mainland, are three times less likely to attend school than those from the wealthiest households.” In conclusion it was noted that extensive evidence reveals that performance levels are inadequate and that funded programs have not addressed variations in quality of performance in Tanzania.

Limitation 6. Corporal punishment in schools.

Corporal punishment is an issue in Tanzania’s schools. Children are routinely beaten in Tanzanian’s schools. Recently a child died from being beaten by a teacher (<https://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-47482947>).

Based on information reviewed in UNESCO documents, it was noted that USAID, The World Bank and The European Union operate under mandates that prohibit physical punishment to students. Nonetheless, in Tanzania corporal punishment is endemic in secondary schools. School officials and teachers in many schools routinely resort to corporal punishment, a practice that is still lawful in Tanzania, though it is in violation of its international obligations (USAID Report, 2017). This has been viewed poorly from an outsiders’ perspective, but educational leaders have largely ignored the problem. Participant 3 said, “we have to beat the children in order for the children to learn and have respect.”

Limitation 7. Lack of suitable infrastructure /unfavorable environment to students with disabilities.

Children with disabilities are stigmatized by Tanzanian society. Often special needs children are locked away and parents do not want to send them to school. USAID and World Bank funding allocations focus on students with disabilities. Unfortunately, secondary education remains inaccessible to most students with disabilities especially in coastal Tanzania. A representative organization 2 who was interviewed stated that “children with disabilities face many barriers and discrimination in primary education, and very few adolescents with disabilities attend secondary schools across the country.”

Research Question 4

What leadership practices did coastal Tanzanian leaders recommend be developed and implemented to increase the future success of educational development programs in coastal Tanzania?

Recommendation 1. Innovation,

The researcher’s findings during an interview with participant 3 in the central government confirmed the need for increased access to education in the coastal areas. In Tanzania the leadership practices that were recommended by the participant 3 need to be visionary and innovative. In addition, participant 3 reported, “the visionary leadership that has been demonstrated in the coastal areas, as well as the rest of the country, has meant that the education sector thrives even in areas which were considered ‘backward’ in education attainment.”

The participant 3 discussed achievements that occurred in the mid- 2000s when the fourth phase government came into power. The construction of at least one secondary school in each ward was one of the visionary leadership practices that was implemented. Equally, “the

innovative leadership practice has been identified in contextualizing the realities of a locality and take advantage of available resources within the country (not from donors) to provide education to the population.”

The interviewed participant 3 added, “other practices include critical thinking as well as spirituality.” “Given the heritage of the majority of the coastal people, the ability to question critically each given situation and practices have been identified to be essential in the success of education provision in the coastal Tanzania.” This means specifically that the coastal leaders view Islamic religious education as superior and more influential than Government-directed education.

Recommendation 2. Teacher salary.

Teacher salaries were identified as needing to be improved. “‘Teachers’ salaries are not perceived to be good by teachers and leaders alike”, A representative organization 1 said.

Recommendation 3. Teacher training.

Teacher training has also been an area of concern as weaker high school graduates have become teachers.

The researcher interviewed one of the development partners a representative organization 1 who recommended that the central government initiate teacher training centers and produce well trained teachers with good salaries. This will increase the motivation of teachers. Currently, the mass failure and poor performance in schools is attributed partly by demoralized/demotivated teachers, he added. Additionally, the pool of teachers is too small, making it difficult for Head-teachers to recruit teachers of quality.

Recommendation 4. Strengthen participation in policy decision making.

Participant 2 who was interviewed stated it would be “great if central government could involve village coastal educational leaders in educational development policy making and decisions. Often those leaders have been left out when developing strategies and mechanisms for the implementation of educational development programs as a way of avoiding cost and difficult decisions and controversy among politicians.” In the past many of these local government leaders (village leaders) did not have the technical expertise to participate in decision making, but today, such claims of local incapacity are not as plausible.

The interviewed participant 5 pointed out “there must be a way of identifying effective strategies of how development partners could better engage with central government”. The participant 5 added, “how can education funds allocated be more effectively used to build strong policies to improve education quality and other school infrastructures.”

Recommendation 5. Review and update of educational policies and regulations.

Representative organization 1, 2, 3, 4 recommended central government “must review the current education policies particularly in areas of political incentives and political economy.” They added that “policies play a major role in the behavior of incumbent governments in recipient countries, which may ultimately constrain the effectiveness of funds in future educational development programs.”

