

**CO-ORDINATION OF EDUCATIONAL SERVICES FOR
VISUALLY IMPAIRED AND BLIND PEOPLE IN TANZANIA**

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**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF
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DECLARATION

I, **Edward Tinkamanyile Tibishubwamu Bagandanshwa** hereby declare, that this thesis is my own work, that it is original, and that it has never been submitted in part or in full to this University or any other institution of learning for any award, be it similar or different.

ABSTRACT

This thesis deals with the educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. Specifically, the study was an exploration of the national co-ordination system of these services. Co-ordination appears to be a new area in Special Education. Although it is not new in the management and administration of education mainstream, researchers in thought and practices in Special Education management and administration have not so far made it a priority. This study was an investigation of the co-ordination system in both the state and the private sector. It sought to explain the nature, the issues and relationships in the co-ordination system, and the forces underlying it. The study was carried out in Dar Es Salaam, Dodoma, Iringa, Mtwara, Singida and Tanga regions. Apart from exploring co-ordination in the regions, districts, institutions, government ministries and departments, charities involved in the provisions were studied as well. A total of 128 persons were interviewed, and 196 completed questionnaires. The sample was drawn from educational administrators, staff and executives of charities, social welfare officers, teachers and visually impaired and blind people themselves.

As a background to the services, the thesis presents the study findings on how the services were run. Findings on provisions, communication in the services, mechanisms of co-ordination, their effectiveness and the forces shaping them, are also presented. A discussion on these findings is also provided.

The thesis contains a chapter on the development of the services for visually impaired and blind people in which a fact file on Tanzania is included. Also included, is information about the establishment of these services, their growth and expansion as well as the prevailing placement models. Other chapters present the definition of the problem, the research design and data analysis. Finally, a summary, conclusions and recommendations are presented.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to you, my family, and all individuals who have committed their lives to championing the true course of visually impaired and blind persons. Your commitment, acceptance and positive understanding, has made it possible for me to achieve this.

For you all, I pray:

“May our Heavenly Father guide you, help you; may He give you more courage, protect you; may he give you strength, always stand by you; may He give you more wisdom, may He bless your commitment, and make it bear fruits; Amen.”

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EDWARD T. T. BAGANDANSHWA

LIST OF ACRONYMS

The acronyms in this study are as follows:

1. CBM: Christoffel Blinden Mission
2. DANIDA: Danish Agency for International Development
3. FAO: Food and Agricultural Organisation
4. ILO: International Labour Organisation
5. MCDWC: Ministry of Community Development, Women and
Children
6. MLDY: Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth
7. MOEC: Ministry of Education and Culture
8. O.A.U: Organisation of African Unity
9. RCSB: Royal Commonwealth Society for the Blind
10. SEC: Staff and Executives of Charities
11. SHIA: Swedish Organisation of the Handicapped for International
Aid Foundation
12. SIDA: Swedish International Development Agency
13. TASOTEHA: Tanzania Society of Teachers of the Handicapped
14. TLB: Tanzania League of the Blind
15. TSB: Tanzania Society for the Blind
16. U.N: United Nations
17. UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural
Organisation
18. URT: The United Republic of Tanzania

CHAPTER ONE

DEVELOPMENT IN THE EDUCATION OF VISUALLY IMPAIRED AND BLIND PEOPLE IN TANZANIA

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

This chapter traces the historical development of the educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. After you have read it, you should understand:

1. The brief history of Tanzania;
2. The historical development of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania; and
3. The provision models in Tanzania.

FACT FILE

The United Republic of Tanzania lies on the eastern coast of Africa. It borders with Kenya and Uganda in the north, Rwanda, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo (formerly Zaire) in the West; Zambia, Mozambique and Malawi in the south, and the Indian Ocean in the east. The country has a wide range of climatic conditions. They range from savannah, through tropical, coastal and temperate conditions, to equatorial climate. The vegetation of the country is a mixture of equatorial dense forests and tropical forests on the one hand, and the savannah and coastal bushes and shrubs on the other. Generally, the country is featured by lakes, rivers, swamps, valleys, ridges and

mountains. It is estimated that Tanzania has the population of about 28 million. Map 1 shows the United Republic of Tanzania.

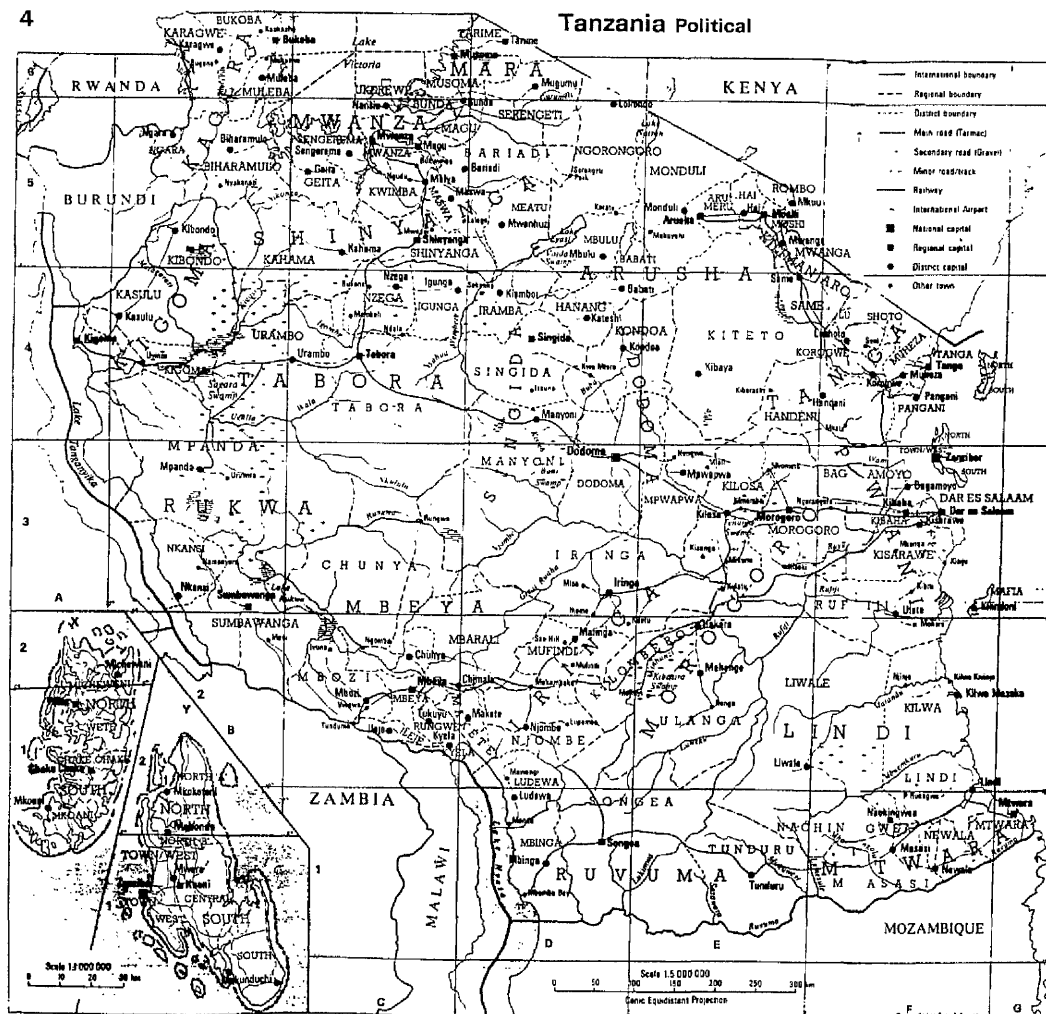
The United Republic of Tanzania can be referred to, in short, as Tanzania. This Republic was founded in 1964 through the union between the former republic of Tanganyika and the Republic of Zanzibar. Tanganyika, which today forms Tanzania mainland, was a British trusteeship territory until December 1961 when she became independent. She became a republic a year later. On the other hand, Zanzibar was a British protectorate. She became independent in 1963, and experienced a revolution in January 1964. Zanzibar forms the Tanzania isles part of the republic.

