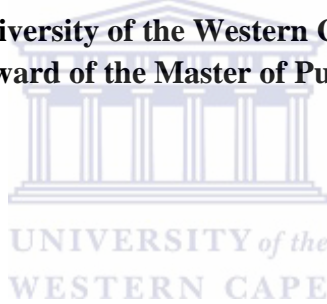


**BUREAUCRACY AND THE CHALLENGES OF COORDINATION IN SERVICE
DELIVERY: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF KABULONGA AND KAMANGA
PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN LUSAKA CITY, 2010-2014.**

SIKAWALA MUSONDA

(3511241)

**A mini thesis submitted to the School Of Government, Faculty of Economic and
Management Sciences, University of the Western Cape as partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the award of the Master of Public Administration (MPA).**



Supervisor: Leon Pretorius (PhD)

April, 2016

(EXAMINATION COPY)

DECLARATION

I declare that “Bureaucracy and the Challenges of Coordination in Service Delivery: A Comparative Study of Kabulonga and Kamanga Primary Schools in Lusaka City, 2010-2014” is my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at any university and that all sources i have quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references

Sikawala Musonda



Signed:.....

April, 2016

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost, I would like to thank the Holy Trinity; God the Father, God the Son and God the Holy Spirit for giving me strength and good health during my studies. Sincere gratitude to the following people for their varying contributions: My supervisor, Dr Leon Pretorius who made time for and guided me throughout this journey. While guiding me on a number of aspects, he allowed me to take charge of my own writing. Thanks to all the Professors and non-academic staff of the School of Government for helping me realize my dreams.

I would like to thank my family, my sister Charity, my brothers Mumba and James with whom I have not spent much time since the start of the program. To my Guardians Mr and Mrs Maimbo, together with their children (my brothers and sisters) thank you for always being there for me.

To all my close friends and colleagues, thank you very much. Specifically Mr Mate Njekwa (former HOD, PAS department at UNZA), Mr Clever Madimutsa for his assistance especially at the formative stage of the topic, Kwezi Jere and Chris Katete for looking out for me while I was studying. Further special thanks to Aretha Miyoba, Willy Chigoma, Blessing Yenga, Orestus Kamoto and Hope Tembo for being with me through the journey.

I also wish to thank my Employers, Finance Bank Zambia and the Executive Director for Human Resource and Operations Mrs Chilangwa Chisela specifically for granting me the study leave and the University of Zambia's Department of Political and Administrative studies for an opportunity work as a part timer during my studies.

I wish to thank the Lusaka District Education Office for allowing me to do the study. To be specific, I thank Mr O. Kangulu (District Planning Officer) and the two school managers, Mr E. Sakala and Mr Siamujaye for their cooperation. Thanks also to all the participants for their time. Lastly but not the least, I wish to thank the members of the Association of Catholic Tertiary Students (ACTS) UWC and CPUT Branch

A.M.D.G

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late father and mother, Mr and Mrs Musonda. May your souls continue to rest in peace. I only wish you had lived much longer to see the man I have become. I will build onto what you taught me. Like Isaac Newton said:

If I saw further, it was because i stood on the shoulders of the giants

You will forever be my giants.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	iii
DEDICATION	iv
ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS.....	viii
ABSTRACT	ix
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Study Background and Context.....	2
1.3 Zambia’s Primary Education Sector- An overview	3
1.3.1 Pre and Post-Colonial Primary Education	4
1.3.2 Primary Education in the First (1964-1972) and Second Republic (1973-1990).....	5
1.3.3 Education in the 3 rd Republic (1991 to Date)	6
1.4 Problem Statement	7
1.5 Research aim and objectives.....	9
1.5.1 Aim	9
1.5.2 Specific Objectives.....	9
1.5.3 Research Questions.....	9
1.6 Rationale for Undertaking the Study	10
1.7 Methodology.....	11
1.7.1 Scope of the Study	11
1.7.2 Study design	12
1.7.3 Sampling Method.....	13
1.7.4 Sample Size.....	14
1.7.5 Data Collection method	14
1.7.6 Data Analysis	15
1.7.7 Limitations of Study	15
1.7.8 Ethical considerations	16
1.8 Organization of the Study	16
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....	18
2.1 Introduction	18
2.2 Theories of Bureaucracy	18

2.2.1 Max Weber’s Bureaucracy	19
2.2.2 The Neo Weberian State (NWS).....	21
2.2.3 Marxian Perspective on Bureaucracy.....	24
2.2.4 Liberal Perspective on Bureaucracy (Robert Michels)	25
2.3 Thesis Argument	26
2.4 Types of Organizational Coordination	27
2.5 Requisites for Organizational Coordination.....	28
2.6 Features towards effective coordination in bureaucracies	29
2.7 Impediments to Effective Coordination.....	30
2.8 Effects of Poor coordination in Bureaucracies.....	31
2.9 Organizational Design Options.....	32
2.9.1 Structures with Overlaps.....	32
2.9.2 Structures without Overlaps	33
2.9.3 Contingency Structuring.....	34
2.10 Conceptual and Operational Definitions of Variables.....	35
2.10.1 Communication.....	35
2.10.2 Authority Relationships.....	36
2.10.3 Resources	37
2.11 Summary	40
CHAPTER 3: LEGAL POLICY AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING PRIMARY	
EDUCATION	41
3.1 Introduction	41
3.2 Mission and Functions of the Ministry of Education	41
3.3 Legislative Arrangements.....	43
3.3.1 The Education Act No. 28 of 1966 and amendment No. 48 of 1970, 56 of 1970, 40 of 1972, 31 of 1973 and 13 of 1994.	43
3.3.2 The Constitution of Zambia, Act No.1 of 1991 and the amendment Act No. 18 1996	44
3.3.3 The Disability Act 1996 and the Persons with Disabilities Act no. 6 of 2012	45
3.3.4 The Education Act-2011	45
3.4 Government Policies	46
3.4.1 Focus on Learning 1992	46
3.4.2 The Re-entry Policy 1997	47
3.5 Partner Institutions (GRZ, Grant Aided, Private and Community Schools).....	47
3.6 Organization of the Ministry of Education (Head Office, Provincial and District Offices) ..	50

3.7 Summary	51
CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS	53
4.1 Introduction	53
4.2 School Profiles and Environments	54
4.2.1 Kamanga primary school.....	54
4.2.2 Kabulonga.....	55
4.3 Communication.....	56
4.4 Authority Relationships.....	63
4.5 Organizational Resources.....	67
4.5.1 Financial Resources	68
4.5.2 Human Resource	72
4.5.3 Classrooms	74
4.5.4 Teaching and Learning Materials	76
4.6 Summary	79
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	81
5.1 Introduction	81
5.2 Summary of Findings.....	81
5.2.1 To review literature on management and coordination of bureaucracies.....	82
5.2.2 To find out the legislative and institutional framework governing the delivery of primary education.....	83
5.2.3 To compare management practices in terms of communication, resources and authority relationships in the two primary schools	84
5.2.4 To establish the measures put in Place to coordinate primary education in Lusaka District	86
5.3 Summary of Conclusions	87
5.4 Recommendations	89
5.4.1 The National, provincial and District Levels of the MoE	89
5.4.2 School level	90
5.4.3 The Parents	90
BIBLIOGRAPHY	91
APPENDIX I:INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICIAL.....	97
APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SCHOOL MANAGERS (HEADTEACHERS).....	99
APPENDIX III: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS	101

ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

ANC	African National Congress
CSO	Central Statistical Office
DEBS	District Education Board Secretary
FBO	Faith Based Organization
GAO	Government Accountability Office
GRZ	Government of the Republic of Zambia
ICT	Information Communication Technology
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MMD	Movement for Multi-party Democracy Party
MoE	Ministry of Education
MSVTEE	Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education
PEO	Provincial Education Officer
PF	Patriotic Front Party
PTA	Parent-Teacher Association
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
UNIP	United National Independent Party

SYMBOLS

K-Zambian Kwacha

US\$-United States Dollar

ABSTRACT

The study *Bureaucracy and the challenges of coordination in service delivery: A comparative study of Kamanga and Kabulonga Primary Schools in Lusaka City 2010-2014* had the main aim of finding out the challenges encountered in the coordination of primary education within Lusaka City. The study was attempting to draw lessons and understand why schools within the same district and level (primary) were performing differently.

There are many reasons as to why the study is important. To begin with, the information derived from this study is important in the post MDG implementation period after the end of the implementation period in 2015. Second, no research has been done on organizational design and development in the context of Africa and Zambia. While some scholars have published on education management, the aspect of bureaucratic coordination has not been adequately addressed.

The study took a comparative approach to research. Qualitative research was deployed as means of carrying out the study. Both primary and secondary data were used. Primary data was collected from two schools which were sampled purposively. The researcher approached the District education office to recommend two schools (one performing well and another underperforming one). The two schools recommended are Kabulonga Primary and Kamanga Primary respectively. A sample of seven experts was then extracted including two teachers from each school, a school manager for each school and the district planning officer at district level. Data was collected using semi structured interview guides between December 2015 and January 2016. Data was collected through

a recorder, transcribed and analyzed using thematic analysis. On the other hand, secondary data was obtained from policy, legal, government and internal documents.

Among the major findings was that the school's locations or environments have a major impact on how they function. For instance Kabulonga performed better than Kamanga because the latter is in an area where majority are low earning poor households. Further, internally, the ability of Kabulonga to plan in a long term manner enabled the school to match resources with specific priorities, something Kamanga did not do. Furthermore, the avenues used for communication in the district have got poor information feedback mechanisms. The study thus recommended that the government should distribute resources to schools with a connotation of giving an extra financial bell out to those schools operating in poverty stricken areas since such schools cannot find other means of survival.



Key Words: Bureaucracy; Organizational design; Organizational development; School management; Primary education; Education management; Coordination; Zambia; Kamanga; Kabulonga

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This thesis looks into bureaucracy and the challenges of coordination in service delivery with a comparison drawn between Kabulonga and Kamanga primary schools in Lusaka city between the period 2010 and 2014. The thesis analyses two schools at the same hierarchical level of primary education with the aim of drawing lessons as to why the other school is performing better than the other yet they are within the same district and under the jurisdiction of the same government officials. Primary education was picked by the researcher because it is the base on which higher forms of education are built and so very important in determining the higher levels of education. The study focuses on three main aspects of bureaucratic coordination, that is, communication, authority relationships and resources.

In this chapter, the author presents the background and contextual information to the study which is segmented into an overview, and a brief history to the Zambian primary education sector spanning from Pre-colonial times, through the first, second and third republics. The author then presents the statement of the problem, aims and objectives, research questions and the methodology. The methodology covers the scope, sampling procedures, data collection and analysis procedures, limitations of the study and ethical considerations.

1.2 Study Background and Context

Zambia is a country located around south-central central Africa. According to the Central Statistical Office CSO (2012), Zambia spaced over an area of 752, 612 square kilometres (KM) and bordered by the Democratic Republic of Congo to the North, Tanzania to the North East, Malawi to the East, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Botswana and Namibia to the south and Angola to the west. Habitat for Humanity (2013) states that Zambia's population estimate as at July 2011 was 13, 881, 336 while the 2015 estimates put the population at 14 million.

According to the International Fund for Agriculture Development (2012), Zambia's main export is copper, with an economic growth averaging 5.6% per annum between 2000 and 2012 while agriculture provides income for 85% of the population. The country's annual income per capita was estimated to be at 1, 350 united States Dollars in 2012.

Zambia is a multi-party democratic political system with its political genealogy traced from the United Independence Party (UNIP), the first political party to govern at the dawn of self-rule in 1964. The UNIP governed the country from 1964 to 1990 with the country's political system segmented into two (republics) in this period. The first Republic from 1964 to 1972 was hinged on plural politics. However, the second republic (1973 to 1990) was characterized by a one party political system where the constitution only allowed for the existence of the United Independence Party as the only political party, all other political organizations were deemed illegal. The third republic which stretches from 1991 to date saw the return of multi-party politics which saw the raise of a then new political party, the Movement for Multi-Party Democracy (MMD). The MMD unseated the UNIP which had ruled the country for 27 years. The MMD ruled through

the third republic from 1991 to 2011 and were unseated by the Patriotic Front Government in the year 2011. At the time this paper was being written, the Patriotic Front (PF) was still in power (Ministry of Education, 2011)

1.3 Zambia's Primary Education Sector- An overview

The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) in Kelly (1999:1) define education as “an organized and sustained communication process designed to bring about learning.” The key feature of this definition is sustained communication. In this case, it is the communication which takes place between the learners and the teachers irrespective of whether it is formal or informal that makes learning possible. Zambia has a 7-2-3 formal education system where pupils are expected to do an initial Seven years of primary learning before crossing over to the secondary education segment. The second segment is also fragmented into lower and higher secondary with each consisting of two and three years of learning from grades eight to 12 (Education Policy and Data Centre, 2013). The Zambian primary education system is provided by agencies falling into four categories; these include the government aided schools, grant-aided schools, community schools and private/church run schools (Ministry of Education, 2005:13). However Zambia still has 376,000 school going age children out of school. The historical development to the Zambian education system can be framed into three major segments. The pre and post-colonial period (before 1964), the post-independence era, that is first and second republics (up to 1990) and the third republic (from 1991 to date).

1.3.1 Pre and Post-Colonial Primary Education

The genealogy of the Zambian education system can be traced to the dawn of missionary activities in the late 1800s. A number of missionaries set up stations in a region that initially had no name and modern day Zambia. The arrival of David Livingstone set the pace for the influx of other missionaries after 1890. The British South African (BSA) Company took charge of the administration of the territory including education after the Native School Proclamation of 1918. The company collected taxes from the natives but never run any natives' school (or missionary) apart from sponsoring the Barotse National School. Teachers were poorly trained and educated (Kelly, 1999). The missionary schools included the London Missionary Society at Ujiji, established in 1878, the Jesuits in Chikuni and Kasisi in 1905 and the catholic Capuchin fathers in Bulozhi, established in 1930 (Henkel, 1989). In 1923, arrangements were made with the London Colonial Office that the BSA Company relinquishes the running of the territory, including all the schools. In 1924, a committee called the Phelps-Stokes Commission was initiated by the Colonial office with the agenda of recommending an education system to the British colonial powers. The commission recommended a simple education system for natives, one which could prepare them for rural life. All policy statements from the colonial government between 1924 and 1937 were on elementary education and were in a way that all forms of learning didn't threaten European dominance. In this period, a dual education system was designed, one for the native blacks and the other for the Europeans. Northern Rhodesia had 1,190 schools by 1945 and 2,034 by 1945 while the local government schools were only 51 in 1945. During the federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland (1953 to 1963), the Northern Rhodesian Government (NRG) was responsible

for native education while the federal government was responsible for the education of the other races.

1.3.2 Primary Education in the First (1964-1972) and Second Republic (1973-1990)

By the dawn of the self-rule in 1964, only 961 people had gone through the education training to the level of school certificate and of this figure, females were only 77. About 110,200 had gone through their primary education system, 86,900 of which were male (Kelly, 1999: 70). These figures show a huge disparity in the access to education across sexes. This implies that the problem of inequitable distribution of public service delivery stretches back to the historical development of the country. The 1960 Addis Ababa conference for ministers of education set both short term and long targets with a resolve to enhance access to primary education by making it free and compulsory (Mate, 1969).

Among the challenges that were experienced immediately after independence was the medium of communication/instruction to be used in schools, inadequate funding, high teacher-student ratio (1:51), dependency on expatriates and the general scarcity of skilled manpower to man the schools (Kelly, 1999)

Having these challenges in place, the dual system of education was abolished. The abolishment of the duo system of education saw all children learning from any school deemed fit by their parents without racial restrictions. This was further backed by the First National Development Plan stressed the need to have every year old in school by 1970 and the building and maintaining of teacher training facilities among other things (Kelly, 1999).

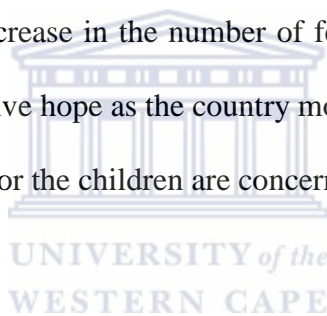
In 1980, four groups were assigned by the Zambian government to study the country's primary education system. The groups observed that the previous education system had 'divorced' from community participation hence its provision was only meant to produce white collar job seekers. The other observation was that decision making was too bureaucratic and centralized and thus the need to decentralize the authority structures. Another important issue that was noted is that it was imperative that decision making be made participatory to include teachers and pupils and that the pyramidal education structure resulted in children being ejected from the system at Grade four, Grade seven and the then form three Kelly (1999).