A major challenge observed during the implementation of programs in the past was poor data. Data were incomplete and not accurate enough to predict future success and trends based on previous educational development programs. Thus, participants recommended measures be taken to gather more detailed information and to improve educational data documentation. They were supportive of further funding and implementation of educational development programs in coastal Tanzania.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendation

Introduction

The communities of Tanzania's east coast bordering the Indian Ocean continue to experience a high prevalence of poverty of less than US \$100 per capita (Mangora, 2011; Tobey & Torell, 2006). In spite of multiple economic development program activities in the coastal rural and urban areas of Tanzania, such as maritime harbor activities, fisheries, commerce and tourism, people still live in abject poverty (Vavrus & Seghers, 2010).

The specific statement of the problem asserts there are few studies that have been conducted to gather the perceptions of coastal Tanzanian community village and program leaders related to the high failure rate of educational development programs in coastal Tanzania and their role in sustainable development.

The study was focused on the evidence that many government programs sponsored by international institutions do not lead to improvement in education, social or economic development (Ellis & Mdoe, 2003; Holtom, 2007; Rakner, 2005; Wedgwood, 2007). For example, the Integrated Coastal Management (ICM) reported that its primary objective was the socio-economic development of coastal communities (URT, 2003). The ICM intended to achieve this primary objective by uniting the government with the community, science with management, and private with public interests to create and implement an integrated action plan. Rather than producing social and economic development, however, the ICM and similar development programs efforts resulted in social and economic decline among the people they were intended to assist (Lundin, 1997, p. 249).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the past educational development program efforts in order to assess issues that contributed to their success or failure and secure recommendations to improve future educational development program implementation.

The study is intended to examine the following issues:

- The Tanzanian leaders' perceptions of leadership processes that have resulted in the past high rate of success or failure of educational development programs and could yield sustainable development of educational programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.
- The Tanzanian leaders' perceptions and of factors that could contribute to the success of sustainable educational development programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.
- Tanzanian leaders' perceptions of those leadership practices that could support and aid in the sustainable development of educational programs in coastal Tanzania in the future.

Research Questions

The study was designed to examine the following four research questions:

1. What did coastal Tanzanian leaders report as the major past educational development program successes and their causes?
2. What did coastal Tanzanian leaders report as the major past educational development program failures and their causes?
3. What were the major leadership strengths and limitations of educational development partners reported by Tanzanian leaders?

4. What leadership practices did coastal Tanzanian leaders recommend be developed and implemented to increase the future success of educational development programs in coastal Tanzania?

Discussion and Conclusions

The study employed a qualitative case study methodology. The primary data collection instrument was an open-ended survey of five questions targeting Tanzanian coastal leaders of educational development programs in individual, face-to-face interviews. Data collection in the study involved in-depth interviews of 10 educational development program leaders in coastal Tanzania. Individuals selected in the study had common characteristics with all other members of the target population. In addition, secondary data were obtained through examination of documented education development program reports.

Research Question 1

What did coastal Tanzanian leaders report as the major past educational development program successes and their causes?

According to reports offered by coastal Tanzania leaders, major past educational development program successes were as follows:

- Increased enrollment at both the primary and secondary school levels, resulting in more teachers being trained and hired.
- Reduced inequalities that existed between boys and girls having access to education.
- Streamlined bureaucracy, including direct allocation of funds to schools and enhanced participation in decision-making at the local level.
- Increased spending on education.

Research Question 2

What did coastal Tanzanian leaders report as the major past educational development program failures and their causes?

Major past educational development program failures were as follows:

- Failure to address belief systems and cultural factors that inhibit educational goals for girls and a failure to address the under valuing of education by parents.
- Failure to address the shortage of teachers leading to larger class sizes. Due to the rapid increase in population, there has been a shortage of qualified teachers in many Tanzanian schools.
- Failure to provide adequate budget resources to support school inspections, resulting in variable academic performances in schools, inconsistency in the quality of Tanzanian schools, and insufficient focus on budget misappropriation.
- Failure to address a lack of curriculum relevance. For the past 20 years, Ministry of Education has failed to address the applicability and appropriateness of the curriculum to the needs, interests, aspirations and expectations of learners and Tanzanian society in general.
- Failure to coordinate efforts between development partners, NGO's and the Tanzanian government.

Research Question 3

What were the major leadership limitations of educational development partners reported by Tanzanian leaders?

- Policy strategies from educational development partners have not all been successful in strengthening dialogue to achieve agreement on how educational policies can be

reviewed to address current challenges on education systems between development partners and government.

- A lack of accountability has resulted in poor allocation of funds, an unavailability of statistics and a lack of overall coordination of development partners in order to strengthen accountability.
- Bureaucracy and corruption have influenced fund disbursement.
- Corporal punishment in schools and discrimination regarding children with special needs was reported by NGOs as a major barrier to funding educational initiatives.

Research Question 4

What leadership practices did coastal Tanzanian leaders recommend should be developed and implemented to increase the future success of educational development programs in coastal Tanzania?