Tanzania joined the United Nations in 1962 as the 108th member. The United Republic of Tanzania is also a member of U.N's organizations like ILO, UNESCO, WHO, UNICEF and FAO. The country's code/abbreviation in international organizations is URT. The republic is also a member to a number of regional groupings. Tanzania was a founder member of the Organization of African Unity (O.A.U) in 1963. It is also an active member of Southern African Development Co-ordination Conference (SADCC), The Eastern and Southern African Joint Market, the East African Cooperation Commission, just to mention some.

The country has a democratically elected government. Government administration is done through ministries and departments. Today, there are about 17 ministries and 3 independent departments. For government operations, Kiswahili is the national language, and English an official language. The education system of Tanzania is that of seven years for primary education, six years of secondary education, and two to five years for higher education depending on the type of the course. The six years of secondary education are divided into four years of ordinary secondary education, and two years of advanced secondary education. In Tanzania, the education system encompasses special, primary, secondary, adult, teacher, higher and technical education. The inspectorate and educational planning are also part of this system. All these educational subsectors are placed under specific structures of administration in their respective ministries. Today, there are two ministries responsible for education in the country. These are the Ministry of Education and Culture, and the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher education (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1995; Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher education, 1995).

Primary education is compulsory, and universal to all children. Secondary education is optional. Pre-school education is not part of general education. As a result, it is in the hands of the Department of Social Welfare. However, it has remained a community responsibility and function for a long time. The school entry age is seven years. Primary education is the responsibility and monopoly of the state.

Payments were slowly introduced at all levels, beginning with primary education. Today, all students pay fees as the way of contributing to the cost of their education. Government loans are available for those in tertiary education (Ministry of Education and Culture, 1995).



In special education, the administrative structure is slightly different from that of general education. Services for disabled people are scattered into different ministries apart from the ministries of education. The Department of Social Welfare in the Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth is responsible for their vocational training. The ministries of education are responsible for their primary, secondary, higher and teacher education. There are operational policies that special education is an integral part of general education, and that integration is the form of service delivery to be in practice in the country.

However, special segregated institutions are still a practice in vocational training and primary education services run by both voluntary agencies and the state. While the Ministry of Education and Culture is directly involved in service administration and provision through its departments and institutions, the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology has left this responsibility to individual autonomous institutions in the private sector (Ministry of Education and Culture, In Press; Kristensen, Kristensen, Nyaga and Kisanji, 1991; Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology, 1995).

START OF SERVICES

The development of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania can be traced way back from the colonial

times. This does not mean that there were no services for them before. This periodization simply marks the beginning of the new era. It marks the start of the western type of services in the Tanzanian society. Before this period, the people of Tanzania had their traditional ways of caring and training not only their sighted persons, but also visually impaired and blind ones. Bagandanshwa (1993) found that in traditional Haya societies of northwest Tanzania, disabled persons did not lose their rights as human beings. They were, like anybody else in the society, entitled to all societal basic human rights of learning, respect, recognition and participation in community activities and functions. Bagandanshwa (1993) further found that in these societies, there were no separate special institutional services. Disabled persons (visually impaired and blind people for that matter), were the responsibility of their families like anyone and anybody of their sex and age. Their families cared for them, trained them in all life aspects, and ensured that they were integrated into the mainstream of the larger community. These family efforts were complimented by community actions and responsibility. Visually impaired and blind people were an integral part of the traditional Tanzanian society. They remained with their ascribed roles and positions in their families and their respective communities. Like anyone else, they could acquire, by merit, status and positions in society.

Although Tanzania is such a vast country with multi-cultural societies wrapped around tribal lines, all societies shared sentiments and

understanding of humanity and the essence of being. As a matter of principle, the system was characterized by tolerance, acceptance, responsibility and emphasis on teaching everybody societal norms and values, and the training in skills for every society member without any exclusion (Jonsson, 1985; Kisanji, 1995). Thus, the type of services established during the colonial period was a new form of services. They sought to erode and finally replace the traditional form of services.

Educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania started in the model of home and private tuition. People started to learn reading and writing in braille in their homes, and by private teachers. The first person to learn braille in Tanzania was Shedrak. Shedrak was taught braille by an Anglican British missionary woman, Mrs. King, at Berega Anglican Church Mission in Kilosa district in 1930. This was done out of compassion and arrangements between these two individuals. In 1932, the administration of the Diocese of Central Tanganyika of the Anglican Church sent Shedrak to Kongwa Bible School (the present-day St. Philip Theological College Kongwa), to teach catechist Paul Milangasii, who had just become blind, how to read and write braille. Although the learning of braille was still home bound and private, it started getting the institutional character at this stage. Up to this point the main issue was how to make specific individuals able to read and understand the bible on their own (Varley, 1996).

Impressed by the results, in the 1940's the diocese started sending visually impaired and blind people to the neighbouring country of Kenya, to the Salvation Army's Thika School for the Blind, for education. At this school, they learnt braille, the bible and other academic subjects. With all these efforts in place, the church was still faced by four problems. One, for how long would it continue sending people to Kenya for their education. Two, what to do with those coming back from Kenya after completing their education. Three, what to do with the visually impaired and blind population in the diocese. Four, the whole practice of sending people to Thika School was proving expensive. It was obvious that it would be more expensive as years passed. These problems haunted the administration of the diocese, and the search for solutions began (Varley, 1996).