1.3.3 Education in the 3rd Republic (1991 to Date)

Due to change of government from the United National Independence Party (UNIP) to the Movement for Multi-Party Democracy (MMD), a number of changes occurred after 1991. The transition of the economic orientation from socialism (humanism) to liberal capitalism did not spare the education sector as all the sectors of the economy went through privatization. This also connoted the dawn of private schools. In 1996 the education policy *educating our future* was rolled out as a comprehensive education policy. The policy stressed on quality, partnerships, equity and accountability among other things (Kelly, 1999).

In the year 2000, Zambia joined other members of the United Nations (UN) in setting what were to be called Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). MDG number two specifically dedicated to primary education reads "to achieve universal primary education" by the year 2015. The United Nations member countries set a 15 year period in which they would endeavour to meet the targets. However, there are still challenges

regarding access to primary education. For instance, the [Central Statistical Office] cited by Education Policy Data Centre (2013) show, based on 2007 National Demographic Survey that 376, 000 children aged between seven and 14 are out school, representing 14 Percent of children who cannot access primary education. While government has, under its Ministry of Education 21, 786 basic school classrooms (2005 estimate) in permanent buildings, the country still has 3,537 classrooms (14 percent) still operating in temporary buildings (MoE, 2005:18). A closer look at the enrolment however shows that male-female divide that was being experienced in the early years of independence had been overturned. The 2004 enrolment for instance showed that a total of 444,300 pupils were enrolled for their first grade. Of this population, 225,231 were female while 219, 069 were males, indicating an increase in the number of females enrolling compared to that of the males. These figures give hope as the country moves into the indefinite future in as far as educational prospects for the children are concerned (MoE, 2011).



1.4 Problem Statement

The Zambian Constitution (Amendment Act number 2 of 2016) envisages a non-discriminatory access of Public services by the citizenry. It is thus expected that there should be consistency and equity in the manner that public services such as education are delivered, so that learners can go through the education system without biases. However, cases of unbalanced service delivery patterns have been detected in Zambia where some schools for instance are called ‘good’ and others ‘bad’. Further, some schools have more teaching aids than others. Further, some schools have more teachers, furniture, better pass rates, better, better surroundings, better teacher-pupil ratio and better infrastructure than others (Education Foundation of the Netherlands, 2008). An example of this

situation was reported in the report by The Post (2015) where Tunduya Primary School of Munali constituency in Lusaka District was said to have operated without a roof for half a year after the roof was blown away by the wind. Away from infrastructure but at the same school, it was reported that four pupils share a desk meant to sit only two pupils while several others sit on the floor. Such reports are common in some schools while others have never had such reports made about them. This raises the question, why are pupils in some schools made to sit four on a desk while others share the recommended two in other schools.

Additionally, in his own admission, the then minister of education confirmed that there was more demand for teachers in the rural than urban areas so that the pupil teacher ratio was higher in the rural than it was in urban areas (The Post, 2014). According to the Ministry of Education (2005:31), while the teacher pupil ratio recorded in Lusaka province between 1996 and 2002 fluctuated between 1:35 and 1:44, that of provinces like Northern averaged 1:54 and 1:66. These are some of the problems that consequently impede the quality of service delivery. The same is the case with academic qualifications where 2002 estimates show that North Western Province has the highest population of qualified primary school teachers (81 Percent) while Copperbelt province has the least 71 Percent. These statistics imply that on the Copperbelt, for instance, 29 percent of the teachers in the schools in the province are not qualified to teach. The concern comes in as to why there is no deliberate coordination in such instances.

1.5 Research aim and objectives

1.5.1 Aim

To find out the challenges encountered in the coordination of primary education at Kamanga and Kabulonga primary schools of Lusaka city between 2010 and 2014.

1.5.2 Specific Objectives

- To review literature on management and coordination of bureaucracies
- To find out the legislative and institutional framework governing the delivery of primary education in Zambia
- To compare management practices in terms of communication, resources and authority relationships in the two primary schools
- To establish the measures put in place to coordinate primary education in Lusaka District.

1.5.3 Research Questions

The central question reads as follows: What challenges accompany a bureaucracy in the coordination of primary education delivery in Lusaka City in general and at Kamanga and Kabulonga Primary schools in particular that lead to difference in school performance?

The sub questions are as follows:

SQ1 (a) What policies and laws govern the delivery of primary education in Zambia?

SQ1 (b) Which institutions are involved in the delivery of primary education in Lusaka district?

SQ2 (a) What similarities exist between School A and School B in terms of communication, resources and authority relationships?

SQ2 (b) What differences exist between school A and School B that make one school more effective than the other?

SQ3 What measures have been put by the Lusaka District Education office to harmonize the distribution of resources in the district and what can be done to ensure effective coordination of resources and communication channels across the primary educational sector?



1.6 Rationale for Undertaking the Study

This study was undertaken due to one or more of the following reasons. To start with, the Millennium development challenge of the United Nations came to an end in 2015. In line with Millennium Development Goal (MDG) number two which seeks to attain universal primary education by 2015, the Zambian authorities need information such as the one which has been provided by this thesis to analyse the performance of the country on MDGs and in particular MDG number two. The thesis also provides a glimpse into how Zambia can organize or coordinate primary education beyond the MGD implementation period of 2000 to 2015. The fact that primary education is placed second on the MDGs

list shows how significant the primary education sector is not only in Zambia but also across the globe.

Second, Zambia spends more than two percent of its Gross Domestic Product (GDP) on education. Further, the country spends more than 56 percent of its entire education budget on primary education (MoE, 2003: 23). Being such a huge consumer of public finance, primary education should be a priority with a view to making it more efficient and effective. According to the World Bank (2010), Zambia is one of the countries in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region that spend highly on primary education compared to Malawi (32.2 percent), Democratic Republic of Congo (32.2 percent) and Swaziland (22.6 percent) among others.


Third, although there has been research done on issues relating to bureaucracy and coordination, few scholars have written in the African context, worse still in the Zambian context. The field of organizational development seems not to have been given enough attention from the academic spectrum. Zambia, in particular has not invested in research aimed at enhancing organizational design and development as much of the research is channelled toward the output of organizations than their development and improvement. This research thus availed an opportunity for the country to have literature which is more contextualized.

1.7 Methodology

1.7.1 Scope of the Study

For purposes of this study, only two primary schools were considered. This was to enable the researcher to get more detailed information on the operations of primary schools in the city of Lusaka. Only Kamanga and Kabulonga primary schools were involved. Further, the study was limited to Lusaka District of Lusaka Province. This means that other districts and provinces were not part of this research. Lusaka District and province was picked because it is the most populous, housing more than 2 million Zambians or 14% of the country's population (Habitat for Humanity, 2013). Additionally, the thesis narrows down bureaucratic coordination in terms of resources (how resources are shared and coordinated); communication; and authority relationships.

1.7.2 Study design



This study uses a comparative approach which saw two different schools being studied, and analogies drawn to compare the results from the two selected primary schools. The comparative study design also enabled the researcher to understand disparities as well as the factors that cause these disparities. Since the schools operate in different environments, making conclusions based on one school may not suffice in the quest to understand the challenges faced in coordination of bureaucracies.

This research used a qualitative approach. Consistent with this point, the research was based on Social constructivism to examine coordination of primary education in Lusaka District. According to Durrheim and Blanche (2002), qualitative research is advantageous in that: it can provide in-depth data on a case with only a reasonably small number of participants; data is based on the participants' own categories of meaning; can conduct cross case comparisons and analysis; it is useful for describing complex

phenomena and most importantly helps in determining idiographic causation. The qualitative approach also enables researchers to collect numerical and non-numerical data. On the other hand, Social Constructivism is the paradigm of research which emphasizes the importance of understanding the context with in which events occur. The major advantage of using Social Constructivism is that social events are interpreted differently by different groups and so to get to the root of phenomena, there is a need to understand the interpretation of such phenomena by different people or groups (Liu and Mathews, 2005).

1.7.3 Sampling Method

The study used a purposive sampling procedure. According to Jawale (2012), purposive sampling also known as deliberate sampling is a good sampling technique when particular subjects are more useful in answering a research question than the others. In this case, two schools were identified as subjects for comparison. This was done through a pre-research visit to the District education office in Lusaka, Zambia. The office recommended two primary schools in Lusaka district indicating which one had difficulties running and which one was performing better. The two schools recommended were Kamanga Primary school and Kabulonga. Lusaka district/city was picked because it has more schools and is easily accessible.

1.7.4 Sample Size

The sample consisted of experts including an official from the District Education Office's planning department; two school managers, one from each school and four teachers, two from each school, making a total of seven respondents. Creswell (2003) argues that using key informants is important because it enables a researcher to get in-depth information with lesser costs.

1.7.5 Data Collection method

The study used both primary and secondary data.

Primary Data

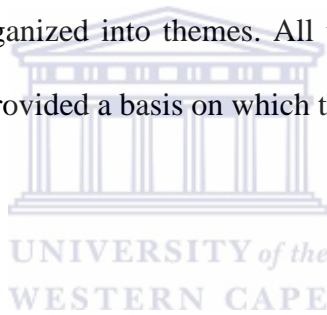
The researcher conducted interviews using semi-structured interview guides. Three different interview guides were prepared for the three stakeholders, one for the district education official, one for the school managers and another one for the teachers. These interviews were then transcribed and reported. Both closed and open end questions were used. Creswell (2003) opines that open end questions are advantageous in that they give respondents room to express themselves and they are more helpful in qualitative studies. Close ended questions on the other hand are easier to analyse. (Ibid) also suggests that semi structured interviews are useful in the sense that they make it possible for both the interviewer and the interviewee to include aspects of an interview they could have initially overlooked in the instruments.

Secondary Data

The researcher also used secondary sources of information such as strategic plans, policy documents, manifesto, bulletins, memos and law documents among others. The data, both primary and secondary were collected in November, 2015 and January 2016

1.7.6 Data Analysis

Thematic analysis, as opined by Kvale (1996) was applied. After using a recorder to record the interviews the researcher then transcribed the information. After it was transcribed, the data was organized into themes. All the themes were connected to the research questions and this provided a basis on which the report was written.



1.7.7 Limitations of Study

Just like many other studies, this research had some limitations. Chief among them is that being a comparative study for only two schools in one district, its external validity might only hold to a lower extent because of the sample size and sampling procedure (purposive). There are a lot of primary schools in Zambia and Lusaka specifically so the findings of this research cannot be generalized to all other schools.

Despite the above shortfalls, the information generated from this study will, to a large extent, benefit and give insights to scholars of education, Public Administration and policy makers on issues of coordination in bureaucracies.

1.7.8 Ethical considerations

The participants of this research were assured of confidentiality and anonymity. They were also informed beforehand that the research is for academic purposes only and that participation was voluntary. In other words, there were no payments for participating. Furthermore, the respondents were advised that they reserved the right to withdraw at any point of the interview if they felt uncomfortable. The respondents were also informed that the research would not be used, in any way to disadvantage them. To get their consent, consent forms and information sheets were given to the respondents beforehand.



1.8 Organization of the Study

This mini-thesis is divided into five major sections. It is organized in the following manner:

Chapter 1: is the introduction chapter of the thesis and contains the background and contextual glimpse to the study. It also outlines the statement of the problem, aims and objectives as well as the methodology.

Chapter 2: presents the literature review and the conceptual framework. In the literature review, the researcher writes various aspects that affect coordination of bureaucracies. In the theoretical framework the researcher writes about the theories that envisage coordination of bureaucracies.

Chapter 3: In chapter 3 the author discusses the institutional and legislative framework governing primary education. To achieve the objective of the chapter, the author discusses the various laws, policies and institutions involved in the provision of primary education, together with how they impact in the topical issue of this thesis

Chapter 4: This chapter reports and analyses the findings of the research. It segments them into three major themes, that is, communication, authority relationships and the organization of resources

Chapter 5: The final chapter looks at the conclusions and recommendations. The conclusions are based on the objectives listed in the initial part of the thesis. Furthermore, the recommendations are arranged in such a way that they point to all the stakeholders regarding the way forward on improving coordination and general primary education delivery.



CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This section of the thesis presents the literature review and theoretical and conceptual frameworks. The initial part is a presentation of the theories that attempt to explain coordination of bureaucracies. Among the theories is the Weberian model of bureaucracy, the Marxian perspective the Neo Weberian State (NWS) perspective, as well as a liberal view. The chapter then presents the thesis argument and proceeds to discuss the major types of coordination, followed by the requisites and features of good bureaucratic coordination. The section then discusses the impediments to good coordination and the effects of poor coordination in bureaucracies. The initial part of the chapter ends with a discussion on some of the options available to organizational designers as they seek to coordinate and deliver services in a more organized and equitable manner.

The last part presents the conceptual framework, defining some of the major terms used in the study as well as the diagrammatic presentation of the conceptual framework.

2.2 Theories of Bureaucracy

A number of theories have been propounded by various scholars with the aim as a means to understand and explain the concept of the bureaucracy. These views include the classical Weber's view, the Marxist perspectives, a liberal view and the Neo Weberian approach.

Before going further, a definition of bureaucracy according to Weber [1948]:

A bureaucracy is a hierarchical organization designed rationally to coordinate the work of many individuals in the pursuit of large-scale administrative tasks and organizational goals (Weber [1948] in Mannheim 1948: [2]).

It is worth noting, however, that bureaucracy in this thesis will refer to the lower levels of the state bureaucracy. In other words, the state bureaucracy will be analysed only at the level of policy implementation or service delivery hitherto known as the street level bureaucracy. Lipsky (2010) emphasises the importance of street level bureaucrats arguing that street level bureaucrats are important in the service delivery cycle because they are in direct contact with the citizens and often use discretion to behave in ways that are expected of public servants. In this thesis, the policy making level of the state bureaucracy was not in the scope. For instance, the street level bureaucrats are the major source of departure from the political (policy making) realm because street level bureaucrats are professionals with qualifications needed for their respective positions.

According to Haralambos (1985), bureaucratic organizations are dominant and have been very useful in public services delivery. Dunn and Miller (2007) are of the view that bureaucratic structures are helpful in the coordination of tasks and activities across the public domain while Lynn (2008) suggests that bureaucracy is a state-centred organization through which various services can be delivered to the public.

2.2.1 Max Weber's Bureaucracy

Max Weber came up with the concept of the 'ideal type bureaucracy' in his 1921 publication *economy and society*. Weber [1921] cited in Sager and Rosser (2009) argued

and believed that bureaucracy was the most rational way of organizing the state and its institutions. According to Weber, bureaucratic organizations are “dominant institutions of industrial society” (DuGay, 2000:2). Weber argued that a bureaucracy is concerned with the issues of administration, coordinating and controlling complex series of tasks (Evans and Rauch, 1999).

Weber is further cited by Haralambos (1985:279) as having outlined the characteristics of a bureaucracy as being among others, “a hierarchy of paid, full-time officials who formed a chain of command.” The hierarchy and chain of command have been a major characteristic in the bureaucratic dispensation. Other characteristics include strict adherence to rules and procedures, impersonality of bureaucrats and continuity of office. Further the functionaries (employees) of the bureaucracy are appointed based on merit, meaning they possess the qualifications needed to execute their duties (Basu, 2004).

Weber’s Bureaucratic theory has many implications for this study. First, the presence of the hierarchy enables the bureaucrats to identify whom to report to, and who reports to them. In this case, there is a clear understanding of communication channels and that in turn reduces incidents of role conflicts. In other words, teachers know what their roles are, whom to report to and how to channel their grievances because of the existence of a hierarchy. Further, because the teachers have the qualifications needed to teach, they are able to deliver the right quality and quantity of pupils.

Weber’s bureaucracy has been criticized. Among the critics is DuGay (2000:88) who argues that a bureaucracy as suggested by Weber failed because it had a lot of shortcomings as reflected on its ‘charge sheet’ spanning from “procrastination, obfuscation, circumlocution, and other typical products of a red tape mentality to the truly heinous-genocide, totalitarianism and despotism.” In other words, the bureaucracy

lacks straightforwardness or simplicity, so that instead, it is a very complicated system that might lead to frustrations. According to Haralambos (1985), Marxists have criticized Weber's bureaucratic theory on grounds lack of neutrality because in capitalist societies, where forces of production are owned by minority groups (the ruling class), state bureaucracy represents the interests of the ruling class group. Michels [1961] criticised the bureaucratic theory saying that it was against the conventions of individual liberties as it is "petty, narrow, rigid and illiberal" (Haralambos, 1985:289).