- There is a need to embrace Innovation and training of visionary leaders.
- There is a need for the Ministry of Education to prioritize, review and update educational policies and curriculum innovation to keep pace with world trends and regulations.
- There is a need to provide motivation, recognition and remuneration for teachers coupled with recruitment and training of all education staff to promote student academic performance.
- There is a need to improve ethical financial management of funds and resources.
- There is a need for parliament members to focus on funding education sector in the country.

- There is a need for education Government leaders to coordinate and map the expectations and activities of education development partners.

Limitations

The limitations of the study are those characteristics of design or methodology that impacted or influenced the interpretation of the findings from the research study (Murnan & Price, 2004).

The following are limitations of the study:

- It was determined that researchers could not publish any data without the consent of the Tanzania National Bureau of Statistics (2013).
- Representatives of select educational development programs had left Tanzania at the time of the study due to a lack of support from the government. Consequently, these individuals could not be interviewed. Some of the representatives were denied working permit especially those who had suggested educational policy reforms.
- Due to political circumstances, a number of interviewees were reluctant to be interviewed or be quoted.
- Cultural factors were major obstacles among the coastal interviewees especially regarding issues relating to early marriages. Some tribal leaders refused to speak about or disclose any information on this topic.
- Interviewees were not frequently willing to disclose information regarding education funding, particularly the management and transparency of that funding. A lack of trust concerning who had access to the researcher's findings was evident.

Recommendations for Practice

- 1) It is recommended that education system policy reform be institutionalized at the government level with the highest priority focused on the development of a clear vision and mission for education.
- 2) It is recommended that the National Examination Council of Tanzania (NECTA) be updated to make it consistent with current best practices.
- 3) It is recommended that the Ministry of Education coordinate and communicate the expectations and activities of both government and non-government educational programs throughout the country.
- 4) It is recommended that the government encourage the development of specific, well-defined and consistent educational policies throughout the country.

Recommendations for Further Research

1. It is recommended that, in order to effectively address critical educational issues and due to the ongoing shortage of funds in Tanzania to combat poverty, there is a need to conduct further research to study the type of comprehensive plan that can effectively address educational leadership challenges in managing the country's educational development programs, particular in coastal Tanzania.
2. It is recommended that a study be conducted to determine those strategies that would strengthen with development partners which have appeared to be most effective in gathering resources required to implement effective responses for educational development programs.

Summary

The study results revealed several educational development program successes including increased enrollment at primary and secondary school levels and increased access to education for female students. Results from the study also illustrated that a shortage of teachers due to Tanzania's increased population, inadequate budgets to conduct school inspections, and cultural beliefs have hindered development education program successes. Two other areas reported as concerns included lack of accountability and discrimination regarding special needs children. Participants' recommended training of visionary leaders, recognition, training and remuneration for teachers, and the updating of policies with clear expectations.

In conclusion, the problems related to educational development in Tanzania are not ones that have been created by individuals, although a lack of coordination has been identified as an issue. The most significant problems that have been identified have arisen from demographic changes and population increase. There are also significant historical issues with the lack of modernization of curriculum, dating back to colonial times, and an unwillingness to prioritize changes in policy and funding. These issues need to be addressed at a government level and are not the responsibility of NGOs, though development partners could have a role in providing advice and counsel on these issues.

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Appendix A: IRB Approval Letter



Institutional Review Board (IRB)

720 4th Avenue South AS 210, St. Cloud, MN 56301-4498

Name:

Nancy Shedrack

IRB PROTOCOL

Email: anna1001@stcloudstate.edu

DETERMINATION:

Expedited Review-1

Project Title: Tanzania Leaders' Perceptions of Practices that resulted in Successes and Failures of Educational Development programs in Coastal Tanzania

Advisor Roger Wornor

The Institutional Review Board has reviewed your protocol to conduct research involving human subjects. Your project has been: **APPROVED**

Please note the following important information concerning IRB projects:

- The principal investigator assumes the responsibilities for the protection of participants in this project. Any adverse events must be reported to the IRB as soon as possible (ex. research related injuries, harmful outcomes, significant withdrawal of subject population, etc.).
- For expedited or full board review, the principal investigator must submit a Continuing Review/Final Report form in advance of the expiration date indicated on this letter to report conclusion of the research or request an extension.
- Exempt review only requires the submission of a Continuing Review/Final Report form in advance of the expiration date indicated in this letter if an extension of time is needed.
- Approved consent forms display the official IRB stamp which documents approval and expiration dates. If a renewal is requested and approved, new consent forms will be officially stamped and reflect the new approval and expiration dates.
- The principal investigator must seek approval for any changes to the study (ex. research design, consent process, survey/interview instruments, funding source, etc.). The IRB reserves the right to review the research at any time.