In 1946, at Buigiri Mission, catechist Paul Milangasii taught a British sighted missionary from the Church Army Society, Captain Fred Varley, braille. From that time, Varley and Milangasii became more and more involved in preaching the gospel to visually impaired and blind people. During his holiday in London in 1948, Captain Fred Varley successfully convinced the Church Army Society that there was still another job to be accomplished in the Diocese of Central Tanganyika. He told the society that although the Diocese had schools meant for all children, visually impaired and blind people were not getting education. In an interview he said:

I frankly told the leaders of the society, that if we believe in equal creation by God, if we value all human beings as children of God, and if we believe that all people must have an opportunity to learn about Christ, then we should do something about visually impaired and blind people in Central Tanganyika being left out of education. (Personal communication with Varley,1996)

The conviction of the Church Army Society that a school for visually impaired and blind people should be built, was approved by Bishop Jones of the Diocese of Central Tanganyika in that same year. However, the school was not opened until two years later. In 1950 April, Buigiri school for the blind was opened. Captain Fred Varley became its first Head, and his long-term friend, catechist Paul Milangasii, was the first and the only teacher at the school (Varley, 1996). After the opening of the school, a number of problems emerged. These included financing, staff, shortage of pupils, teaching materials and what to teach. The diocese took responsibility of financing the school. This was done within the financial limits of the diocese, and the support it could rally from some individual donors. Various parishes and synods inside and outside the diocese donated money to run the school and expand it as the need for its services increased. The colonial government was not involved, and did not show an interest in the education of visually impaired and blind people. This population did not lie within its long-term policy of having quick returns from school leavers in the territory. Under this policy, the colonial government believed that people with visual loss were not economically worth investment. problems of staffing increased as the

school grew. It started with six pupils. As the number increased, it became clear that more teachers were needed. To avoid the cost of importing teachers, and to avoid retarding the process of training and developing local staff, the emphasis was put on having local people as teachers. As a result of this, the Tanzanian former pupils of Thika were recruited as teachers. The first to be recruited were Teretio Ngoma and Samuel Simba in 1952. By 1966, the number of teachers had risen to seven. Of these, five were blind and two sighted. Sighted teachers were trained in general teaching. Until the time of his retirement, Paul Milangasii provided supervision to other recruited teachers to ensure uniformity in approach and quality of work. Thus the model of teacher training was on-the-job training (Amasi, 1996; Isabu, 1996; Johnson, 1996; Varley, 1996).

Pupils were obtained through parishes. Church ministers were instructed by the Bishop to make it part of their duties, the task of identifying visually impaired and blind children, and making sure that they went to school at Buigiri. The Bishop communicated with other Bishops within and outside the Anglican Church about the school, and asked them to help in getting pupils for it in their dioceses. Due to this, the rate of enrolment shot up. Children from all over the country became enrolled at the school. This way, the problem of shortage of pupils was resolved. What had initially started as a small school for a district, suddenly became a national school and pride.

With learners available, the problem of what to teach was an immediate one. Christian teaching, handicraft and ordinary academic subjects, were taught. The purpose was to enable those enrolled to know the gospel, develop skills for an independent responsible adult life, and facilitate the possibility of visually impaired and blind people climbing to the top of educational pyramid.

The acute shortage of teaching materials adversely hit the school. Three ways were used to alleviate the problem. First, the long-time relationship between the Diocese of Central Tanganyika and Thika School for the Blind in Kenya, was used in minimising the size of the problem in short-term. Thika School agreed to support Buigiri School by contributing braille books to its stock. Thus, braille materials from Thika School for the Blind kept the work at Buigiri going while other options were being explored. Second, donations from different international organizations also helped in minimising the problem. The Royal Commonwealth Society for the Blind, the Church Army Society, the Royal National Institute for the Blind, the National Library for the Blind and the British Foreign Languages Bible Society (all of Britain), frequently donated braille books, materials and equipment to the school. Third, the staff at the school, and other interested individuals, were encouraged to prepare stories and teaching manuals, which with basic and supplementary teaching books in various subjects were sent to the Scottish Braille Press in Edinburgh for transcribing (Johnson, 1996; Varley, 1996).

EXPANSION OF THE SECTOR

From the mid 1950's, the sector of education for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania has been expanding and improving continuously. In 1954, the Tanzania Society for the Blind (TSB) was established. This was a charitable organization designed by sympathizers to exert pressure to policy makers, planners and administrators, to consider the plight of visually impaired and blind people in the country. At the same time, this organization supported and contributed to the provision of skills and educational services for them. The first concern of the organization was the means of integrating visually impaired and blind people into the expanding market economy, and to give the school-leavers of Buigiri School more opportunities. The answer was found in vocational training. As a preparation for the opening of a vocational training centre in the country, in 1955, TSB sent a team of four people (two of whom were blind themselves) to Bombay, India, for a one-year training in different vocations so that they become teachers in these vocations on their arrival home. In 1956, TSB opened the Manoleo Vocational Training Centre (the present-day Ruwanzari Vocational Training Centre) to train blind people in different vocations. The Centre offered training in weaving, agriculture, carpentry and telephone operation. People trained in Bombay, India in the previous year, became the founding teachers. After its opening, this vocational training centre was handed over to the Department of Social Welfare. This was the starting point of the government getting involved in the services for visually impaired and

blind people. Between 1956 and 1996, TSB built more segregated institutions and units for visually impaired and blind people in regular institutions, and hand them over to the government (Mindolo, 1996).

After opening the school, the time came for the Diocese of Central Tanganyika to consider what to do with its standard four school-leavers of Buigiri. There were no established special middle schools or special units above that level for them to go. This prompted the diocese to establish one. In 1957, the first blind learner Mr. Yohana Isabu joined Kilimatinde Middle School in Manyoni from Buigiri for standard five. Kilimatinde Middle School was also owned by the diocese. Hence, up to this point the education of visually impaired and blind people was a matter for the Diocese of Central Tanganyika. The Isabu affair made the diocese to advance a long-term solution to the problem of blind standard four school-leavers qualifying for a place in middle schools. In this move, the diocese's middle schools of Chamhawi (in Mpwapwa district today) and Kigwe (in the Dodoma municipality today) had resource rooms opened to accommodate visually impaired and blind students. From 1958 until 1967 when middle schools were abolished in Tanzania, that was the situation. When Yohana Isabu completed standard eight in 1960 and qualified for a place in standard nine, the diocese decided that he joins Dodoma Alliance Secondary School (the present-day Mazengo Secondary School), another church owned school. At the advice of the headmaster of Mpwapwa Government Secondary School Mr. Matthew Ramadhani, who was the delegate of

the synod of the diocese, the provincial commissioner of Central Tanganyika intervened and ordered that he joined Mpwapwa Government Secondary School. Yohana Isabu joined this particular school in 1961 as the first blind person to go beyond standard eight in the country. From 1961, Mpwapwa Secondary School has remained with a resource room for visually impaired and blind people (Amasi, 1996; Isabu, 1996).