2.2.2 The Neo Weberian State (NWS)

The Neo Weberian State is another theory of bureaucracy, which is a build up from the classical version of the bureaucracy as espoused by Weber. Pollitt and Bouckaert (2011) are behind the NWS, a theory they say is the 'cousin' of the New Public Management (NPM) approach. They call it cousin to the NPM because it is related to New Public Management in terms of its emphasis on *managerialism*. Managerialism encourages Public Administrators or bureaucrats to offer services with the purpose of satisfying a citizen (client) as well as to ensure they are result oriented. Pollitt and Bouckaert argue that the NWS, unlike the classical version of the bureaucracy has a modernised and flexible orientation to Public Management and service delivery, connoting reduced emphasis on rules, regulations and hierarchies. Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004) list the elements they call the 'Neo/new elements.' They suggest the following elements as being new to the bureaucracy:

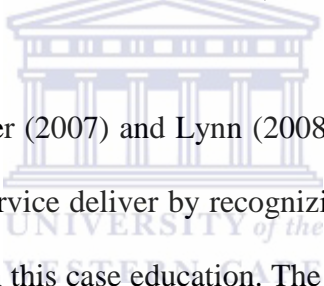
Shift from an internal orientation towards bureaucratic rule following towards an external orientation towards meeting citizens' needs and

wishes. The primary route to achieving this is not the employment of market mechanisms

Supplementation (not replacement) of the role of representative democracy by a range of devices for consultation with, and the direct representation of, citizens' views

In the management of resources within government, a modernization of the relevant laws to encourage a greater orientation on the achievement of results, rather than merely the correct following of procedure [is encouraged]. This is expressed partly in a shift in the balance from ex-ante to ex-post controls, but not a complete abandonment of the former. It may also take the form of a degree of performance management

A professionalization of the public service, so that the 'bureaucrat' becomes not simply an expert in the law relevant to his or her sphere of activity, but also a professional manager, oriented to meeting the needs of his/her citizen/users (Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2011:118-119).



According to Dunn and Miller (2007) and Lynn (2008), the Neo Weberian State takes a more outward approach to service delivery by recognizing the importance of the client or user of a particular service, in this case education. The argument is that there ought to be direct participation of the clients for whom a particular service is designed. The other point worth noting is the drive by Pollitt and Bouckaert (2011) to advocate for the professionalization of the bureaucracy by transforming the initial roles of administrators, so that they may become managers who are more ambitious and creative towards issues of service delivery unlike only focussing on internal routine processes. This further requires that the bureaucrats should possess the right qualifications and competencies if they are to perform. Lastly, Pollitt and Bouckaert place emphasis on prudence in the use of organizational resources, so that the inputs (resources) should be properly managed to ensure that results are produced (Pollitt and Bouckaert 2004). In other words, there should

be an aspect of efficiency so that the allocation of resources leads to improvements in performance.

The Neo Weberian State (NWS) theory has many implications for this thesis. The first is that for primary education to be of higher standards, there has to be proper use of resources. In this case, the two schools should put in measures to ensure all resources, both financial and non-financial are properly utilized and accounted for. In other words, there should be no over utilization or underutilization of resources. Further district education office should have proper means of ensuring that resources are distributed with utmost equity. Additionally, there should be flexibility in the manner communication is done within the schools and between the schools and the district education office. Lastly, schools should have performance management procedures in place to ensure that all teachers and managers are meeting the expectations of their responsibilities.

Lynn (2008) criticises the NWS as she argues, “although the new elements refer to citizens’ needs, an external orientation, and consultation, these seem to be the accomplishments of the administrative elites and governments” (Lynn, 2008:6). Lynn is in other words suggesting that even under the NWS, consultation between the bureaucrats and other stakeholders is still limited and so that the quality and quantity of the services provided by a particular bureaucratic system are dictated by the bureaucrats themselves, not by the citizens. Further, Dunn and Miller (2007:349) argue that the NWS should not consider citizens as customers because customers buy “hamburgers” which could be luxuries while average citizens want public goods such as education, accommodation and security. In other words, public services are usually in form of needs such as health, education, transport and security, unlike luxuries that can only be purchased by those who can afford.

2.2.3 Marxian Perspective on Bureaucracy

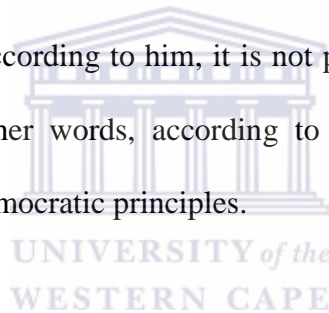
Marxists have a different view of the bureaucratic theory. Marx, Engels and Lenin [1918] cited in DuGay (2000) argued that the theory of bureaucracy can only be understood in relation to the forces of production. Haralambos (1985) further argues that the bureaucracy was formulated with its main rationale being to represent the interests of the ruling class with Lenin further emphasising that bureaucracy was merely part of the capitalist movement that need a revolution to be crashed.

The Marxist version of bureaucracy has a number of characteristics. One of the characteristics is that the bureaucracy was expected to be directly controlled by and beneficial to the masses through participation (Haralambos, 1985). The Marxists further argue that hierarchy of officials is a hindrance to creative energies and effective communication within the bureaucracy itself as well as between the bureaucracy and the people it serves. Division of labour and the fragmentation or sharing of tasks are also rejected in favour of a system where everyone is capable of doing everything within the organization. In other words, bureaucrats should be generalists who should perform all tasks in an organization. Additionally, the rules and regulations are supposed to be abolished as they tend to be used as instruments of suppressing and/or controlling the masses (DuGay, 2000). What is clear from these attributes is the move by the Marxists to have flatter structures in bureaucracies.

The Marxist perspectives on the bureaucracy have several implications for this thesis. To start with, encouraging participation on various forums within the schools can lead to improvements in the quality of primary education being provided because managers, teachers, parents and pupils could all have input towards the operations of the schools.

Second, reducing the hurdles that come with a tall hierarchy would ensure flexibility and speedy communication within and outside the school(s). The applicability of the Marxists perspective to the Zambian setting is, however, to a limited extent because Zambian economic system is largely capitalist.

The Marxian perspective has been criticised. Liebich (1982:77) argues that, “Marx’s references to bureaucracy are few and far between and that together, they do not add up to the theory of bureaucracy.” The critic suggests that Marxists did not take time to analyse the theory of the bureaucracy as a whole but instead picked a few things with their emphasis placed too much on the issue of class. Robert Michels [1911] in Haralambos (1985) also criticised the Marxists saying their view of the bureaucracy was incomprehensible because according to him, it is not possible to have organisations that are truly democratic. In other words, according to Michels (1962), an organization cannot function purely on democratic principles.



2.2.4 Liberal Perspective on Bureaucracy (Robert Michels)

In his *political parties* Michels (1962) discussed bureaucracy in a much different realm as he analysed it from the point of democracy in trade unions. According to Lipset (1969), Michels argued that democracy was inconceivable without organizations. Michels (1962) believed that the establishment of a representative democracy in trade unions and political parties often resulted in the appointment of full time officials and ‘professional politicians.’ The administrative tasks involved in running these organizations then lead to the creation of a bureaucracy. The effective execution of the tasks requires specialized division of labour, which necessitates coordination to be done

from the top (Tolbert, 2010). Another element of Michels's approach to bureaucracy is the need for training of the bureaucrats as he stated that as organizations grow bigger, and the scale of activities increase, it becomes impossible for those without the knowledge and expertise to run them. Michels also argued that decision making in the bureaucracies is done by executive committees rather than assemblies (Lipset, 1969). Michels still advocated for the promotion of participation as opposed to imposing Oligarchies that side line the citizenry.

The major implication of this theory for the thesis is that since schools are relatively small bureaucracies, participation in the delivery of primary education should be encouraged in the schools so that teachers and parents can have a say in the running of the schools. Similarly, the district education office ought to be more open to dialog and allow information exchange even directly with teachers. Additionally, rules and procedures should not be an impediment to the delivery of primary education in these schools. School managers and district officials should be flexible enough.

2.3 Thesis Argument

The main argument of this thesis is that the manner in which the bureaucratic structure in charge of delivering primary education is coordinated affects the quality and accessibility of primary education to young learners. Specifically, the manner in which resources (financial and non-financial), authority relationships and communication arrangements are distributed in an organization can affect the delivery of services. The thesis is written with the view that when there is good communication, open and flexible authority

relationships and good flow of resources, primary education delivery would improve and be accessible to all citizens.

2.4 Types of Organizational Coordination

Galbraith (1969) in his paper titled 'organization design: an information processing view' identifies three forms of coordination. The first one is *coordinating by rules or programs*. He argues that all tasks that are repetitive and predictable can be coordinated through this approach. In this case, a role occupant or bureaucrat can make a decision based on the rules given to him without necessarily communicating with the rest of the organization. The second form is *coordination by hierarchy*. Under this one, he argues that as an organization faces greater uncertainty, its employees face situations for which they have no rules or guidelines, meaning that the hierarchy is only followed in exceptional circumstances but that as uncertainty builds even more, the number of exceptions increase and the hierarchy becomes overloaded. The third and final form is *coordination by targets or goals*. This kind of coordination takes place when uncertainty reaches its peak and coordination can only be accomplished by specifying outputs, goals or targets so that instead of setting rules for behaviour, targets are given to employees. He further adds that the ability of an organization to coordinate independent roles depends on its ability to compute meaningful sub-goals to guide subunit action. The three forms cannot exist independently but are instead mutually exclusive.

2.5 Requisites for Organizational Coordination

In a book by Larsson (1990) titled 'coordination of action in mergers and acquisitions' the author discusses what is needed if effective coordination is to be accomplished. The author writes that for effective coordination to take place, there is supposed to be a Span of control, which shows the number of people answerable to one supervisor. The argument is that there should be a limit as to how many people one person can manage effectively.

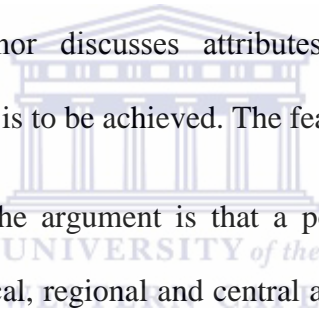
The second requirement for coordination is departmentalization. The author uses the bases of departmentalization by citing Gulick [1937] and argues that departmentalization can be based on purpose; where people pursuing a particular objective or phenomenon are brought together (in this case all institutions providing primary education fall under the Ministry of Education); on process, where all individuals within an organization who make use of a particular skill are brought together (in this case teachers are grouped based on the grades or subjects they teach); on clientele where all individuals/organizations who serve a particular clientele are brought together (In this case teachers who teach children with special needs such as the disabled are brought together); and departmentalization by place or geographical area where all organizations or individuals operating from a particular region are brought together. This the most relevant form for the thesis because schools are identified by the particular area they operate from.

Third, there has to be interdepartmental coordination through hierarchy, planning boards/committees, coordinators and official meetings. The author argues that it is these requirements that complement structural organization design.

The literature by Larsson (1990) has an implication for the thesis in the sense that it guides in studying departmentalisation and other internal organizational structures with regards to authority relationships within schools and Lusaka District. Although this book is more biased towards private organizations, the dawn of the new approaches to Public Management such as the New Public Management and Neo Weberian State makes this information valuable even to the public sector.

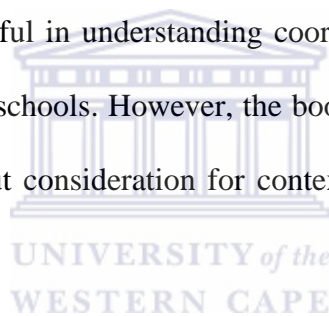
2.6 Features towards effective coordination in bureaucracies

In a book by Kotze (1997) titled 'Development administration and Management: a holistic approach,' the author discusses attributes that should be considered if coordination in bureaucracies is to be achieved. The features include:

- 
- (a) A policy statement: the argument is that a policy statement can be used as a means to reconcile local, regional and central aspirations and area objectives and as such it could guide inter-organizational relations at all levels.
 - (b) Objectives: coordination can be achieved when attention is dedicated to clearly stated and agreed objectives, grouping of functions, communications, planning and budgeting and other staff services.
 - (c) Interface: there has to be interface between officials and representatives so as to generate mutual trust, at the same time promoting optimal participation. Interface among stakeholders further promotes transparency, in this case among teachers, parents and the learners.

- (d) Administrative Unit: there should also be a commonly recognized unit if administration such as a district which facilitates coordination. In this case it could relate to the district education office and the two schools.
- (e) Decentralization: for effective coordination to take place, decision making should be decentralized as much as possible. A centralized system might render the decisions made centrally irrelevant when it comes to the implementation of decisions.
- (f) Job Descriptions: a job description of an officer should go further and show the relationship of one officer with the other officers in an organization. This can serve as an effective tool for coordination.

These features are very helpful in understanding coordinative measures in a number of organizations, including the schools. However, the book generalizes these features to all third world countries without consideration for contextual variations even among third world countries.



2.7 Impediments to Effective Coordination

In a book by Kotze (1997) titled ‘Development Administration and Management: a holistic approach’, the author outlines some of the challenges or issues that affect effective coordination. The impediments include;

- (a) Incompetency: coordination takes place through the informal organization that exists in every office. Be that as it may, where and when competency levels for officials are low, there is a propensity by such officials to shun contact and cooperation with colleagues and the public.

- (b) Conflict of Interests: coordination is a very sensitive and complex because the persons involved often have divergent interests and opinions concerning problems of coordination.
- (c) Indirect Costs: coordination brings about indirect costs arising from numerous meetings which consume a lot of time and financial resources.
- (d) Domination: domination is another serious impediment to coordination. It connotes a situation where one part of the system or organization dominates the other sub parts. This is caused by either voluntary process or a self-serving attitude on the part of the smaller organizations.
- (e) Economy of affection: refers to the precedence taken by personal, personal, and family and clan priorities over rational economic and political decisions. The argument is that the relaxing of discipline and amplification of nepotistic tendencies leads to inefficiency at key points that virtually precludes the coordination of any comprehensive program.

These factors guide an understanding of coordination in bureaucracies as they give insight into the practical aspects of coordination.

2.8 Effects of Poor coordination in Bureaucracies

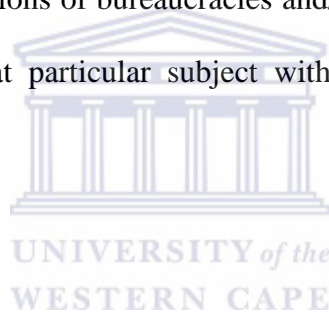
Lawrence and Lorsch (1984) argue that poor coordination results into a number of negative effects. Interdepartmental conflict is one of the negative effects of poor coordination. The authors argue that when there is poor coordination, departments that make up a bureaucracy are engulfed in endless conflicts often caused by poor communication. Clashing schedules is another effect. The authors opine that when coordination is poorly done, schedules can and would often clash, affecting productivity

in an organization. Additionally, product inconsistency follows when an organization is poorly coordinated, so that products and services lack uniformity for instance in quality.

Since the thesis is seeking to understand the issue of varying performance between the schools, the aspect of product or service inconsistency has to be examined with the view of understanding how it relates to coordination of the primary schools within Lusaka district.

2.9 Organizational Design Options

When it comes to design options of bureaucracies and/or organizational structures, there are debates surrounding that particular subject with scholars arguing from different angles.



2.9.1 Structures with Overlaps

Scholars like Learner and Miranda (1995) and Landau (1969) argue that bureaucracies should have duplicated structures so that in an event that one fails, the other system can pick up. The authors give an example of a plane which has several engines, anticipating that one engine can fail. Part of the explanation is in Figures 1 below. In the diagrams below, there are three ways in which redundancy can be introduced in a bureaucracy. The first is *enlightened waste*, where wasted capacity will be inventoried or it will be active, so that two agencies produce 16 units when 8 are optimal. This is the most costly form of redundancy. The second form is called *under-stress the survivor*, where two units operate at the capacity of four units each. A break down in one would require the

stressing of the other four units of the output. The third one is called *mobilize reserve* where of the two units, the other one is a shadow and inactive unit which can be activated quickly if or when need arises. The authors thus recommend the process of ‘benchmarking,’ a situation where service providers are made to compete through the use of joint contracting (Learner and Mirinda, 1995).

Figure 1
Duplication and Overlap in Government Bureaucracies

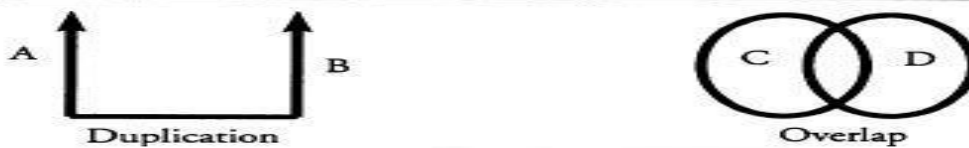


Figure 2
Alternative Designs for Redundancy



Source: Learner and Mirinda, (1995)

2.9.2 Structures without Overlaps

Another group of scholars argues that designing bureaucracies with intentionally redundant structures is a waste of resources. Lawrence and Lorsch (1984) argue that instead of introducing redundancy, organizational designers should ensure they create a position of an integrator in the bureaucratic structure, whose roles will be handling non-programmed problems that arise among traditional functions. Such roles, according to Lawrence and Lorsch (1984) would include resolving interdepartmental conflicts and facilitating decisions on aspects of outputs, quality, targets and schedules. Further, the

Government Accountability Office (2011) is of the view that repetition of functions in a bureaucracy cannot be justified. They give an example of lack of coordination among departments in charge of providing education in the United States of America such as Department of defence, Department of Education, Department of Energy, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) and the National Science Foundation. Although this literature and approach emanates from a developed country, it is very applicable to the Zambian situation because of the resource constraints in the developing countries, Zambia inclusive.