If we can be of further assistance, feel free to contact the IRB at 320-308-4932 or email ResearchNow@stcloudstate.edu and please reference the SCSU IRB number when corresponding.

IRB Chair:

IRB Institutional Official:

Dr. Benjamin Witts

Associate Professor- Applied Behavior Analysis
Department of Community Psychology, Counseling, and Family Therapy

Dr. Latha Ramakrishnan

Interim Associate Provost for Research
Dean of Graduate Studies

OFFICE USE ONLY

SCSU IRB# 1799 - 2285
1st Year Approval Date: 5/4/2018
1st Year Expiration Date: 5/3/2019

Type: Expedited Review-1
2nd Year Approval Date:
2nd Year Expiration Date:

Today's Date: 5/7/2018
3rd Year Approval Date:
3rd Year Expiration Date:

Appendix B: Research Information: Consent Form

MARCH 2018

Introduction:

My name is Nancy Shedrack and I am a graduate student in the Educational Administration and Leadership Doctoral Degree at St. Cloud State University in Minnesota. I am asking for your participation in my research study. Please read the following information about this research study.

Background Information:

My research study meant to examine Tanzanian coastal leaders' perceptions of issues related to past change efforts and their ideas to improve future educational development programs implementation in Coastal Tanzania.

Procedures:

This study will include an interview. As a participant in this study you will be asked to explain according to your understandings and experiences. The interview will last approximately half an hour and will be conducted at Coastal region in selected areas.

Age:

The ages of potential subjects in this research study are 18-64.

Risks:

Please be aware that participation is voluntary and you may stop participating at any time or may decide not to answer particular questions if you are uncomfortable or experience any problems due to participation in this study.

Benefits:

There will be direct benefits to you by your participation in this research study such as increased knowledge on leadership issues at your organization or department. Voluntary.

Participation:

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. If you decide not to participate there will not be any negative consequences. You are free to withdraw from this study at any time.

Confidentiality:

Information gathered from this study will be used to research report purposes only. All research material will be kept strictly confidential by me.

Compensation:

There will not be any compensation for your participation in this research study.

Research Results:

At your request, I am happy to provide a summary of the research results when the study is completed.

If you have any questions of concerns or would like to request the results of this study please feel free to contact me at (+255) 789 84 3712 or by email at nancysshedrack2@gmail.com. You may also contact my advisor, Prof. Roger Worner at rbworner@stcloudstate.edu.

Statement of Consent:

I have read all research material and well understand the research study. I have been given the opportunity to ask questions and I will receive a copy of this statement of consent form after I sign it. Group 1: six coastal Tanzania educational development program participants in the Central, Regional, District and Village level.

PARTICIPANT	SIGNATURE	DATE AND TIME OF APPOINTMENT & INTERVIEW
Participant 5	YES	03/12/2018 9:30AM
Participant 6	YES	03/15/2018 1:20PM
Participant 3	YES	03/19/2018 6:30PM
Participant 1	YES	03/20/2018 4:00PM
Participant 2	YES	03/22/2018 10:45AM
Participant 4	YES	03/23/2018 7:30AM

Signature of Researcher 5 NS Date 03/12/2018

Signature of Researcher 6 NS Date 03/15/2018

Signature of Researcher 3 NS Date 03/19/2018

Signature of Researcher 1 NS Date 03/20/2018

Signature of Researcher 2 NS Date 03/22/2018

Signature of Researcher 4 NS Date 03/23/2018

NS: Nancy Shedrack (researcher)

Group 2: four select representatives of educational development programs who were working with International Development Organizations

REPRESENTATIVE ORGANIZATION	SIGNATURE	DATE AND TIME OF APPOINTMENT & INTERVIEW
Representative Organization 1	YES	03/23/2018 12:45PM
Representative Organization 4	YES	03/27/2018 5:00PM
Representative Organization 3	YES	03/29/2018 1:30PM
Representative Organization 2	YES	03/30/2018 6:40PM

Signature of Researcher 1 NS Date 03/23/2018

Signature of Researcher 4 NS Date 03/27/2018

Signature of Researcher 3 NS Date 03/29/2018

Signature of Researcher 2 NS Date 03/30/2018

NS: Nancy Shedrack (researcher)

Appendix C: Dissertation Questions

1. What do you believe are major successes that have been achieved in past educational development programs in Coastal Tanzania?
2. What do you believe are the cause of these success?
3. What do you believe are major failures that have occurred in past educational development programs in coastal Tanzania?
4. What do you believe are the cause of those failure?
5. What are the major leadership strengthens and limitations of educational development partners?
6. What leadership practices do you recommend be developed and implemented to increase the future success of educational development programs in coastal Tanzania?