In 1961, the Royal Commonwealth Society for the Blind (RCSB) sent its officer Mr Salisbury to Tanganyika to advise on the best possible system within which to educate people with visual impairments and blindness. Mr Salisbury recommended an open education system under which visually impaired and blind people learn alongside their sighted peers. This influenced and contributed to the opening of more resource rooms. It marked the start of expansion in integrated education in the country.

From early 1960's, the education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania has been rapidly expanding. Various denominations and churches throughout the country started opening special residential schools and resource rooms in regular schools for visually impaired and blind people. On the other hand, TSB was also opening and supporting resource rooms in different parts of the country. Today, there is at least one school for visually impaired and blind people per region in the country.

In 1965, Yohana Isabu joined Mpwapwa Teachers Training College as the first blind student. Since then, this college has continued to enrol visually impaired and blind people among its students (Isabu, 1996; Mindolo, 1996). In 1970, a big change occurred in the education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. The government declared that primary education was solely the responsibility and monopoly of the state. All primary schools in the country were nationalized. This put all private primary schools in the hands of the state. All integrated units for visually impaired and blind people in primary schools came under the state for the first time. However, the special schools of Buigiri, Furaha and Irente, were not affected because the policy was meant for regular schools only. Realizing the importance of co-ordinating well these schools, the government that very year of 1970, established a special education section headed by a social welfare officer in the Department of Primary Education in the then Ministry of National Education (Kristensen, Kristensen, Nyaga and Kisanji, 1991; Johnson, 1996; Mindolo, 1996).

As the government got more involved in this sector, it was faced head-on by a number of problems. First, there was a great demand for trained staff in the sector. Secondly, more visually impaired and blind youth were completing primary education while there were too limited opportunities for them in higher levels. Until that time, only Mpwapwa Secondary School was offering them a place for ordinary secondary education. Still, there were limits as to the number of

students with visual loss this school could take. Thirdly, there was an acute shortage of teaching materials: braille books, equipment and other facilities. Finally, each school used its own type of braille depending on the influence of the main donors of the school. The government undertook to solve these problems (Johnson, 1996).

To solve the problem of places in higher levels of education, two more regular secondary schools for ordinary secondary education were added to the list in 1972. These schools which joined Mpwapwa Secondary School in educating visually impaired and blind people at ordinary level, were Shinyanga Secondary School and Tabora Girls Secondary School. It was also decided that each of the three secondary schools admitting visually impaired and blind learners should admit five new students annually. This meant that 15 students with visual loss entered and finished ordinary secondary education level annually. In 1973, Mr Gabriel Muweru was admitted at Milambo Secondary School as the first blind student to enter advanced secondary education. Since then, the number of blind students gaining access to both ordinary and advanced levels of secondary education has increased. More secondary schools have been designated for them. To ensure that their proportion gaining access to secondary education also increases, all designated government secondary schools take seven new students with visual loss annually. Today, there are nine secondary schools with a resource room for visual impairment. Of these, seven are governmental and two are church owned. As a step towards granting visually impaired and

blind people access to tertiary education, the University of Dar Es Salaam registered its first two blind students to the degree courses in 1978 (Mindolo, 1996; Ministry of Education and Culture, In Press).

In trying to solve the problem of shortage of trained staff in the sector, the government adopted three approaches. One, in 1970, short teacher training courses were established in the country. A six-month course was designed and carried out at Buigiri School for the Blind. This course had two limitations. First, its intake was limited to three persons at a go due to lack of facilities and staff to run it. Secondly, it focused on the skills of reading braille, writing it and handicraft at the expense of other important aspects of the education and development of people with visual impairments. Issues of mobility, typewriting, pastoral care, teaching methods, management and administration, were left out. This approach continued until 1973, when it was ended after a more comprehensive one was drawn.

Another approach in teacher training for the sector was teacher training crash-programmes. These were programmes designed to give teachers already in the field some skills in the teaching of visually impaired and blind people. Such programmes were nationally drawn and carried out in the form of seminars in Tabora in 1971, 1973 and 1980. Experienced teachers of visually impaired and blind people from outside and within the country were brought in to man the programmes. Among these, were visually impaired and blind teachers. Usually, these programmes lasted for three weeks each. However, the

problem was how to teach many different aspects of education and development of people with visual impairments and blindness in such short programmes. It was obvious therefore, that a lot of these aspects were either given little attention or neglected completely.

The third approach to this problem was sending people to overseas institutions. People were sent to various colleges, universities and institutes in Malawi, Netherlands, U.K and the U.S for training. The fourth approach to this problem was the establishment of long courses for the teachers to work in the sector. Tabora Teachers Training College started admitting trainees on this category in 1974. This was followed by another approach of training personnel for the sector alongside other programmes. In 1982, the University of Dar Es Salaam started to teach a non-categorical special education course in the Education Degree course. This increased the number of teachers understanding the problems and issues of people with special educational needs in Tanzanian secondary schools (Kristensen, Kristensen, Nyaga and Kisanji, 1991; Johnson, 1996).

In solving the problem of teaching materials, the government entered into an agreement with SIDA to support the primary education of visually impaired and blind people in the country. This agreement led to the opening of the Tanzania Braille Printing Press in 1971. Since then, this press has been the national resource centre distributing equipment, tapes and other teaching materials to schools and colleges

in the country. Reference and supplementary readings are being transcribed and tape-recorded at this press.

To make sure that there was uniformity in braille use in schools and the country as a whole, the government sought to set standard braille for the whole of the country. The British English braille was adopted for English. The problem remained with Kiswahili. With the support of the RCSB, an international conference which involved the experts of the education of visually impaired and blind people in East Africa, was convened in Nairobi in 1970 to tackle the problem of Kiswahili braille in Kiswahili speaking countries. At this conference, an agreement was reached on Grade Zero, Grade One and Grade Two Kiswahili braille. The government adopted the Nairobi Kiswahili braille version for use in Tanzania (Johnson, 1996).