2.9.3 Contingency Structuring

Lastly is the group of authors that believe in the contingency approach to the design of bureaucracies. In this case, the scholars argue that the type of design an organization takes is dependent on the environment in which the organizations operate. Daft (2007) cites Hurst [1995] arguing that bureaucracies operating in stable environments adopt structures characterized by vertical and tall hierarchies, routine and repetitive tasks and top down decision making. He called these structures *Mechanical structures*. On the other hand, *natural/learning/organic systems* operate in unstable environments and are characterized by horizontal relationships (authority relationships between members of a bureaucracy at the same hierarchical level). The structure under this arrangement is flatter and decision making is spread across the organization. Burns and Wholey (1993) are of the similar view as they suggest depending on the environment, organizational designers can adopt a matrix structure. According to them, Matrix management means “laying one or more new forms of departmentalization on top of an existing one.” This

can for instance be the case when a bureaucracy or any organization introduces a new product line or service, that they will create an additional structure to support the new service.

Another contingent approach is the one by Lacan [1973] in Styhre (2008:635) which talks about Post-bureaucratic Organizations. He defines post-bureaucratic organizations as a wide array of novel organizations that have been introduced such as network organizations, virtual organizations and project based organizations that don't need rely on the establishment of rules and routines but are rather able to respond to the changing environment. These organizations are more organic and flexible in nature. Apart from their flexibility, these organizations do not have written down job descriptions (Styhre, 2008).

The contingency approach to organizational design and coordination is more realistic and fits well in this study because of environmental aspects surrounding the schools. The fact that the two schools serve two different types of environments should have a bearing on how they operate.

2.10 Conceptual and Operational Definitions of Variables

2.10.1 Communication

Lossee (1999:8) has defined communication as “a dynamic process involving the transfer of information in a communication system with both the sender and receiver involved in the system.” This definition suggests that there has to be information transmitted in the process. Further, both the sender and the receiver of the information are involved in the

communication process. Additionally, communication occurs in information systems, meaning that the more organized the system is, the more efficient and easier to communicate. According to Haralambos (1985), communication in bureaucracies flows more effectively and efficiently when the hierarchies are not followed. According to Stalker (2006), one of the solutions to better flow of information within organizations was creating structures that are flatter and leaner in nature. This entails that there should be few intermediaries between levels of a bureaucracy and that there should not be too many people at one level of a bureaucratic structure. The implication is that since the teachers are directly in contact with the pupils, it is easier for them to share their challenges and experiences if there are many avenues of communication within the schools.



2.10.2 Authority Relationships

According to Likert (1976) the manner in which superiors and their subordinates relate in an organization is capable of either reducing or increasing productivity. Authority Relationships in this sense connote the way in which functionaries in an organization interact horizontally and vertically. Vertical relationships are relationships between superiors and subordinates while horizontal relationships are those between officials at the same hierarchical level but different departments or units. In the Weberian version of the bureaucracy for instance, “business is conducted according to calculable rules and without regard for persons” (Haralambos, 1985: 283). Weber’s approach is in direct contrast with what Likert (1976) suggests in his *system 4 leadership*. According to Likert, system 4 type of leadership is one where superiors and their subordinates are able

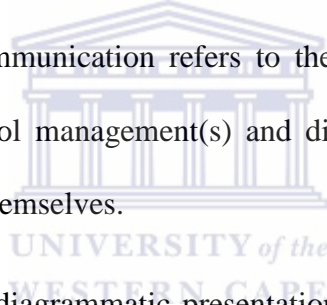
to interact freely both formally and informally. In other terms, there are no authoritarian or top-down tendencies under system 4 leaders. The implication is that if teachers are allowed to interact even with the head or the district office directly, challenges to do with feedback could be addressed.

2.10.3 Resources

The other dimension this thesis looks at is resources. Microsoft (2009) defines resource allocation as, “the activity of deciding how items or resources such as money, assets, [and] personnel should be used in order to achieve a particular aim.” Resources such as humans in an organization are integral in the pursuit of organizational goals and objectives. The importance of other resources such as finances and physical assets cannot be overemphasised in any organizational setting so that without these resources services delivery would be curtailed. Organizational resources are key in the transformation of inputs into outputs and outcomes for every organization. Stalker (2006) however emphasises that accountability should be of prime importance in the operations of the organizations, adding that all resources in organizations should be used responsibly. Illich (1970) however argues that bureaucracies in capitalist societies have often restricted access of education to the poor on the pretext of lack of resources when the original reason is lack of political will. The major implication is that proper allocation and utilization of resources is important in the delivery of primary education. For instance, the schools need teachers, financial resources, teaching and learning materials. Once these resources are in the school, they should be properly arranged. The ability of a school to organize resources determines its ability to deliver to its expectations.

For purposes of this thesis:

- Resources: resource allocation has to do with how much of resources are available in the two schools in terms of finances, teachers, classrooms, transport aids and teaching materials. It also included how the allocation is done to ensure equity prevails as well as how the resources are organized and/or arranged within the schools.
- Authority Relationships: authority relationships refer to reporting systems in the schools as well as vertically into the district tier of authority. Internally it related to how teachers and pupils relate while externally it was about how teachers and school managers relate with the parents and the district education office.
- Communication: Communication refers to the processes and channels through which teachers, school management(s) and district education officials transmit information among themselves.



In the Figure 2 below, is a diagrammatic presentation that good communication, good flow of information and good authority relationships (leadership) lead to good coordination and subsequently uniform and equitable service delivery. On the other hand, poor communication, poor relationships among members of an organization and poor allocation of resources can lead to coordination failure as well as service imbalances and inconsistency.

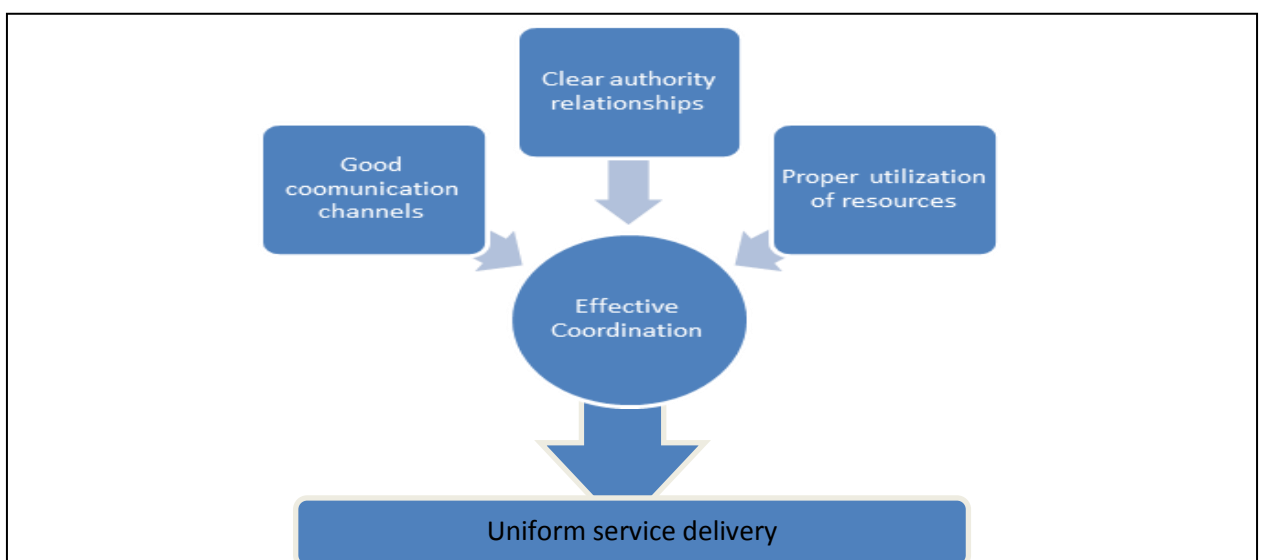
In this case, since primary education is spread across geographical territories, there is need for constant communication between the centre (district) and the peripheries (specific schools), failure to do so may result in organizational processes being disturbed.

The rate at which the centre responds to concerns also determines how effectively the schools can continue to provide access to primary education.

Furthermore, primary education needs resources for it to run effectively. Teachers are needed in schools, so are finances that are needed for procurement and other administrative reasons while desks and classrooms are important if learning is to take place. These resources should be allocated properly to avoid redundancy in some schools and scarcity in others. Learning cannot take place without chalk, desks and teachers hence these resources should be well organized and coordinated in their allocation.

Authority relationships on the other hand are integral in school management. If the top leaderships in the school fail to give direction, the subordinates are very likely to be subjected to role ambiguities and conflicts. Furthermore, managers should have good working relationships with their subordinates by allowing input from the later.

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework.



Source: Own illustration

2.11 Summary

The chapter discussed the theories of bureaucracy, starting with the Weberian model which emphasised rules and hierarchies; through the Neo Weberian State (NWS) which promotes flatter and less formalized structures; the Marxian model which opines that tall hierarchies hinder communication. The chapter also presented the argument of the thesis that good authority relationships, good communication and proper resource allocation systems enhance coordination of service delivery, in this case, education.

This chapter further discussed literature with regards to coordination of bureaucracies. It first addressed the fact that there are different modes of coordination. Coordination can be done by rules, programs and hierarchy. Further, for coordination to occur there should be span of control, departmentalization and interdepartmental coordination. Additionally that incompetence and other things can impede effective coordination. The chapter also discussed that there are several approaches to designing organizations. For instance, a bureaucracy can be designed with deliberate redundant or overlaps so that if one unit fails, the other one can take over. A bureaucracy can also be designed with minimal or no overlaps at all so as to enhance efficiency. Another thought is that bureaucracies have got no one way to be designed as their design depends on the environment in which they operate. The last part presented a conceptual framework.

CHAPTER 3: LEGAL POLICY AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING PRIMARY EDUCATION

3.1 Introduction

Chapter two discussed some of the theoretical issues surrounding the notion of the bureaucracy as well as debates around the bureaucracy and coordination. This chapter focuses on the legal, policy and institutional framework governing primary education in Zambia. In other words, it provides a glimpse into what laws and policies shape the delivery of education, and how they contribute to the delivery of education. Further, the chapter discusses distribution of the institutions involved in the delivery of primary education.

The initial part of the chapter looks the mission and responsibilities of the Ministry of Education. The author then proceeds to government laws and policies, followed by international conventions. The later part outlines the partner institutions and their responsibilities in the delivery of primary education.

3.2 Mission and Functions of the Ministry of Education

The provision of primary education in Zambia is overseen by the Ministry of Education. According to the Ministry of Education (2013), the ministry's mandate to manage the education sector in the country is drawn from the Education Act of 1966. However, there are efforts currently under way to replace the Education Act of 1966 with a revised 2011 Education Act number 23. The mission of the ministry of education is:

to guide the provision of education for all Zambians so that they are able to pursue knowledge and skills, manifest excellence in performance and moral uprightness, defend democratic ideals, and accept and value other persons on the basis of their personal worth and dignity, irrespective of gender, religion, ethnic origin or any other discriminatory characteristic. (Ministry of Education, 2014:8)

As can be observed from the above quote, the Zambian education system aims not only to groom learners academically, but also to prepare them for moral uprightness in the way they interact with other members of the wider society. The idea is for the ministry to provide of education to all the Zambians.

The International Bureau of Education (2000) outlines some of the functions of the Ministry of Education as espoused by the Education Act of 1966. The functions of the ministry include:



- (a) Formulate, analyse and review educational policies
- (b) Plan, provide and coordinate the delivery of education at all levels
- (c) To assess and evaluate teaching and learning
- (d) Promote community participation
- (e) To provide, develop and approve educational materials
- (f) To develop and manage human resources
- (g) To mobilize and manage financial and material resources through appropriate institutions and decentralized systems.
- (h) To facilitate and provide education to the disadvantaged and vulnerable in the community

- (i) To promote and strengthen communication between the Ministry of Education and the community.

From the above functions, it can be noted that ministry acts as a unit for coordination as suggested by Kotze (1999) and is also in charge of the resource allocation. Resource allocation is an important aspect of organizational management as espoused by Microsoft (2009). Further, as per suggestion by Lossee (1999) and the Marxists in Haralambos (1985), communication comes out prime among the functions of the ministry.

3.3 Legislative Arrangements

There are a number of pieces of legislation that are aimed at regulating the running of the primary education sector in Zambia. These pieces of guidelines can be grouped into two categories namely, government laws and government policies.

3.3.1 The Education Act No. 28 of 1966 and amendment No. 48 of 1970, 56 of 1970, 40 of 1972, 31 of 1973 and 13 of 1994.

According to the MSTVEE (2013), the major pillar of post-independence education provision in Zambia has been the Education Act of 1966. This act was brought in as a measure to overhaul the colonial system of education with a view of meeting the demands of an independent Zambia. The act abolished the dual system of education and also paved way for the introduction for curriculum reforms such as the adoption of English as a means of instruction in schools. The act also saw the introduction of accounts and audit units to monitor funds. Further, the Act outlined the powers of the inspectors of schools. It also provided for the existence of the Parent Teachers Associations (PTA), teachers associations, penalties, and non-refusal of admission of

pupils based on religion and race. The Education Act, as amended in 1994 also provided for the existence of both government schools and private schools (GRZ, 1966).

Within the context of this thesis and in line with the above, this particular piece of legislation has a number of implications. First, it's the legislation that brought changes in the education sector to ensure that all citizens were equals by abolishing the dual system of education which segregated people based on colour. Further, the creation of accounts and audit units in the ministry of education changed the system of resources accountability so that the audit and accounts units were able to bring some sort control in financial prudence. Additionally, the legislation, by creating Parent Teacher Associations (PTA) increased the participation of the parents in the running of the schools. The encouragement of participation through the formation of the PTA has resonates with the Marxists perspective cited in Haralambos (1985) and the liberal scholars such as Michels (1962) who argue that the recipients of public services should be allowed to participate in delivery of services affecting them.

3.3.2 The Constitution of Zambia, Act No.1 of 1991 and the amendment Act No. 18 1996

The other law in line with the provision of primary education in Zambia is the constitution of Zambia Act number 1 of 1991 and the amendment Act number 18 of 1996. The constitution, in this case shaped the curriculum landscape with the view of supporting the transition from the one party state to plural politics, guided by democratic principles. The act became a cornerstone in the then new academic dispensation (GRZ, 1996). This act had a direct impact on the quality and content of primary education by

changing the approach and philosophy of education from the socialist one to the liberal and capitalistic one. This offered a paradigm shift from the socialist one as suggested by the Marxists in Haralambos (1985) to one which is more liberal and capitalistic as suggested by Weber [1921] in Sager and Rosser (2009) and Michels (1962).

3.3.3 The Disability Act 1996 and the Persons with Disabilities Act no. 6 of 2012

The disability act was initiated with the purpose of providing for the needs of persons living with disabilities as a response to discriminatory tendencies against them. Such discrimination stemmed from curriculum issues, through environmental to infrastructure issues. The children with disabilities for instance could not use certain facilities because of their condition. Further, others could not access reading materials and the promulgation of this act brought much relief to the children and their parents. Additionally, schools for children with special needs were established to support children with special needs (MSVTEE, 2013). The emphasis of persons with disabilities fits well with the writings of Gulick [1937] in Larsson (1990) who argues for the grouping (bringing together) of organizational units serving a particular clientele, in this case the disabled learners.

3.3.4 The Education Act-2011

The Act guides on how best education could be provided in Zambia considering the democratic dispensation. The Act, unlike the 1966 Education Act takes cognizance of the

principles of liberalization, decentralization, equality, partnership and accountability. (GRZ, 2011).

The 2011 Act has implications for the mini-thesis as it acknowledges the importance of decentralization, partnerships and accountability, which are key issues in this mini-thesis. Decentralization has a direct link to authority relationships and communication because in a decentralized system, lower levels of the bureaucracies like primary schools have considerable decisions to make (Kotze, 1999). Further partnerships in education provision are an important aspect especially in the face of limited financial support from the central government, partnerships are inevitable. Partnerships and synergy have resonated with the theoretical work of contemporary scholars like Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004) and Styhre (2008).



3.4 Government Policies

3.4.1 Focus on Learning 1992

The policy *focus on learning* came as a response to the World Conference on Education for All in 1990 and the 1991 National Conference of Education for all. The proposals and strategies on improving the delivery of education in Zambia took a different approach by sporting partnerships in the delivery of education. The policy was used to lobby support from government and cooperating partners to consider allocating enough resources to the education sector with a view of improving quality and quantity in basic schools (MESVTEE, 2013). This policy, just like the Education Act of 2011 supports partnerships and synergy in service delivery, aspects that have been supported by Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004) and Styhre (2008).