PROVISION MODELS

An official policy in Tanzania today, is that visually impaired and blind people should learn alongside their sighted peers. Thus, integration is the official practice in the country. However, different models of provision can be found in the country as follows:

1. *Special School Partnership* (Myen, 1978; Best and McCall, 1993; Kisanji, 1993). Two practices exist in this model. One, the special school sets up links with the neighbouring mainstream school. Under such links, children from the special school become integrated in classes in mainstream school, but with the support of teachers and

resources from their special school. Such an arrangement was between Irente Special School and Muhelo Primary school. Under the arrangement, pupils of standard five to seven from Irente learnt alongside their sighted peers at Muhelo Primary School. However, the practice came to a halt in 1972. At Pongwe too, pupils of standard one to four at Pongwe-Bweni Primary School were being educated at Pongwe-Ziwani. This practice also came to an end in 1976.

Two, the special school is a resource base for schools in the surrounding area. Itinerant teachers based at the special school go out to support visually impaired and blind children in mainstream classes. They use resources at the special school to carry out their duties. This kind of partnership is the backbone of itinerant services and support in ordinary classroom in the country (Wizara ya Elimu, 1985; Possi, 1986; Kadmon and Neustadt, 1992).

2. *The Special Segregated School Provision* (Kristensen, Kristensen, Nyaga and Kisanji, 1991; UNESCO, 1995). Visually impaired and blind people learn in segregated schools and institutions. Today, there are three primary schools and three vocational training centres of this kind in the country. All the primary schools are owned by the church while the vocational training centres are owned by the Department of Social Welfare.

3. *The Resource Room Provision* (Best and McCall, 1993; Kisanji, 1993; UNESCO, 1995). Under this type of provision, visually

impaired and blind learners learn alongside their sighted peers in integrated settings. They are principally the responsibility of the subject teacher. They are usually taught separately in special classes from standard one to three. The purpose is to give them basic skills like braille and mobility. After acquiring these skills, they become integrated in the ordinary class. Once in this class, they visit the resource room only to collect materials and for more support from a specialist teacher.

The resource room type of provision is the major provision model in Tanzania. It is used in twenty-two (out of twenty-five) primary schools in the country. The remaining three are special segregated schools. In secondary and tertiary education, this type of provision is the only one in use. It can generally be said that the development and expansion of the education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania progressed steadily through the partnership of governmental and non-governmental bodies, local people and visually impaired and blind people themselves. These persistently supported each other, and cooperated with each other whenever and wherever necessary to keep the services on course. Still, there is a lot to be done.

SUMMARY

This chapter presented a brief history of Tanzania and the historical development of the education of visually impaired and blind people in the country. The United Republic of Tanzania is in East Africa. It was part of the British Empire. It is a developing country. The educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania began in 1950 at Buigiri. This is the cradle of education for visually impaired and blind people in the country. From here, the spirit of opening schools for people with visual loss spread to other parts of the republic. At different stages in the development of this service, the contribution of visually impaired and blind people themselves is remarkable.

The government got involved in this education at a later stage. From the start, it was through cooperation between the voluntary agencies, the local people and foreign philanthropists, that the services thrived. The models of provision currently found in the country are special segregated schools, the partnership between a special school and the surrounding schools, and the resource room.

CHAPTER TWO

THE DEFINITION OF THE PROBLEM

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

This chapter presents the definition of the problem to be addressed in this study. After you have read it, you should understand:

1. The nature and purpose of co-ordination;
2. The co-ordination of education in Tanzania;
3. The problem;
4. The purpose of the study;
5. The significance of the study;
6. The research questions;
7. The definitions of various terms used in the study; and
8. Delimitations to the study.

NATURE AND PURPOSE OF CO-ORDINATION

Education is a right to everybody, disabled or not. Thus, it must be made accessible and enjoyable to all. Deliberate efforts must therefore be made to help every individual in the society to have access to education. The individual must also be helped to enjoy the educational process in which he or she might be engaged. To ensure the merger and the accomplishment of these two tasks of ensuring accessibility to education to all persons and ensuring an enjoyable education to all, a well defined and active process of integrating all the required inputs is

needed. This process can be referred to as co-ordination (Ishumi, 1978).

Co-ordination is one of the basic administrative functions. For any administrative structure, there are three main functions: planning, implementation of the plans and co-ordination. Planning is a process of setting organizational goals, objectives and the means of achieving them in accordance with the existing policies and resources. It is the process of prioritizing ventures and service. It is about decision-making (Koontz and Weihrich, 1990; 1994; Armstrong, 1995).

Implementation is the process of putting plans in action. It involves the total mobilization of resources for the achievement of the set goals and objectives. This process of mobilizing resources is co-ordination. In principle, every administrative function or task is an exercise contributing to co-ordination. This makes co-ordination the essence of administration. Indeed it can be added, co-ordination is at the heart of every administrative function and task. This means that an administrative structure and authority charged with co-ordination must be designed. Hence, the co-ordination of functions and activities in an organization starts with the setting up of the administrative structure.

The size of the structure normally depends on the scope of the services, the project, the size of the institution, resources and needs. For instance, the co-ordination task can be in a section, a division or in

a larger multi-structural entity like a department, a ministry and a government. The more complex co-ordination becomes, the more complex structures are needed to respond to the complex needs accordingly (Mosha, 1976; Koontz and Weihrich, 1990).

Co-ordination is a process of integrating various functions and activities. To be able to do so in an organization, co-ordination is characterized by a constant follow-up in the implementation of plans and decisions. It is mainly featured by allocation of responsibilities, the grouping of functions and activities, control, reward systems and decision-making. In allocating responsibilities, issues are who is to do what, when and how. This ranges from an individual to a section, a unit, a division or a department. It can also range from an organization in a particular subsector, to a subsector and a sector as a whole (Drucker, 1973; Mosha, 1976; Krammer, 1977; Child, 1984).

The grouping of functions and activities refers to an approach in carrying out specific responsibilities. Issues of what first, what next and what last; what should go together, and where should such functions and activities be carried out or performed, are dealt with. Under control, co-ordination considers the maintenance and improvement of standards in job performance and behaviours in an organization. It also works to establish the common means of accomplishing the common goal between relevant authorities and powers. Principally, co-ordination is the means of ensuring that there

is communication between authorities and powers in an organization, and that things do not run out of hand (Gregg, 1957; Mayo and Hornik, 1983).

Co-ordination is also about decision-making. Decision-making is at the heart of all administrative functions and tasks. Decision-making in an organization is about choosing from alternatives. Furthermore, it is a process of reconciling policies, goals and objectives with resources, demand and needs (Thompson, 1967). The outcome of a decision-making process is a binding conclusion known as a "decision". A decision therefore, is a rational choice from among the given alternative courses of action. As a conclusion, a decision is a formal settlement of conflicting ideas, issues and matters in the daily operations. As a result of this, decision-making is an important component of all co-ordination functions and tasks. This is because for co-ordination to be accomplished, a certain level of decisions must be made. The decisions made will mean choosing for an organization from the alternatives that represent horizontal effectiveness and those representing ineffectiveness (Child, 1984; Koontz and Weihrich, 1990; Blunt and Jones, 1992).

There are two dimensions of decision-making in co-ordination. The first dimension is that of decisions made as the co-ordinator gets on with job schedules. There are two types of decisions to be made in this dimension. One, instant simple decisions to make the discharging of

daily duties more effective. Such decisions do not involve the entire internal organization, neither do they change the established rules and objectives. They aim at making individual actions easier, quicker and effective, thus maximizing individual performance and the services provided. Two, complex decisions can also be made in this dimension. These can alter rules, regulations, objectives and goals. They can be made only when the co-ordinating structure has powers and authority to do so. When it has powers and authority to make complex decisions, delays are avoided because relevant decisions are made instantly. This has three implications on the co-ordinating structure:

- enhancement of job performance in co-ordination;
- acquisition of socio-political recognition and credit for effectiveness in service provision; and
- motivation of co-ordinators.

It is possible to make complex decisions in the co-ordination structures where those structures are autonomous bodies within larger entities. Since most of the co-ordination structures are not autonomous, it is very common to find them making simple decisions only, and opting for the second dimension when it comes to complex decisions.

The second dimension of decision-making in co-ordination is that of facilitating the decision-making process. Co-ordinators search for information about the internal and external changes relating to the services provided by their organizations. They keep records of

information about the required standards of performance, job behaviours, job trends, and the relationship between an organization and the environment. As part of decision-making, co-ordinators foresee the future of an organization in terms of effectiveness and marketability. Eventually, they advise decision-makers as to what best options in a respective aspect. Furnished with all the necessary information by the co-ordinators, decision-makers make appropriate judgments and decisions, basing on the information available, their own experiences, analysis and interests. In this dimension therefore, co-ordinators are not decision-makers. They are mere facilitators who depend on other administrators with powers and authority to make decisions for guidance and direction.

Whether the decision is simple or complex, there are two means of making it. It is either made by an individual or a statutory body. An individual makes a decision by the virtue of a position, job description, the powers and authority vested in the individual by set rules. A statutory body is set by the constitution or the statute of the organization. The deliberations of such a body are guided by stipulations in the constitution or the statute regarding the body; and the rules set by its higher bodies or those it sets itself to guide its deliberations (Mcgregor, 1960; Scott, 1992).

Co-ordinators help their organizations to design, implement and evaluate effective programmes of development by enabling them to know exactly the diversity and the complexity of the people involved

in these programmes, the social organizations and the contexts within which the programmes are carried out. To help their organizations effectively, co-ordinators study and understand the relationship between the services provided and the statute of an organization on the one hand, and the relationship between these services and the organizational policies, goals and objectives on the other (Kiddundu, 1991).

We can identify two features in the aspect of relating the services with the statute of the organization. First, an organization knows the nature of the people involved in its service programmes as well as the context of these programmes. In this respect, an organization tries to determine whether or not its job behaviours are corresponding well with the market behaviours. This helps it to adjust its job behaviours to the market behaviours. This can lead to minor or major alterations in the organizational administrative structure so as to cope with the market behaviours. Secondly, an organization introspects itself. It measures the services it renders, versus the reasons and the purpose of its formation, policies, goals and objectives. The issue is whether or not the services rendered are in line with the reasons and the purpose behind the establishment of the organization; and, if at all those services are corresponding well with the existing policies and goals. This enables an organization to expand the frontiers of its services so as to serve a more larger population; or, the organization can diversify the services by establishing new types of services. This self

introspection tendency brings an organization more closer to the people it serves by enabling it to review its standards so as to suit the diversities and complexities of the consumers or recipients.

For successful, effective and quality services, the co-ordination system of an organization creates and forms the liaison between an organization and the services it renders on the one hand, and other organizations and their services on the other. The information about the nature and the status of other similar or different services available in the community, tends to influence organizational development and health. On the basis of this information, an organization can redesign its management and service strategies when and where necessary (Kiggundu, 1991; Blunt and Jones, 1992).

Where an effective co-ordination system exists, the administrative and the service strategies are dynamic. This enables an organization to avoid being overtaken by issues and or events in its area of operation. This dynamism is desirable because the world is constantly changing. All human societies are rigorously changing so as to cope with the international situation. This two-level change is necessitating a change in the set up of organizations, both international and local. More connected to these changes, the mode of providing and co-ordinating services is changing so rapidly worldwide. It is this characteristic feature of constant changes in service development, provision and co-ordination that requires organizations to strengthen their abilities and

capacities of coping with this dynamism if they are to survive as acceptable and effective organizations.

It can generally therefore be said that co-ordination enables an organization to know the environment in which it operates. Also, it enables an organization to know well the actual needs of the people to be served. Co-ordination increases the ability and the capacity of an organization to predict and initiate change in the services it provides. Eventually, it enables an organization to structure its administration in such a way that it is able to manage the services effectively regardless of the changes that might frequently come in. Thus, effective co-ordination is the immediate means towards ensuring that the services provided are valid, acceptable, effective and continuous.

For co-ordination in an organization to be effective, all people involved in different organizational processes are subjected to personal commitment, self discipline and trust (Blunt and Jones, 1992). Policy-makers and planners, administrators and all the people in an organization, work together positively and understandingly towards integrating all the activities, functions and tasks. Whether or not an organization will flourish and its efforts to serve its consumers will bear more fruits, will depend on the nature and the quality of the services provided and their co-ordination. Both of these can be enhanced when all individuals in an organization are well committed to the organizational administrative structure and the services provided.

The commitment brings them together as a single disciplined force into the unity of purpose. This unity of purpose becomes the unifying factor among people working in the field. The unity of purpose leads to the emergence and development of a common trust among individuals.

It can generally be said that co-ordination in an organization seeks to establish the unity of purpose between all sections, departments and divisions. To do so, the administrative structural practices are used in inculcating personal commitment and self discipline on the job. Co-ordination seeks to establish the mechanisms for continuity in the administration of an organization. It establishes a common trust among different people and authorities for steady organizational health. It seeks to develop and strengthen sound relationships between an organization and the organizational environment. Co-ordination establishes a special kind of relationship between an organization and the population. Under this special relationship, the population trusts an organization and vice-versa.