3.4.2 The Re-entry Policy 1997

On October 13 1997, the Zambian government through the Ministry of Education launched the Re-entry policy. According to the policy, young learners (girls) who fall pregnant while in school are allowed to go back to school after giving birth. Although this policy brought mixed feelings among other stakeholders such as the Faith Based Organizations (FBOs), it has yielded some results in as far as equity and fairness is concerned across communities and gender the policy gave guidelines on how schools can detect pregnancies; the steps to be taken after detection of the pregnancy; the documents which should be given to the pregnant girl when she goes on leave; the length of time for re-entry after delivery and the number of times a pupil can be allowed to re-enter school (MoE, 2010). This policy guides on how some conflicts regarding pregnancies can be handled. It also brings about the interaction between school authorities and the parents of the learners. Kotze (1999) notes that conflict of interest is one of the factors that impede coordination and so this policy acts as a reference point in an event that the stakeholders disagree.

3.5 Partner Institutions (GRZ, Grant Aided, Private and Community Schools)

The provision of primary education in Zambia is made possible by collaborations between and/or among various institutions in the country. Some of these institutions are public while others are private and/or in the hands of other agencies. The agencies have been classified as community/unknown; grant-aided; GRZ and private.

Government schools are those schools that are 100 percent funded by the government. These schools are funded through the national budget(s) based on the submissions and

allocations to the Ministry of Education. According to MoE (2014), the 2013 estimates show that there are 5,178 basic schools in the country. Of these schools, 12.7 percent are in the central province; 10.3 percent on the Copperbelt province; 11.8 percent in the Eastern province; 7.6 percent in Luapula province; 7.3 percent in Lusaka province; 9.5 percent in Muchinga province; 8.0 percent in North Western province; 10.0 percent in Northern Province; 13.1 percent in Southern province and 9.8 percent in Western province.

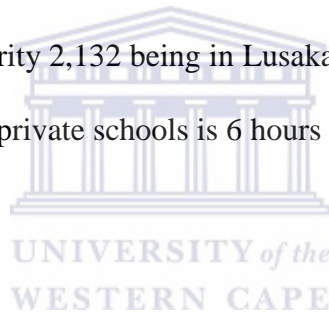
Government basic schools have a total of 56, 721 teachers. The 2013 estimates also show that the average number of contact hours for basic/primary school teachers is at 4.7 hours per day, per teacher (MoE, 2014).

There are also schools that offer primary education which fall under the category of Grant Aided institutions. Kelly (1999:223) defines grant aided institutions as, “voluntary agencies, mostly religious bodies which receive from government a grant of 75 percent of the capital costs of approved projects and annual grant of aid in running costs.” Teachers and other approved members of staff in these institutions are paid by the government.

According to MoE (2014), 2013 estimates reveal, for instance, that there are 242 Grant Aided basic/primary schools in Zambia with a total of 2, 527 teachers. Among these teachers, 203 are in central province; 184 on the Copperbelt province; 563 in Eastern province; 115 in Luapula province; 301 in Lusaka province; 35 in Muchinga province; 170 in North Western province; 438 in Northern; 429 in Southern province and 89 in Western province with an average contact of 5.1 hours per teacher per day.

According to Kelly (1999), private schools are established by individuals and organizations as a means of setting community participation in motion. This class of schools includes institutions run on a profit making basis and institutions run on a non-profit basis such as those established by local and international companies; religious agencies and trust schools established for children of miners. These schools often charge market related fees and are thus more expensive than those in the other categories.

According to MoE (2014) there are 485 primary schools in the private category with Copperbelt province having the highest number of these schools at 137 and Lusaka province second at 115. These province are followed by Southern, Central, and Luapula provinces with 76, 44 and 33 schools respectively. Private primary/basic schools employ 4,868 teachers with the majority 2,132 being in Lusaka province. The average number of contact hours for teachers in private schools is 6 hours per day.



There is also a category of schools called community schools. DeStafano [2004] in MoE (2005) defines a community school as a village school which belongs to the local community and is organized, funded, run and supported by the community. Apart from community schools, there are other schools often referred to as Interactive Radio Interaction (IRI) Centres. IRI centres aim at increasing access to primary education. The ‘teachers’ in these schools are referred to as ‘mentors’. The teachers in IRI centres facilitate lessons that are broadcast on radio through the Educational Broadcasting Services (EBS). The subjects taught in these centres include Math, English, Science, Social Studies, literacy and Life Skills among others. The 2013 estimates put the number of teachers in these schools at 4, 868.

What is clear from the above information is that there are a number of role players in the provision of education following the liberalization of the economy at the dawn of the 1990s. To ensure there is some form of cohesion in education policy, partnerships and partnerships as opined by Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004) and Pollitt and Bouckaert (2011) had to be formed. Further, All these partnership were brought in sync by bringing all the players under one department (education) as suggested by Gulick [1937] in Larsson (1990).

3.6 Organization of the Ministry of Education

With the dawn of decentralization, the management of the primary education sector was spread away from the centre (Headquarters) which saw some functions being performed by Provincial and District offices as well as the school boards.

According to GRZ (2012), the ministry's headquarters retains the responsibility for key national functions in terms of drafting legislation, planning at national level, formulating policies, mobilizing and allocating resources, developing the national curriculum, setting national standards, collecting and analysing of data and providing effective measures for accountability

From the national office, the Provincial offices are the next line in authority. There are 10 provincial offices in Lusaka, Southern, Copperbelt, North Western, Western, Central, Eastern, Northern, Muchinga and Luapula provinces. Each of these offices is headed by the Provincial Education Officer (PEO). The main responsibilities of the provincial education offices are linking provincial educational activities with the national office; coordinating and monitoring of policies at the provincial level; planning at provincial

level; controlling standards, and ensuring effective and sustainable use of financial resources (Kelly, 1999).

The National Implementation Framework (NIF) of 2007 also provides for the existence of District Education Office, headed by a District Education Board Secretary- DEBS (MESTVEE, 2014). According to Kelly (1999), the District Education Board is composed of the DEBS, who is the ex-official, five members of the local community, two representatives of the teacher unions in the district, a representative from the proprietors of grant aided schools, four head teachers-one from a secondary school and the rest from primary/basic school and two representatives of the Parent-Teacher Association (PTA). Among the responsibilities of the District Education Office are implementing policy on basic education; mobilizing resources; planning of programs and projects and managing effective mechanisms for the use of financial resources. And from the district education offices, the hierarchy of authority proceeds to individual schools through the school head teachers or school managers.

The organization of the MoE clearly flows in some form of a hierarchy as opined by Weber [1921] in Sager and Rosser (2009) and Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004) as this encourages accountability. Further, as suggested by Kotze (1999) and Gulick [1937] in Larsson (1990) there should be an identifiable unit of administration and in this case, all provinces and districts have administration units that can be identified by the public.

3.7 Summary

Chapter 3 has covered the mission of the Ministry of Education which has to do with providing education in a non-discriminatory manner as well as the responsibilities of the

ministry which among others include policy organization, planning, coordination, development of teaching and learning materials, developing of human resources and mobilizing and managing of financial and material resources.

A number of legislative arrangements are discussed. For instance the education Acts (1966, 1991 and 2011) that saw the abolishment of the duo system of education, assisted in the transition from the colonial system to self-rule first, and from the socialist to the liberalized system second. Further, these pieces of legislation facilitated for formation of PTA which to some extent encouraged participation. Further, the chapter discusses policies put in place to guide access to education. For instance re-entry and focus on learning policies promoted the access of education to groups that were initially disadvantaged as well as promoting partnerships respectively.

The later part of the chapter outlines the role players in the delivery of education, with the government, through the MoE playing a central role. There are, however, other role players such as the private sector, the communities and Faith Based Organizations (FBOs) among others. The last part of the chapter discussed the organization of the MoE. In the next chapter (chapter 4), the author presents and analyses the findings with regards to communication, authority relationships and organizational resources and how these factors related to coordination of service delivery.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the institutional, legal and policy framework surrounding the provision of primary education. It looked at the various laws and policies as well as institutions that provide primary education. The purpose of this chapter is to present and analyse the research findings. The chapter is segmented into three major sections with each of the three sections being in line with the three major variables in this research which are communication, authority relationships and organizational resources. The initial part of the chapter presents the school profiles and the environments in which the schools operate. The chapter then delves into the details of communication, the challenges found under communication and some measures put in place to improve this aspect of organizational coordination. The chapter then discusses the findings on authority relationships and the major challenge raised in that regard. In the later part, the chapter discusses findings on resources which have been segmented into financial, human, teaching and learning as well as infrastructure. This is then followed by the measures put in place to deal with some of the challenges arising from the issues surrounding resources.

NOTE: For the purposes of this study, the words head-teacher and School manager are used interchangeably.

4.2 School Profiles and Environments

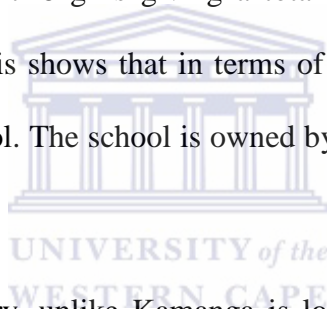
4.2.1 *Kamanga primary school*

Kamanga Primary School is located within Kamanga compound, about 15 kilometres (KM) east of the capital city Lusaka. The school was initially established as a tavern and bar by an individual who later sold the premises to the African National Congress (ANC). The ANC used the premises as a camp for the freedom fighters. The ANC then handed over the premises to the community with the view of turning the institution into a community school. The community, together with the Irish Aid worked to transform the premises into seven class rooms and two offices. By 1994, Kamanga was gazetted into a middle basic school with a total number of 17 classes. 2012 estimates indicate that the school had 2000 pupils, with a deficit of 17 classrooms and an average progression rate of 30 Percent. Like Kamanga, Kabulonga is classified as government owned school (Kamanga Basic School, 2014).

According to Moonga (2011), Kamanga is a high-density residential area, divided into two parts namely, new Kamanga and Old Kamanga. While the new Kamanga was planned, the old Kamanga is an unplanned settlement and home to some 15,000 people. Kamanga Primary is located right inside the unplanned settlement. The majority of people living there are the working class, low-income earners. This environment definitely has an impact on the performance of the school.

4.2.2 Kabulonga

On the other hand, Kabulonga Basic School is in the urban area of Lusaka city. It is situated in Kabulonga residential area in Lusaka Central Constituency, about 12km South East of the town centre. The School was donated by the government of Japan to the Republic of Zambia in December 2000 as a token of friendship and co-operation between the two countries. The school has 16 permanent classrooms for lessons, one staffroom, one Information Communication Technology (ICT)/Computer studies room, and 2 special rooms for Home Economics (HE) and Expressive Art. The school has an Administration Block and 6 Blocks of Sanitation Buildings. Currently the school has a population of 852 boys and 748 girls giving a total of 1 600 pupils with an average progression rate of 85%. This shows that in terms of population, Kabulonga is smaller than Kamanga primary school. The school is owned by government (Kabulonga Primary School, 2015).



However, Kabulonga Primary, unlike Kamanga is located in a low-density residential area, mostly occupied by the middle and high-income earners. It is home to a number of small up market shops and a shopping mall. The residential area is properly planned and has one of the lowest crime rates in Lusaka (International School of Lusaka, 2013). The fact that Kabulonga primary is in a location where there are high earning residents has implications for the management of the school that make the school different from Kamanga, these implications are discussed in the later sections.

4.3 Communication

This section deals with the aspect of Communication. It addresses the findings on communication, some challenges where communication is concerned as well as the measures put in place to counter the challenges. As Lossee (1999) suggests, communication is very important in any organization if coordination is to be achieved. Organizations adopt various means of communication and/or communication strategies to ensure that relevant and up to date information is circulated throughout an organization within a specified period. The thesis covers some of the communication strategies and procedures used by the two schools under study. These are discussed below

Table 1 provides a summary of the findings with regards to communication platforms used by the schools.



Table 1: Communication Platforms used by Schools

Form of communication	Kabulonga	Kamanga
Staff Meetings	√	√
Briefs	√	√
Register Memos	√	X
Notice Boards	√	√
Emailing	X	X
Informal Communication	√	√

√=Mode used by school

X=Mode not used by school

Source: Author's own illustration based on field data

From Table 1, it can be noted that the schools used almost similar means of communication. The school manager for Kabulonga, when asked if the school had defined communication guidelines responded:

The only in house communication guideline we have is the reporting structure. We have pupils report to their grade teachers, the grade teachers report to their heads of section. The head of section reports to the deputy. However, if the deputy is not around the head of section can report directly to the head teacher. In the primary school, the teachers report to the senior teachers (Interview with School Kabulonga primary manager, 14 December 2015).

The manager for Kabulonga further said the form of communication used in a particular instance is also dependent on the nature of the information being transmitted. So the mode of communication depends, for instance on the urgency of the information. The manager said for instance that before the school opens, there is a full staff meeting held where a number of issues are discussed relating to what happened the previous term and what should be done in the new term as well as addressing some of the queries which could be raised regarding the previous term(s). Apart from the full staff meeting, another avenue for communication is briefings, which occur when there are urgent issues required to be communicated. These briefings are often held during the break time so that teachers are not disrupted. The School Manager for Kabulonga further indicated that if there is information needed for particular individuals he uses memorandums. For instance, this could be done with members of staff who may not have submitted annual appraisals among other things. The memorandums are then given to the office assistants and the addressees are supposed to sign confirming receipt. In other words, registers with names of teachers and space for signing are attached to the memos. The school manager further said that at the end of every term, a closing staff meeting is held where all issues

relating to ending the term are discussed. When asked if he felt the communication strategies were effective, the School Manager for Kabulonga said:

yes they are but you see the danger is that if one of them in the chain takes time to react the whole system collapses, that's the danger of not allowing for informal communication. Because the moment you say pass through this, the other person might not pass the information. So to answer the question; it is relative, it is effective to some extent and ineffective to another extent (Interview, 14 December 2015).

The manager also emphasized how much he encourages informal communication as it is the means through which certain catastrophes can be avoided. This form of communication has also been highlighted in Table 1. The fact that some pieces of information could be urgent or confidential compels managers to agree to informal communication. Likert (1989) is among the writers who argue that managers who support rapport with their subordinates tend to be more successful.

In a similar vein, two teachers from Kabulonga primary responded in the affirmative when they were asked about whether or not the communication strategies used in the school were effective. One of them responded, “they are very effective.” The other teacher, asked whether they had any communication challenges within and outside the school said, “no we do not because the head teacher is usually helpful” (Interviews, 14 December 2015).

The responses above suggest that Kabulonga primary does not have communication challenges at all. However, a closer analysis of the communication strategies revealed that there actually are communication challenges. For instance, when the head teacher was asked about the existence of an institutional or school strategic plan, he responded in the affirmative, saying there was a strategic plan which had been running from 2010 to

2015. However, when the teachers were asked about the existence of the strategic plan they indicated they had only heard about it. One of the teachers was asked if he knew of the strategic plan by the school and his response was, “I was not in administration last year so I wouldn’t know, but I hear it is there, only that I have not availed myself to it” (Interview, 14 December 2015). The teacher was further asked if he knew the contents of the plan and he said he had no idea what was contained in it. This scenario shows that the communication of the school’s vision is not properly done and this definitely has an impact on the efforts to coordinate an organization. The other teacher also stated, “yes I know there is a plan, they usually mention it in the meetings to say there is a plan but I have no idea of the content of the plan.” This scenario is an illustration of communication breakdown because while the head teacher can explain the plan and its priorities, the other stakeholders have no idea of the content of the plan. Mullins (2007) opines for instance that for every organization to achieve unity of purpose and to avoid role ambiguity, the plans championed by the top leadership are supposed to be communicated properly to the subordinates. This has not been done at the school.

Some similarities were noticed at Kamanga where communication is concerned. For instance, the school manager said that the school relies a lot on staff meetings as a means of relaying information to the other members of staff. Another similarity was the manager’s tolerance for informal communication. For instance, when asked if he allowed for informal communication between him and the other staff, the manager for Kamanga primary stated:

very much, because I am a trained counsellor myself and I do offer one to one and we also have a guidance teacher who offers the other members of staff informal and/or personal advise (Interview, 5 January 2016).

However, the Manager added that other means of communication are also used to communicate as he emphasized that the school had an administration team in place as a means of communication. This channel makes use of senior teachers in place who represent the administration team and the school insert provider who also coordinates and provides academic guidance, and in the process he collects information from the pupils and the teachers and feeds the information to the administration. When asked about other means of communication used, the head teacher said that the use of memorandums was highly practiced. The memorandums are stuck on the notice boards for all departments, namely, lower section, middle section and the secondary section. Alternatively, heads of sections are summoned and information is communicated to them, which in turn is communicated to the lower ranks of the school hierarchy. This shows that there is no one best way of communication but that information can and should be transmitted based on some contingency factors (Lossee, 1999).

Further, just like at Kabulonga, the teachers at Kamanga said they felt that the communication procedures internally were very effective. One teacher from Kamanga for instance, when asked about the communication procedure said she communicates through the immediate supervisors, who in this case are the senior teachers. However, in the case at Kabulonga, communication disjuncture was noticed in the administrative structure of Kamanga because none of the teachers in the school knew the contents of the school's annual plan (Interviews, 8 January 2016).

According to an interview with Lusaka District Education Planning Officer (18 December 2015), at the district level, memorandums and telephone communication are largely used. When asked if Lusaka District Education Office had any guidelines governing communication, the District Officer said the office had a directory with all

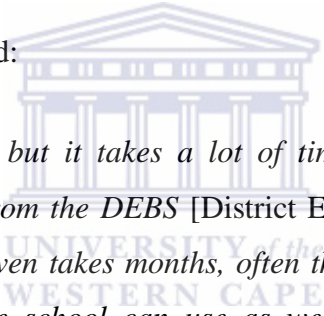
head teachers' names and contacts so they could contact them directly. Alternatively, information is relayed only to the Eight Zonal Heads who in turn communicate to the other heads. The district education office further has a deliberate policy where it expects all schools to develop strategic plans aligned to the district's plan. However, it was discovered during the study that Kamanga primary did not have a strategic plan, instead it had annual plans. This is another case of inconsistency.

The situation at Kamanga where they do not have strategic plans as per the requirement from the district office could be one of the reasons why the school is performing badly as evidenced by the progression rates. Kotze (1999) argues that effective coordination can only be achieved when all levels of the organization are aware of the goals and objectives being pursued at a particular time. While the situation at Kabulonga is better because of the school's conformity with the district office's requirements, Kamanga primary has no medium term plan whatsoever. Further, the fact that the objectives of the school plans are not known to the teachers in both schools makes it difficult for the schools to be united in action. Additionally as the Marxists suggest, communication should not be limited in an organization based on rules, formalities and hierarchies (Haralambos, 1985). In a similar vein, the management by assuming that their subordinates know the objectives of the schools could have a direct impact on the productivity of the schools, especially school B which has completely no strategic plan.

Comparatively however, Kabulonga primary has a better communication strategy. As can be observed from table 1 above, the school has a register attached to the memos. This enables management to hold accountable those who do not read memos. This in turn makes possible coordination of efforts and partly explains why Kabulonga is performing better than Kamanga when it comes to outputs as is evidenced by the

progression rate. On the other hand, the case at Kamanga leaves loopholes through which members of staff can give excuses like they did not see the Memo. The practice of ensuring that employees sign for communication has been widely accepted in most performing organizations (Finance Bank Zambia, 2012).

Under communication, the major challenge was that of external communication. In the interviews with respondents from both schools, it was observed that internally, the communication procedures put in place by both schools were relatively effective. Be that as it may, there is a problem when it comes to external communication. External communication in this case refers to the communication that takes place between the schools and the district education office. For instance, in an interview on 8 January 2016 one teacher at Kamanga stated:



we do get responses but it takes a lot of time for you to receive the response especially from the DEBS [District Education Board Secretary] office. Sometimes it even takes months, often the school just has to come up with measures the school can use as we await the response from DEBS.

Similar sentiments were recorded from the Manager at Kamanga primary when he said it took too long for DEBS to respond to concerns raised by the schools. He however suggested that the district education should consider reviewing the establishment levels at the district office so that the feedback procedures could be sped up by ensuring that there are more people to attend to queries from the schools (Interview with the Head, Kamanga primary 5 January 2016).

Issues surrounding communication have been dealt with differently in the different spheres of primary education management. At the district level, the district education

office communicates directly with the head teachers. Alternatively, the office communicates with the Eight Zonal heads who in turn relay the information to the head teachers (school managers) within their zones (Interview with District Education Planning Officer, 19 December 2015). Complaints however especially from Kamanga primary emerged that there is usually slow response rate for information coming from the top (District office) to the school. For example, in an interview on 8 January 2016 a mentioned the delays in information processing at the District office tends to make the feedback obsolete as the responses take several months at times. This bureaucratic style of administration promotes inefficiency.

At the school level there are a lot of measures that have been put in place by the two schools. For instance both schools encourage meetings as a means of communicating. The use of Memorandums and Short Messaging Service (SMS) has also been adopted by the schools. This shows that communication in the education sector can be improved by embracing ICTs.



4.4 Authority Relationships

This section looks into the issues of authority relationships as well some challenges in this regard. It considers how teachers, School managers and district officials interact in the delivery of primary education in Lusaka district.

The findings show that at the district level, the Head teachers report directly to the District Education Board Secretary (DEBS) who is the top most education official in the district. The DEBS then reports to the Provincial Education Officer (PEO) who in turn reports to the Permanent Secretary at the Ministry of Education headquarters in Lusaka.

In the District, the DEBS is assisted by Zonal Heads. There are eight Zonal Heads in Lusaka district. The zonal heads often act as links for communication between the DEBS and the Head teachers. The zonal heads also act as means of coordination among schools (Interview with District Planning Officer, 18 December 2015).

At the school level, there is a standard structure by the Ministry of Education. The structure shows some of the positions that have to be in all schools although the establishment levels may vary from school to school. For instance, all the schools have a head teacher (school manager) and a deputy head. From the deputy head teacher, there are senior teachers and these together make the administration team (Ministry of Education, 2005). However, as discussed below, some features are added to the organization structure to enhance coordination within the school settings. For instance, below the senior teacher level, the school managers have developed some positions in the administrative structures for administrative and coordination purposes. For example, when asked about the internal communication and reporting structure, the manager for Kamanga primary said:

We have the school insert provider who also coordinates and provides academic guidance, in the process he collects information from the pupils and the teachers and feeds to the administration (Interview with School B manager, 5 January 2016).

This implies that for the purposes of coordination, the insert provider acts as a channel through which the administration team receives information and feedback from the sub-system (the class room). This position can be likened to the integrator espoused by Lawrence and Lorsch (1984) where the authors suggest that one of the ways of ensuring coordination is by introducing a position in an organization whose main purpose is to ensure coordination and unity of purpose.

The authority structure at Kamanga is not very different from Kabulonga where the Head teacher responded, when he was asked if he had any staff assisting him in coordinating the school:

what I have done is I have created a position for head of section for a person who is in charge of all grades eight and nine and their teachers. So he tries to group them in other sections such as languages home economics and so on. But since there is no position in the salary structure, we put the head of section in the bracket of management as a means of motivating him/her (Interview, 14 December 2015).

The head teacher for Kabulonga also gave an example of how he utilizes his head of section saying he delegates to this officer the function of enrolling and orienting grades eight and nine. What can be derived from the initial statement is that there is need to have, within the school salary structure, a salaried position for head of section. All the teachers on the other hand said their roles were clearly defined and they knew who to report to. It was however noticed there was no coordination when it came to the implementation of the School strategic plans as teachers in both schools expressed ignorance about the contents of the plans and their roles and responsibilities in implementing them. It can be noted from these systems that encourage duplication as espoused by Learner and Miranda (1995) and Landau (1969) have not been embraced. Instead, the school structures minimize repetition and duplication as a way of enhancing efficiency. This approach has been highly supported by Lawrence and Lorsch (1984) and GAO (2011) who argue that having repetitive positions in an organization structure lead to nothing but inefficiency.

When asked if they receive support from their superiors when there is need, all the teachers interviewed responded in affirmation that they always get the support of the

superiors. Simply put, both school managers have the attitudes needed to support their subordinates and this can be closely related to system 4 managers suggested by Likert (1989) who argues that system 4 managers are very flexible, approachable and highly supportive. This is further supported by the fact that all the teachers and the two school managers agreed that the school managers provided for and facilitated informal communication in the two schools. The managers further allowed the teachers to make decisions on issues that were deemed minor as well as some major issues with or without the consent of the school managers. For example in an interview with a teacher at Kabulonga primary on 14 December 2015, the teacher said he is allowed to decide on who and when to punish as well as participate in departmental budgeting.

In this case, the difference in the performance can be attributed to the interface between the schools and the external environment (communities) they operate from. For instance, part of Kamanga primary's underperformance is attributed to the fact that the community in which the school is located is dominated by poor people whose interests in the education of their children are relatively low (Moonga, 2011). In an interview, a Teacher at Kamanga stated:

we give pupils assignments and exercises but parents do not help them at home. And that derails the progress in the learning of the pupils. For us to help the child there has to be a good relationship between the parents and the teachers. But when we give homework the parents come to tell us that we are lazy (Interview with teacher at Kamanga primary, 8 January 2016).

This challenge of lack of support from the learners' parents is not the case at Kabulonga primary

The challenge under authority relationships as noted by the Head teacher for Kabulonga is that the channel through which the district strategic plans are meant to be implemented makes it difficult for the school to tailor it to their own needs and environment. The manager said that the district office, by giving one framework of the plan to be adopted by all the schools in the district defeats the whole purpose of planning because it restricts the schools from customizing their plans to suit their needs (Interview with Kabulonga primary manager, 14 January 2016). The scenario of the complaint by the Kabulonga primary manager can be linked to what Kotze (1999) refers to as *domination*. She explains domination as being a situation where one part of the bureaucratic system dominates the others, a situation that impedes coordination. This is the same case, where, schools are compelled by the district office to produce their strategic plans without considering the fact that these institutions operate in different backgrounds the district office should make the frameworks broader so that they can be customized when being implemented at the school levels. Contingent organizational theorists such as David Hurst [1995] cited by Daft (2007) and Burns and Wholey (1993) argue that the way an organization is designed and/or organized depends on the environment it operates from. It is therefore cardinal that the District education office allows the Schools to make their strategic plans while the district office gives broad guidelines.

4.5 Organizational Resources

This section of the chapter discusses organizational resources. In this research, the resource aspect involved financial, human, assets and teaching and learning materials in the possession of the schools and/or Lusaka District office. The main focus of the section

in this regard is to establish how resource distribution is done as well as analyzing the resource variations in the schools and the district at large. For every organization to function properly there is a need to ensure the availability of resources.

The distribution of the resources at the studied schools is summarized in table 2

Table 2: Resource Distribution

Resource	Kabulonga	Kamanga
H.R (Teacher: Pupil ratio)	1:32	1:33
GRZ grant/Quarter	K 1,000	K, 3000
Learning materials (Pupil: Desk Ratio)	2:1	2:1
Infrastructure (Classroom: Pupil Ratio)	1:84	1:118

Source (Own Illustration based on field data)

4.5.1 Financial Resources

Resource wise, both schools complained of financial constraints. According to an interview with the manager for Kabulonga on 14 December 2015, between the years 2010 and 2014 the average grant received by the school has been K1000 per quarter, a situation which makes education provision relatively difficult. While the education Act of 2011 provides for the grant to be given to primary schools since the declaration of free

primary education (GRZ, 2011), the grant can hardly sustain the school. The Head teacher for Kabulonga for instance illustrated:

we must be the lowest receivers of the grants because of the small numbers of the primary school pupils that we have. We usually have been receiving about K1,000 for a quarter yet we pay K1,200 to ZESCO [Zambia Electricity Supply Company], meaning, even the grant for three months cannot pay for electricity for a month (Interview with the school manager at Kabulonga, 14 December, 2015).

This logically follows that the grant, on a monthly basis could only be an equivalent of United States Dollars (US\$) 35. The fact that Kabulonga primary for instance pays an equivalent of US\$120 on electricity monthly means that even what they are given in three months cannot even foot an electricity bill for only one month. This is before other bills such as water and administrative costs are factored in.

The complaint about finances was also noticed at Kamanga primary where the head teacher said that they had been receiving a grant of K3,000 per quarter between 2010 and 2014 against 2000 pupils. The head teacher also argued that sometimes the grant does not come even for a year. Asked if he felt that resource distribution systems were fair enough in how they operate, the Head teacher said:

I don't think they are because primary education is free and so it should attract a bigger chunk of the budget and if it does, then even the school allocation should be seen, there must be a significant indication. Look at the K3,000, it cannot even cater for communication. I am expected to communicate with my zonal heads and the DEBS office but I am constrained already because of resources (Interview with Kamanga Primary manager, 5 January 2016).

Even in the face of the above mentioned situation, Kabulonga is able to perform better than Kamanga primary. This means that Kabulonga primary has a better plan of how to use their finances. In other words, through its strategic plan, Kabulonga primary has a list of priorities which tend to address its areas of interests. For instance, when interviewed on 14 December 2015, the head teacher for Kabulonga mentioned that in the strategic plan, top on the priority list was the need to equip the school science laboratory so as to improve the performance of learners in science-based subjects. Kabulonga primary also charges higher school fees due to its location, something that Kamanga primary cannot do because the latter operates in a place where people are relatively poorer. This implies that the location of a school plays a significant role in its ability to raise financial resources.

On the other hand, Kamanga primary has no strategic plan and this could be the reason it is unable to properly utilize the little resources at its disposal. Having no strategic plan as confirmed by the school manager (Interview 5 January 2016) implies that the priorities are hard to set. This situation could be slightly related to what Illich (1970) suggests that while finances might be meagre, it is largely about how they are used. As such, it takes the will to use the finances properly. As can be observed from Table 2, Kamanga primary receives more money (K3, 000) than Kabulonga (K 1,000). To this end, Kamanga primary might have to set priorities through consensus, so that finances are channelled toward meeting the priorities of the strategic plans.

Some measures have been put in place at different levels to mitigate resource challenges faced by the Ministry of Education. When it comes to financial resources, the approach that has been used to equalize the distribution is the coming up with a *formula* which is used to share the grants among government schools. According to an Interview with a

District Education Official (19th December 2015), the formula used to share resources involves multiplying a specific rate with the number of primary students. Going by the information provided by the manager for Kabulonga primary school (Interview, 14 December 2015), a school with 622 primary pupils receives an average of K 1,000 per quarter. This figure gives an approximate amount of K1.62 per pupil per three months. Symbolically, this would roughly be expressed as:

$$K1.62 \times \text{Number of primary school pupils} = \text{Quarterly Grant}$$

While the formula provides for fairness and equity in financial distribution, the rate of about K1.6 per student is seen as being too low to sustain the operations of the schools and subsequently improve the delivery of primary education. According to the interviews with the School Managers, both schools did not sustain themselves through the grant given to them by the Ministry of Education. To survive, the schools have to enrol grades eight and nine pupils who pay school fees and to a large extent keep the schools running. The Manager for Kabulonga primary, according to an interview on 14 December 2015 stated:

we cannot survive if we depended on a K 1,000 and so we survive through the school fees from grades 8 and 9. These grades literally run the school.

Similarly, the Manager for Kamanga primary during an interview on 5 January 2016 mentioned that the grant could not run the school and so just like Kabulonga, the school has to rely on charging fees to children in grades eight and nine. This situation shows that lack of funding from the government has resulted in primary schools diverting from their core duties of providing primary education to grades one to seven.

4.5.2 Human Resource

On human resource, it was noticed that there were variations in the teacher-pupil ratios between the schools. Kamanga primary have 60 teachers against 2000 pupils (Kamanga Primary School, 2014). This translates into an average teacher-pupil ratio of 1:33. However, in practice there are teachers with larger classes than this ratio. A closer analysis revealed that some teachers at Kamanga primary were teaching about 65 pupils in a class. This situation shows that some teachers are relatively free while others take classes that are always over crowded. In his admission, when asked if he felt he had too many teachers in the school, the Head teacher of Kamanga observed:

We have excess fat sometimes where you have some teachers who only have 5 periods a week. I feel the establishment levels for this and many other primary schools should be re-visited. But you see, there is a lot of interference on transfers from the higher offices because i don't need all these teachers (Interview with Manager for Kamanga primary, 5 January 2016).

The above mentioned observation shows that Kamanga Primary has an uneven distribution of workload among the teachers and this raises questions of equity at the time of remuneration/rewards. This also explains why rural based schools often have higher teacher-pupil ratios

At Kabulonga, the teacher-pupil ratio remained at 1:32 between the period 2010 and 2014. The head teacher for Kabulonga is comfortable with the number of teachers the school has 50, with all of them being properly utilized. The complaint that coordinating 60 teachers was not manageable for him explains why Kamanga primary's performance is lower than that of Kabulonga in terms of progression rates which stood at 85 percent for Kabulonga and 31 Percent for Kamanga. The manager for Kamanga primary seems

to be having problems monitoring and fully utilizing his teachers and this explains why despite having a relatively low pupil teacher ratio, the school has continued to fail to perform.

When it came to qualifications, the teachers were all trained and qualified. However the shortage of teachers for Information Technology (IT) was noted in both schools (Interviews, 2015 and 2016). IT was introduced without prior training of teachers and distribution of materials and this, to a large extent shows failure to plan on the part of the MoE.