At the sector level, Co-ordination establishes the unity of purpose between different subsectors in the sector. It fosters continuity in the administration of the sector as a whole. It leads to the development and strengthening of strategic management of the sector. Eventually, co-ordination leads to the establishment of the joint-care planning teams and the joint-care service provision field workers between different organizations and subsectors within the larger sector.

Co-ordination will normally bring together the budget-holders and the line-managers in the sector for the strategic management and administration of the sector. It provides an opportunity for different subsectors and organizations in the same sector to liaise with each other for the united action in the field. Principally, an effective co-ordination of services in a sector makes the services more effective and economical. They become standardized throughout the sector, and they acquire a pattern. In a larger sector, co-ordination inculcates commitment and self discipline on different subsectors organizations so as to achieve the policies, goals and objectives set for the larger sector (Walters, 1995).

Co-ordination mechanisms in a particular project, institution, subsector or a sector, is part of the original plan (Mosha, 1976; Krammer, 1977). This means that co-ordination is part of a larger process of planning and administration. Plans set goals as well as the means of achieving them. The immediate means with which to achieve goals, is administration. Administration is a wider process of implementing plans and decisions in an organization. As a process, administration encompasses specific functions and tasks. These are organizing, communicating, leading, supervising, decision-making, controlling, influencing, directing and evaluating. The combination of these tasks forms the bedrock for co-ordination. Within the administration process, administrative structures are designed to perform these tasks

(Thompson, 1967; Krammer, 1977; Child, 1984). Therefore, educational plans set educational goals to be achieved with effective educational administrative structures. If these educational goals are to be achieved, the co-ordination process must effectively integrate all educational subsectors for a common end.

The administrative structure can be seen at two levels. Level one is the administrative basic structure, and level two is the administrative structural practices (Child, 1984). The administrative basic structure is the delegation of responsibilities from the top to the bottom. People are divided into groups and allocated functions, tasks, resources, positions and status to implement plans and decisions. All the administrative functions and tasks in an organization are carried out in the administrative basic structure. The administrative basic structure provides the administration of an organization with an elaborate co-ordination structure and mechanisms from the top to the bottom. The structures and mechanisms take the form of job descriptions, organizational charts and the constitution of boards, committees, working parties, task forces and working teams depending on the circumstances and the nature of an organization.

The administrative structural practices consist of procedures or systems in which various administrative functions and tasks can be carried out. They are operational policies. They embrace the guidelines of getting work or responsibility fulfilled (McGregor, 1960; Koontz and

Weihrich, 1990). There are two types of administrative structural practices. These are the administrative structural operating mechanisms and the administrative structural ambit. Regardless of their difference, they both set clear regulations, rules and guidelines for organizational actions and operations. The administrative structural practices stipulate operational mechanisms in an organization. They strictly prescribe what is expected of various people, sections, units and or divisions in an organization.

The administrative structural operating mechanisms refer to performance procedures. They elaborate the guide to action in different organizational functions and activities. The good examples of the administrative structural operating mechanisms are standing orders, operational procedures, standards of performance, procedures for performance review, control procedures, reward and appraisal systems, planning schedules and communication systems.

The administrative structural ambit refer to the decision mechanisms. They connote organizational procedures of decision-making. The administrative structural ambit define levels of decision-making. With the administrative structural ambit, decision-making as an event in administration is associated with the availability of information to facilitate the event and the processing of that information to suit the needs of the decisions to be made. Generally, the decision mechanisms include programming of information, specification of the

stages in the decision-making process, standards for decision-making and the procedures for the evaluation of the validity of the decisions made. At this juncture, it is important to distinguish between policy making, administration and co-ordination in the context of this study. This is because these terms tend to overlap, and they are sometimes being used interchangeably.

A policy is the adopted statement of intentions. It is a principal course of action committing an organization to specific long-term goals. There are major policies and minor policies. Major policies are guiding policies. They represent wider intentions. They are the source of all organizational plans and decisions. They guide the development of organizational plans. Minor policies are operating policies. They represent approaches or procedures in actions. Thus, they are operational rules and regulations guiding the day to day activities of the establishment. Operating policies guide behaviours in the organization, actions and implementation of organizational plans. Usually, they compliment guiding policies (Dror, 1968). The stated intentions give direction to plans of action. Generally, there are two levels of policies. Level one is national policies. Level two is organizational policies. National policies state intentions at the national level, and give direction to actions in various national sectors, subsectors and organizations in the respective geo-political boundaries.

At both levels (national and organizational), policy making is a statutory responsibility because the statute of an organization stipulates and allocates powers and authority to different bodies and individuals in the establishment. This statutory responsibility helps to demarcate the separation of powers between administrators and managers. While managers make policies, administrators go-on implementing them.

Experience shows that there are three different ways through which national policies (whether guiding or operational), are made. First, policies are formulated through statutory bodies like the parliament. These follow specific legal procedures and deliberations. The implementation of the adopted policy rests in the hands of the executive branch of the government, specifically, the relevant ministry or ministries as the policy itself might require.

Second, policies are also made by political parties. In this case, the parliament may be called in to debate and ratify the policy so as to give it a statutory status. However, in most cases such policies are immediately adopted and put into practice by the executives even without the parliamentary approval. This brings us to the third means of policy formulation, the executive. A good number of policies is being formulated by government and organizational functionaries. In this case, an individual or group of individuals by the virtue of the position occupied, make policies. Policy making at the national level

is always the political question. Politicians are the main actors in policy making. This is because politicians normally determine the national destinies of their countries. In the process of policy making at the national level, politicians are the ones making things happen (Dror, 1968; Mayo and Hornik, 1983).

At the organizational level, there are two levels of policies operating. These are the national policies and the organizational policies. Organizational policies are the interpretation and adaptation of organizational goals and objectives to national policies. National policies are beyond the powers and authority of an ordinary organization. They emerge from the national organs. Organizational policies are formulated inside an organization. Their formulation is twofold: one, it is the responsibility of organizational constitutional or statutory bodies. Such bodies include the managing boards of directors, councils and committees, depending on the organization. Usually, the drafts of organizational policies are being presented to these bodies by the administration of the organizations for approval. Like in the case of national policies, the managing organizational constitutional or statutory bodies do not implement policies. Their implementation is the responsibility of the executive structure of an organization. These organizational constitutional and statutory bodies are always being kept informed about the progress in implementation. This enables them to review the policies and the administrative structure of an organization if necessary, so as to suit the needs of the

implementation process. Two, organizational policies are also made by organizational functionaries by the virtue of the positions they occupy, and the powers and authority they hold (Child, 1984; Morgan, 1986; Koontz and Weihrich, 1990).