To address human resource challenges in terms of recruitment, the schools inform the District Education Office of the need for staff. Once that happens, the district office, through the human resource department compiles and recruits the needed teachers. In times when the district office cannot, the Provincial Education Office (PEO) recruits. The District Education Planning Officer responded when asked what guidelines were in place to manage the distribution of teachers:

For distribution of teachers, usually the human resource would come up with the list of schools that are in need of teachers and sometimes that is even done at central administration, that is, the headquarters. But of course as the district office we know which school is in need of more teachers for instance and in which areas (interview with District Education Official, 19 December 2015).

In as far as the district education office is concerned, whenever there is need in the schools, for teachers, the teachers are availed to the schools. While the situation seems normal at the district office, the situation on the ground (in primary schools) is rather different. Based on the interviews with the head teachers, the schools lacked teachers of technology. Furthermore, the School Manager for Kamanga primary noted:

We have excess fat and I feel there are too many teachers here, more than we need. Why can't these teachers be taken in schools that really need teachers? But at the end of the day, you realize that there are forces outside the school and even the DEBS which lead to the overcrowding of some teachers in schools (Interview with Manager, for School Kamanga primary 5 January 2016).

The above situation connotes placement problems where some schools tend to have too many teachers while others have a few or no teachers at all. This signals maladministration, nepotism and corruption because the “forces outside the school and even DEBS” connote a group of individuals with personal interests in the manner transfers are done. This situation at the end of the day impedes the struggle for fair and equitable education delivery. A lot still has to be done to ensure equitable distribution of the teaching staff.

Additionally, the quest to address the shortages of teachers in some subjects, which saw the introduction of the fast track programs at the University of Zambia (UNZA) and Copperbelt University (CBU) has been considered by many as being a step in the direction of reducing the shortages surrounding science teachers (Interview with School manager, for Kabulonga 14 December 2015).

4.5.3 Classrooms

In terms of classrooms, the head teacher for Kabulonga primary explained:

we have 20 classrooms. Of these, one is the staff room, one is the computer room, one is an art room and the other one is a home economics room. In other words they are specialized rooms, meaning

there are 16 class rooms (Interview with Kabulonga primary school manager, 14 December 2015).

It thus follows that there are 16 classrooms against 1,350 pupils and this gives a classroom pupil ratio of 1: 84. Conversely, Kamanga primary has 17 class rooms against 2000 pupils resulting in a classroom pupil ratio of 1:118. (Interview with Kamanga primary school manager, 5 January 2016). These figures show a huge disparity between the two schools' infrastructure deficit. This situation shows overcrowding and this affects the access to primary education. The fact that Kamanga primary school is located in a high density residential area makes it worse. This implies that primary education delivery is more difficult in high density areas than in lower density places. This has also been worsened by the fact that Kamanga primary school does not have a library (Interview with School manager, 5 January 2016) and only a makeshift structure under construction to serve as a library.

The information above reveals that School B is relatively more constrained when it comes to infrastructure. A pupil class room ratio of 1:118 is way too high. This situation further affects the performance of Kamanga primary as evidenced from their low progression rate (30%). This rate simply means only 30% of the candidates who write an exam are able to progress to the next grade.

The problem of infrastructure has had its effects also felt by teachers at Kamanga primary school who said overcrowding makes it difficult for teachers to perform their duties. Teachers are unable to offer individual attention to pupils or conduct some remedial work because they lack the place (building) to do such things. In this case, the phrase remedial work was used to describe all activities done outside the normal class hours to aid students that need special care and/or attention (Interview with Teacher at

Kamanga primary, 8 January 2016). On the other hand, a teacher at Kabulonga said he is able to attend to individual pupils because the number 42 is not bad for him to handle (Interview with teachers at Kabulonga primary School, 14 December 2015). These differences tend to account for the differences in the output of the schools. This situation is similar to what Lawrence and Lorsch (1984) call *product inconsistency*. They argue that product inconsistency refers to a situation where products and services lack uniformity, for instance in quality.

4.5.4 Teaching and Learning Materials

Teaching and learning materials are in different forms. The most common teaching and learning materials are desks, chalk, and class rooms (Kabulonga Primary School, 2015). On desks, both schools explained they had enough desks and were not lacking other things like chalk. For instance, the Head teacher for Kabulonga primary said they have a pupil desk-ratio of 2:1. This means that they have enough desks since the desks seat two pupils each (Interview with school manager for Kabulonga, 14 December, 2015). The same was the case with Kamanga primary where the ratio is also 2:1. According to the interview with the Manager for Kamanga primary (5th January 2016), there is actually an excess of desks as he said:

we always have enough. We used to have that [desk] challenge 5 years ago before government procured new desks but it is now a thing of the past. In any case, we have an excess of desks that sometimes we even have to donate to the community schools within the vicinity

This means that during the period 2010 and 2014, there has not been any challenge with desks in the schools. Similarly, there has not been a challenge with chalk for both schools.

There was however a serious shortfall of books in both schools and this was acknowledged by both the school managers and the teachers in the two schools. While there is a shortfall of books in other subjects, the major problem with reading resources was faced in the technology subject. The fact that Information Technology (IT) was a new subject and books were not delivered posed a major challenge to the provision of primary education in the two schools. The severity of the problem was noted during an interview on 5 January 2016, with the head teacher for Kamanga primary who stated:

teachers are teaching without these important tools. Some of them are too costly; others are not even there so how our teachers are managing we don't know, especially IT, it is like a teacher has to teach from his head.

Similar sentiments were made by a teacher at Kabulonga primary, who, when asked whether teaching resources were provided for him to teach said:

in that case I can say yes and no because there are some that are provided and others that are not provided. And for those which we cannot find, especially for IT we have to go as far as the internet to access some information (Interview with a teacher at Kabulonga primary, 14 December 2016).

Another teacher from Kabulonga mentioned that it was hard for her to prepare the pupils for examinations because the lack of text books made it impossible for her to shape her lessons according to the new syllabus. This has in turn affected the manner in which primary education is being provided.

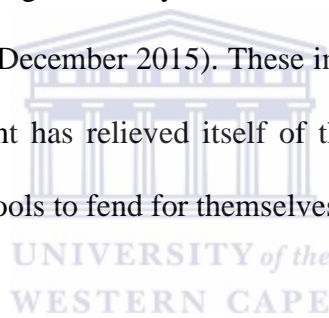
Kabulonga primary is still able to perform well because it has been able to improvise. The school relies on the internet to search for temporary materials to used in teaching the young learners (Interview with Kabulonga primary school manager, 14 December, 2015). On the other hand, as mentioned by the Kamanga primary school manager, management has not taken keen interest in knowing how the teachers are managing hence leading to poor performance (Interview with Kamanga primary school manager, 5 January 2016). This implies that the materials used by the teachers at Kamanga primary are not scrutinized by management to assess their usefulness in addressing the plight of the pupils.

To handle the challenges of teaching and learning materials, the District Education office has come up with a database from which all materials held by the schools are listed. All the schools are listed in the database with their inventories clearly written. The database also shows the materials being received at the district office and subsequently, each school's material needs analysis is done by the planning department which determines how much of the materials each school will get. This is the case with desks and books (Interview with District Education Official, 19 December 2016). However the shortage of Information Technology materials has adversely affected the delivery of primary education. According to the interviews conducted at both schools, there are no books for IT while the District Education Office says the materials were in the process of being distributed.

When it comes to infrastructure, the schools themselves have to come up with the plans of expanding and/or maintaining infrastructure after their establishment. The measures that have been taken by the two schools largely point to Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs). For instance, the Manager for Kamanga primary revealed that the school has

partnered with the 'Lions Club of Munali' that have been undertaking various projects in the school. He cited one of the most recent as being the erecting of a temporary shelter to be used as a library. The lack of a library has also been affecting the performance of the school (Interview with Kamanga primary school manager, 5 January 2016).

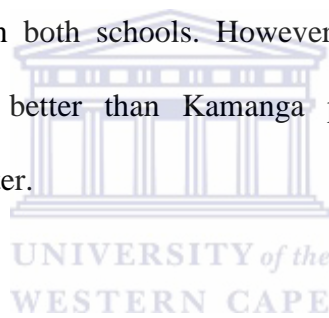
In addition, there are bilateral arrangements where other governments help in establishing structures in primary schools. For instance, Kabulonga Primary school was established and built by the Japanese government as a present to Zambia. These measures have been coupled with many others whose main aim is to increase access to primary education, such as partnerships with parents under the Parent-Teachers Association (PTA) (Kabulonga Primary School, 2015; Interview with Kabulonga primary school manager, 14 December 2015). These initiatives however seem to suggest that the Zambian government has relieved itself of the responsibility to provide basic services as it encourages schools to fend for themselves.



4.6 Summary

This chapter has discussed the findings of the thesis with regards to communication, authority relationships and resources. The chapter shows that when it comes to communication, both schools use similar avenues for communication. These avenues include staff meetings and memos. There are minimal internal communication challenges within the schools. Communication problems however exist between the schools and the district education office. To mitigate this, the district office has put in place Zonal heads to act as intermediaries. On authority relationships, there are no major challenges. However, the lack of a strategic plan for Kamanga primary means coordination is in

disarray and there is no base for unified action among the teachers. The case is similar to Kabulonga primary where the teachers do not know the contents of the strategic plan. This implies that both authority relationships and communication are prone to ambiguities. The major challenge in line with authority relationships is the propensity by the district office to direct what should be contained in the strategic plan. This in turn affects the plans for the schools because they have different needs in their respective environments. This also has an effect on the delivery of primary education. This is because schools are compelled to address aspects that are not their priority at that particular point. Resources are a contested issue. Both schools have financial and human resource challenges although Kamanga primary is the worst hit. Reading materials for ICT are also a challenge in both schools. However, Kabulonga primary school has managed these challenges better than Kamanga primary, leading to the former performing better than the later.



CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the conclusions and recommendations of the study. The Chapter is divided into three major parts. The first part segments the major findings according to the four objectives. In the second part, the thesis presents the summary of factors accounting for the differences in the performance of the two schools. These factors have been divided into internal and external. This part also presents the other conclusions. The last part of the chapter presents the recommendations which have been segmented into three parts; one for the ministry, one for the teachers and managers, and another for the parents.



5.2 Summary of Findings

This section presents a summary of the findings in line with the objectives of the thesis

The main aim of the thesis was to find out the challenges encountered in the coordination of primary education at Kamanga and Kabulonga primary schools of Lusaka city between 2010 and 2014.

The subsequent objectives were as follows:

- (a) To review literature on management and coordination of bureaucracies
- (b) To find out the legislative and institutional framework governing the delivery of primary education

(c) To compare management practices in terms of communication, resources and authority relationships

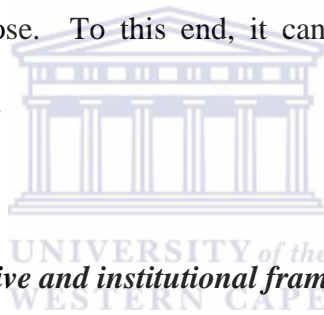
(d) To establish the measures put in place to coordinate primary education in Lusaka district

The extent to which the objectives have been achieved is explained below

5.2.1 To review literature on management and coordination of bureaucracies

This research objective was achieved. In chapter 2, a number of sources of literature were studied to understand in general, coordination of bureaucracies. It was established, based on literature, that there are different types of coordination. Coordination can be by *rules or programs*, by *hierarchy* or by *targets/goals* (Galbraith, 1969). Further, the literature review indicated that coordination has got requisites or things that should be observed if it is to flourish. According to Larsson (1990), coordination can only take place if there are a clear span of control, departmentalization and interdepartmental coordination. Kozte (1997) presents the features of good coordination such as a clear policy statement, objectives, interface between officials and representatives, an identifiable administrative unit, decentralization and job descriptions. Kozte (1997) also discusses the impediments to effective coordination as being domination, indirect costs, economy of affection, conflict of interests and incompetency. The review of the literature further highlights the effects of poor coordination as espoused by Lawrence and Lorsch (1984). The effects of poor coordination include interdepartmental conflicts, clashing schedules and product inconsistency.

The literature review also touched on the various design options that can be used to coordinate bureaucracies. The literature segmented the three major dimensions in organizational design. The first approach is coordination by duplication, redundancy and overlap suggested by Learner and Mirinda (1995) and Landau (1969). The second approach is coordination without duplication. This approach views any form of overlap as wastage (GAO, 2011; Lawrence and Lorsch 1984). The third and final approach is the contingency approach which argues that the method used to coordinate an organization is determined by the environment in which it operates (Daft, 2007; Burns and Wholey, 1993). However, this literature is based mainly on the experiences of countries outside Africa. There is little or no literature written in the African context and this is the gap that this thesis aimed to close. To this end, it can be argued that the above stated objective has been addressed.



5.2.2 To find out the legislative and institutional framework governing the delivery of primary education.

Objective number two was also achieved. To address the objective, the thesis allocated the discussion on the objectives to chapter three. The chapter discussed at length, the policy, legal and institutional frameworks. A number of issues were taken note of. These include the Education Act of 1966 is the foundation of the education sector in Zambia as it provides the mission and responsibilities of the MoE. These include component of the mission is that education should be provided in a non discriminatory manner. Further, there are other legislative arrangements that influence the provision of primary education. A close look at these laws shows how primary education has evolved. There was a duo system of education (one for Europeans and another for natives) which was

abolished. There are other laws such as the disabilities act meant to promote education among minority groups which were hitherto left out such as the disabled and the girls. The same goes for the re-entry policy and the gender policy. On the other hand, there is the focus on learning policy which promotes partnerships between the government and the other stakeholders such as the religious organizations, the private sector and parents. In addition, the findings show that there are a number of players in the delivery of primary education. While government plays the major role by coordinating resources, policy and curricula, there are different spheres of role players. Schools have been classified differently based on how they are run. Government schools are classified as *GRZ schools*. These schools are 100% owned by the state. *Grant Aided Schools* are those run by voluntary organizations such as churches but receive 75 percent of the capital costs of approved projects from the state. Further, *Private schools* are those established by individuals or private organizations. Finally, there is a class of schools called *community schools* which by definition refer to village schools which belong to the community and are organized, funded and run by the community.

In line with the above findings, it can be mentioned that objective number two was met.

5.2.3 To compare management practices in terms of communication, resources and authority relationships in the two primary schools

To achieve this objective, primary data and internal information were used. In terms of communication, it was learned that there are no specific guidelines prescribed by the District education office. To this end, the schools came up with their own communication strategies. While schools have got similar communication strategies which include staff meetings, use of notice boards, briefs and memos, School A has gone

a step further by ensuring that all memos issued are accompanied by registers that are signed by the teachers upon reading them. This has enabled the school to perform better because the communication strategy enables the school manager to identify who, among the teachers, has not seen the information being communicated. Although the teachers and managers in both schools said the communication strategies being used were effective, the findings indicate that the strategies were not very effective. This is because the teachers in both schools knew nothing about the strategic plan and annual plan of their respective schools.

On authority relationships, there are similarities as well. Both schools have created positions below the position of senior teacher for purposes of coordination within the schools. The positions are referred to as head of section for Kabulonga primary and Insert provider for Kamanga primary. Further, the teachers confirmed that their roles were clearly defined. However, Kabulonga still performs better as evidenced by the progression rate of 85 percent compared to 30 percent of Kamanga primary. This is because Kabulonga primary has a unifying factor around the strategic plan which Kamanga primary is lacking. For instance Kabulonga primary, based on the strategic plan is able to have specific goals in a specific time frame and this connotes leadership. Another reason why Kamanga primary is performing poorer than Kabulonga is interference from the district office. The manager for Kamanga primary mentioned that he had too many teachers, some of them doing relatively nothing yet the higher offices (DEBS and PEO) continue to bring teachers against his will. So the span of control is too much for him to handle as he is unable to monitor their performance

On resources, both schools have challenges in finances and IT books. However, Kabulonga primary has an upper hand financially for two reasons. The first is that

because it operates in a an area dominated by high income earners, the school management is able to charge high fees on grades eight and nine to keep the school going which is not the case for School Kamanga. The second reason is that Kabulonga has been able to tie its finances to a strategic plan, something school Kamanga primary has not done.

5.2.4 To establish the measures put in Place to coordinate primary education in Lusaka District

The findings in chapter four also addressed objective number four. It was established that to ensure information is communicated, various avenues have been put in place. These include staff meetings, briefings, notice boards and registered memos. Further, communication and coordination at district level has been coupled with creation of a Zonal head position.

For authority relationships within the bureaucracies, some positions have been created for administrative convenience. As a means of coordination of effort, a strategic plan approach has been taken with the mother plan being at national level, followed by provincial and district levels. These plans are then expected to be rearranged and adapted by the schools. The plans are five years. Additionally, the School Managers have promoted informal communication as a means of easing authority relationships.

To coordinate resources, the district office uses a formula for finances and databases for teaching and learning materials. The formula for finances multiplies a special rate by the number of grades one to seven pupils. On the other hand, the databases are maintained to keep resources such as desks, teachers and books. In addition, the schools get into

partnerships with other organizations, parents included especially on issues of infrastructure development.

5.3 Summary of Conclusions

The performance of the schools is affected by many factors. These factors are either intrinsic or extrinsic. The intrinsic factors include the following: the first is that strategic plans guide coordination of finances by setting specific priorities. Second, registered memorandums are better in a communication system compared to just sticking memorandums on the notice boards. This ensures accountability, leading to the avoidance of situations where members of an organization are not privy to certain information. Communication in bureaucracies, regardless of their size is important. Third, crisis management is important as it enables an organization to respond quickly and effectively to a problem. In this case, one school failed to handle the problem of IT teaching and learning materials while the other did nothing. Fourth, coordination cannot be done using a single approach. Instead it takes a multidimensional approach as it can be done through rules, hierarchy and programs.

As for external factors, they are as follows: First, the amount of financial resources allocated to an organization should be realistic if service delivery is to be effective. In the case of the schools, the grant of K1.62 per student per quarter is too low to run a school. Second, environmental factors affect the performance of organizations. In the case of the schools, the planning processes should be cognizant of the fact that schools operate in different communities hence them having different opportunities, priorities and challenges. Third, participation the participation of the beneficiaries of a particular service brings with it a sense of buy-in and the subsequent support from them. Fourth,

interference of higher offices in routine issues such placement and transfers, overshadows the chance of optimal utilization of human resources. This is because with interference, some schools will have more teachers while others, especially rural ones will have fewer. In addition delayed communication among components of a system can lead to poor service delivery. This case, delays in communication between offices at district and school levels have affected coordination in an adverse manner.



5.4 Recommendations

The following are the recommendations to improve the coordination and delivery of primary education

5.4.1 *The National, provincial and District Levels of the MoE*

- Increase the rate/amount of money allocated to the schools per student so as to enable the schools increase capacity to operate and deliver education better
- As an alternative to the above, the ministry should consider coming up with an ‘equalizing grant’ so that those schools that are servicing poor or disadvantaged populations can get an extra amount of funding.
- Make follow ups on communication and ensure compliance in both administrative and academic functions of the schools. This would reduce chances of having some schools running without strategic plans and subsequently lead to a coordinated service delivery in the district.
- Improve feedback on communication with the schools.
- Deliver books on time and ensure there is prior planning before implementing changes to syllabi and/or curricula.
- Put on salary/allowance, other officials assisting in coordination of schools apart from the senior teachers.
- Give room to schools to determine their staff requirements without interference. In other words, the transfer policy should not favour urban schools while depriving rural ones
- Introduce performance contracts for school managers

- Train more teachers of IT and science
- Come up with deliberate expansion programs for school infrastructure to keep up with growing populations.

5.4.2 School level

- Make strategic plans while encouraging participation so as to get buy-in from all members of staff.
- Tie strategic plans to resources with clear objectives and priorities as well as timelines.
- Encourage more partnerships with private sector and parents especially in areas of infrastructure development.
- Standardize and scrutinize materials being used by teachers when teaching IT
- Use means of communication that will hold members of staff accountable such as memos with registers
- Use best practice lessons to improve the lesser performing schools so that head teachers can visit each other's schools and learn how they can improve.

5.4.3 The Parents

- Participate in all decisions that need their participation
- Use the PTA meetings as means to hold the school accountable so as improve primary education.
- Support children in their academic tasks at home

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Burns, L. and Wholey, D. (1993). 'Adoption and Abandonment of Matrix Management Programs: Effects of Organizational Characteristics and Inter-organizational Networks.' *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 36. No. 1.106-138. Available online at <http://amj.aom.org/content/36/1/106.short>. Accessed on 12/08/15
- Deutscher, I. (1969). 'The Roots of Bureaucracy.' *The Socialist Register*. London: Merlin
- Esau, V. M. (2006). 'Max Weber's Bureaucracy: A Structure or Obstacle to Improved Service Delivery?' *Journal of Public Administration*, vol. 41 (1), pp. 47-60.
- Galbraith, J. (1969). 'Organizational Design: An Information Processing View.' A revised Version of the Sloan School of Management Working Paper No. 425-69: Massachusetts University of Technology
- Jawale, K. (2012). 'Methods of Sampling Design in the Legal Research: Advantages and Disadvantages.' *Online International Inter Disciplinary Research Journal*, Vol.2. No. 6. Available online <http://www.oirj.org/oirj/nov-dec2012/23.pdf>. Accessed 02.08.2015
- Landau, M (1969). 'Rationality and the Problem of Duplication and Overlap.' *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 29.No. 4. Available at <http://www.jstor.org/stable/973247>. Accessed on 4/07.2015
- Lawrence, P. and Lorsch, J. (1984). 'New Management Job: the Integrator.' *Army Organizational Effectiveness Journal*. No 1. California: US Army Training and Doctrine Command. 27-34

Liebich, A. (1982). 'Origins of a Marxist Theory of Bureaucracy in the Critique of Hegel's Philosophy of Right.' *Political Theory*. Vol. 10. No.1, pp 77-93. Available at

<http://www.jstor.org/stable/190856>14.03.16

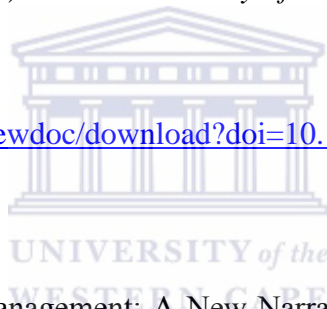
Likert, R. (1989). 'System 4: A Resource for Improving Public Administration.' *Public Administration Review*. Vol. 41.No. 6.Available at <http://www.jstor.org/stable/975744> .

[Accessed 02.06.2015](#)

Liu, C. and Mathews, R. (2005). 'Constructivism and its Criticisms Examined.' *International Educational Journal* Vol. 6 (3) 386-399. Available at <http://iej.cjb.net> 386 on 10.03.16

Miller, D. Y. and Dunn, W. N (2006). *A Critical Theory of New Public Management*. Available at

<http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.125.4697&rep=rep1&type=pdf> on 29/08/2015.



Stoker, G. (2006). 'Public Value Management: A New Narrative for Networked Governance?' *American Review of Public Administration*, Vol. 36(1), pp. 41-57. Also available online at <http://arp.sagepub.com> accessed on 28/08/2015

Styhre, A. (2008). 'Management Control in Bureaucratic and Post Bureaucratic Organizations: A Lacanian Perspective.' *Group and Organization Management* Vol. 3 (6). Available at <http://gom.sagepub.com> on 6/08/2015

Basu (2004). *Public Administration: Theory and Concepts*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers

Creswell, J. (2003). *Research Design: Qualitative: Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches*. 2nd ed. London: Sage

- Daft, R. (2007). *Organization Theory and Design*. 9th ed. Boulevard: Thomson Learning Corporation
- Du Gay, P. (2000). *In Praise of Bureaucracy*. California: Sage
- Durrheim, K. and Blanche M. (2002). *Research in Practice: Applied Methods for the Social Sciences*. Cape Town: UCT Press
- Gerth H.H. and Mulls, C.W. (2000). *From Max Weber-Essays in Sociology*. New York: Routledge
- Haralambos, M. (1985). *Sociology: Themes and Perspectives*. 2nd Ed. London: unwinhyman
- Henkel, R. (1989). *Christian Missions in Africa*. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer Verlag
- Illich, I. (1970). *Deschooling Society*. Cuernavaca: CIDOC
- Kelly, M. J. (1999). *Origins and Development of Education in Zambia*. Lusaka: Image Publishers
- Kotze, D. A. [Ed] (1997). *Development Administration and Management: A Holistic Approach*. Pretoria: Van Schaik
- Kvale, S. (1996). *Interviews: An Introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing*. California: Sage
- Lipset, M. (1969). *Revolution and Counter Revolution*. London: Heinemann
- Lipsky, M. (2010). *Street Level Bureaucracy: Dilemmas of the Individual in Public Services 30th and Expanded Edition*. New York: Russell Sage
- Lynn, E. L. (2006). *Public Management: Old and New*. New York: Routledge

Manheim, K. (1948). *From Max Weber: Essays in Sociology*. Oxon: Routledge

Michels, R. (1962). *Political Parties: A Sociological Study of the Oligarchical Tendencies of Modern Bureaucracies*. Kitchener: Batoche Books

Pollitt, C. and Bouckaert, G. (2004). *Public Management Reform: A Comparative Analysis*. 2nd Ed. New York: Oxford University Press

Pollitt, C. and Bouckaert, G. (2011). *Public Management Reform: A Comparative Analysis, New Public Management, Governance and the Neo Weberian State*. 3rd Ed. New York: Oxford University Press

Snelson P. D. (1974). *Educational Development in Northern Rhodesia, 1883-1945*. Lusaka: NECZAM

Central Statistical Office (2012). *The National Demographic Health Survey*. Lusaka: Government printers

Government Accountability Office (2011). *Opportunities to Reduce Potential Duplication in Government Programs, Save Tax Dollars and Enhance Revenue: GAO's Report to the Congress*. Washington: GAO

GRZ (1996). *The Constitution of the Republic of Zambia*. Lusaka: Government Printers

GRZ (1966). *The Education Act 1966*. Lusaka: Government Printers

GRZ (2011). *The Education Act 2011*. Lusaka: Government Printers

GRZ (2012). *The 2011 Annual Progress Report on the Sixth National Development Plan*. Lusaka: Government Printers

GRZ (2014). *Zambia: Educational Statistical Bulletin-2013*. Lusaka: Ministry of Education

IOB (2008).*Impact Evaluation: Primary Education in Zambia*. The Hague: Government printers

MESVTEE (2013).*Zambia Education Curriculum Framework-2013*. Lusaka: Curriculum Development Center

MoE (2004).*School Management Training of Head Teachers: professional Values and Human Rights*. Lusaka-Unpublished

MoE (2010).*2010 Educational Statistical Bulletin*. Lusaka: Ministry of Education

MoE (2010).*Review of the Re-Entry Policy*. Lusaka: Ministry of Education

World Bank (2010).*The education System in Malawi*. Washington DC: the World Bank

Bridge Span (2009).*Designing and Effective Organization*-Unpublished

Education Policy and Data Centre (2013).*Zambia OOSC Profile*. Available online at

http://www.unicef.org/education/files/OOSCI_flyer_FINAL.pdf. Accessed on 05/08/2015



Habitat for Humanity (2013).*Zambia, Country Profile*. Accessed online at

http://www.habitat.org/sites/default/files/Zambia_edited.pdf on 26.12.2015

International Bureau of Education (2000).*The Development of Education: National Report for Zambia*. Unpublished

International School of Lusaka (2013).*Students Guidelines*-Unpublished

Kabulonga Primary School (2010).*Strategic Plan-2010 to 2015* –Unpublished

Kamanga Primary School (2015).*School Profile*- Unpublished

Microsoft (2009).*The Encarta Microsoft Suit*

Moonga, C. (2011). *Environmental Problems Faced by Kamanga Unplanned Settlement of Zambia and the Role of Environmental Education-Thesis*, Unpublished

Patriotic Front (2011). *Party Manifesto*- Unpublished



APPENDIX I: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICIAL

Background

1. Date of interview.....
2. Start Time of Interview.....
3. Position Held.....
4. Gender of interviewee.....

Roles of the District Education Office

5. What are your roles/responsibilities as district office in the provision of primary education?

Guidelines for resource coordination/authority relationships

6. What guidelines do you use to decide which school gets what (teachers, money, infrastructure, learning materials, teaching aids etc)?
7. How are these guidelines formulated?
8. How does the Department ensure the guidelines are enforced and complied with?
9. What challenges, if any do you encounter in the enforcement of the guidelines?

Management Practices

10. Do you notice any differences in management practices between the two schools? 1. Yes [] 2. No []
If No skip to question 12
11. If yes, give some examples

12. What measures have you put in place to harmonize management practices?

13. What would you recommend to the other stakeholders as solutions to standardized optimal primary school performance?

Communication

14. Do you have any guidelines governing communication among the District office, the school management and the teachers? 1. Yes [] 2. No []

15. What are some of the guidelines governing communication???

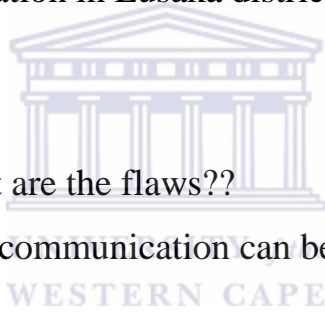
16. Are the communication channels/guidelines effective in facilitating the flow of information in Lusaka district primary schools? 1. Yes [] 2. []

If Yes, go to q 18

17. If No to q16, what are the flaws??

18. How do you think communication can be improved?

19. End time.....

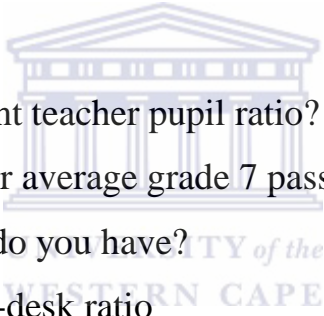


**APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SCHOOL MANAGERS
(HEADTEACHERS)**

Background

1. Date of interview.....
2. Start Time of Interview.....
3. Position Held.....
4. Gender of interviewee.....
5. Name of school.....
6. For how long have you been in the Ministry of Education in general and this position in particular?

School Resources

- 
7. What is your current teacher pupil ratio?
 8. What has been your average grade 7 pass rate from 2010 to date?
 9. How many pupils do you have?
 10. What is your pupil-desk ratio
 11. What is your pupil-classroom ratio?
 12. How much has been your average grant allocation between 2010 and 2014?
 13. Are the resource allocation guidelines for primary schools followed in allocating resources to your school?

Communication

14. Do you have any in-house communication guidelines? 1. Yes [] 2. No []
15. What are some of these guidelines?

16. Do you allow for informal communication between yourself and other members of staff? 1. Yes 2. No
17. Are the communication processes within the school effective? 1. Yes 2. No
18. If no to q17, what makes internal communication ineffective?.....
19. What could be done to enhance communication in the school?....

Authority Relationships/coordination

20. Have you had in-house institutional operating plan (s) or strategies between 2010 and 2014? 1. Yes 2. No
21. What have been some of your priorities in these plans?
22. Do you have departmental heads within the school structure that assist in coordinating the school activities and resources? 1. Yes 2. No
23. If yes, explain briefly how you utilize these departments in running the school.....
24. If No to q 22, explain briefly how you coordinate various school activities

Challenges

25. What are some of the challenges you face in running the school?
26. Do you have any in-house measures to counter these challenges?
27. How helpful are the district officials in sorting out the challenges?
28. What measures could be implemented to support primary education?
29. End time.....

APPENDIX III: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

Background

- 20. Date of interview.....
- 21. Start Time of Interview.....
- 22. Position Held.....
- 23. Gender of interviewee.....
- 24. Name of school.....

Teaching related processes

- 25. What grades do you teach?
- 26. How many hours in a week do you work?
- 27. How many pupils, on average do you have in a class?

Motivation, resources and communication

- 28. Rank your level of motivation.....
 - 1. Not Motivated at all [] 2. Moderately Motivated [] 3. Extremely Motivated []
- 29. Can you state the reason (s) for your option to [q9]?....
- 30. Are you provided with resources you need for you to perform you duties?
 - 1. Yes [] 2. []
- 31. If [no] to question 11, what resources do you lack in performing your duties?
- 32. What challenges do you face as a teacher in executing your duties??
- 33. How do you communicate these challenges?

34. Do you get response when you communicate them?

1. Yes [] 2. No []

35. What do you suggest could be done to reduce or avert the resource challenges you face?

36. What do you suggest could be done to reduce or avert the communication challenges?

Authority Relationships

37. Are your roles in this school clearly defined? 1. Yes [] 2. []

38. If [No] to q18, what are some of the roles that you find ambiguous?

39. Whom do you report to.....?

40. Do your superiors support you as you execute your duties? 1. Yes []

2. No

[]

41. If [No] to q 20, what are some of the circumstances where you need their support and you don't get it?

42. What do you suggest could be done to improve superior-subordinate relationships?

43. Are you allowed to participate in the decision making activities of the school? 1. Yes [] 2. No []

44. If yes to q24 how often do you participate in decision making activities? 1. Seldom [] 2. Sometimes [] 3. Often times [] 4. All the time []

45. Describe the nature of the decision making activities in which you participate

46. Do you know of an institutional operating plan or strategy in this school? 1. Yes [] 2. No [].....If no end interview..

47. If yes to q 24, are your roles toward the plans clearly stated?

Interview End time.....