The influence of national policies on organizational policies is dependent on circumstances. For example sectors in which the state has a monopoly, the impact of national policies on organizational ones is great. In such sectors, organizations are some of the means with which to implement state policies. In this situation, organizational policies compliment national policies. The situation is different in sectors where the monopoly of the state is mild. National policies though given consideration, they are secondary. They are mainly used to measure the legal foundations of the actions of organizations, or prospects of attracting state sponsorship or partnership.

The term administration denotes the efforts of organizing or mobilizing resources in the course of implementing plans in accordance with the stated policies. Administration involves two notions: the process and the structure. As a process, it refers to the act of organizing or mobilizing resources as the means towards achieving the set goals. In this notion, administration reflects the functional responsibility of the administrative basic structure. As a structure, administration refers to the structure in which the whole process of organizing and mobilizing resources is accomplished. It refers to the

administrative basic structure as a structure in an organization. In the administrative basic structure, all organizational functions (planning, implementation of the plans and co-ordination) are performed. These tasks are grouped according to various administrative functions and allocated in respective sub-structures within the basic structure for responsibility and accountability (Child, 1984; Scott, 1992).

The overlapping nature of co-ordination and administration is that co-ordination is one of the major administrative functions. Furthermore, co-ordination encompasses all administrative tasks of implementing organizational plans. Therefore, co-ordination is the major task of managers and administrators, and is carried out at all levels in the administrative structure, and in the administrative basic structure in particular.

As individuals within the administrative basic structure, co-ordinators are also administrators. However, the unequal distribution of powers and authority among administrators automatically set them in different cadres, shouldered with slightly differing responsibilities. According to Child (1984), the top leaders of an organization normally assume the role of managers and administrators, turning middle and lower cadre workers into co-ordinators. This means that the lower one is placed in the administrative basic structure, lesser and lesser powers and authority are delegated to him or her. On the other hand, the higher one is placed, more powers and authority are shouldered unto him or

her. This means that the top most individual in the administrative basic structure is the one with most powers and authority. This makes that person the chief administrator of an organization. As the chief administrator, the person becomes the centre and the source of direction, power and authority. This person therefore, becomes the chief co-ordinator.

CO-ORDINATION OF EDUCATION IN TANZANIA:

THE STATE OF THE ART

In Tanzania, education as a sector has adult, teacher, special, technical, pre-school, primary, secondary and higher education as its subsectors. Hence, education co-ordination in Tanzania will assume a general form at the sector level so as to achieve the general goals for education as a sector. At this level, there is a more general administrative structure known as the ministry. Because the sector was too large for one such structure, there are two ministries of education today. These are the Ministry of Education and Culture, and the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher education. A specific kind of co-ordination is found in each subsector so as to achieve specific educational goals set for each subsector. Save for special education which is only having a unit as its administrative structure, there are departmental administrative structures for each educational subsector in Tanzania (UNESCO, 1992; Possi, 1994; Ministry of Education and Culture, in press).

Every administrative structure in each of educational subsector is responsible for the administration, and therefore, the co-ordination of all activities and functions in that respective subsector within the larger sector of education. Thus, the special education unit in the Ministry of Education and Culture is responsible for the administration and therefore co-ordination of special education in the country. To be effective in its co-ordination activities, the unit is supposed to cut across departments.

One needs to know clearly the nature of the "cutting across departments" of this unit before establishing its effectiveness in coordinating special education. Where is the border-line, and what is the merger point between the unit and the line-departments through which it cuts across? What are the legal, normative and practical implications of the special education unit cutting across departments? These questions must be answered if we are to clearly understand the mechanism of co-ordination of special educational services in Tanzania.

According to the Ministry of Education and Culture (in press), special education in Tanzania can be described as being concerned with identification and assessment, community-based interventions, pre-school, primary, secondary, teacher, vocational, adult and higher education. This leaves us wondering whether or not the system ensures educational services for all disabled people without covertly or overtly

discriminating against some. Such a definition also brings us to other crossroads in terms of co-ordination. Special education components are scattered into various ministries apart from the Ministry of Education and Culture where the special education administrative unit is based. Higher and technical education are in the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher education. Vocational training for disabled people in Tanzania is in the Department of Social Welfare in the Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth. Also, there are literacy programmes for disabled adults in various rehabilitation centres run by this department. The implementation of primary and adult education is in the hands of local governments, which are very autonomous from the central government. Adult special education centres are in the folk development colleges under the ministry of Community Development, Women and Children. Pre-school education is legally in the hands of the Social Welfare Department, and has remained to be a community activity for a long time. Even within the Ministry of Education and Culture itself, special education services are scattered. They are in the secondary, teacher and adult education departments, let alone the special education unit under the office of Commissioner of Education (Institute of Education, 1984; Lynd, 1986; Mtukula, 1986). Although these departments in the Ministry of Education and Culture are responsible for the services they provide, the unit stands as an overall co-ordinator. Hence, special education services in Tanzania are a shared responsibility among departments and ministries.

The sharing of the responsibility of special education service provision to people with special educational needs is not the only concern. The issues of the effectiveness of the services provided, their provision system and their continuity are other important concerns. These can be achieved with proper co-ordination. Thus, it becomes necessary to study the patterns of co-ordination of educational services for disabled people in each government ministry and or, department, as the means of understanding the co-ordination patterns of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in the state sector of special education. Questions such as: *Are there any co-ordination structures for special education in each ministry and or, department? What are the mechanisms of co-ordination in each government ministry and or department? Is there any co-ordinating body for the educational services for visually impaired and blind people for the whole special education sector of the state? What are the co-ordination mechanisms at the inter-ministerial level? What is that being co-ordinated? What are the co-ordination linkages between ministries and the whole sector of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in the country?* Will help us to develop a viable understanding of the co-ordination system of these educational services.

Apart from the state sector of special education, there is also the private sector. The private sector of special education in Tanzania is characterized by the voluntary agencies, autonomous parastatal

institutions and interested individuals. The contribution of the private sector of special education to the development of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania is very commendable (Mujaya, 1982; Idara ya Ustawi wa Jamii, 1983; UNESCO, 1992). In this sector, there are special residential schools being run. There are special education units being operated. Community-based rehabilitation and community-oriented activities are organized; and, educational provisions in occupational and vocational skills are provided.

The problem might not be the existence of this private sector of special education in the country. It might be co-ordination. *Who is coordinating the activities and functions of the two sectors (state and private) of special education so as to ensure the unity of purpose? What are the co-ordination mechanisms? What is the effectiveness of these mechanisms? Who is the overall co-ordinator in the private sector? What are the mechanisms? What is to be co-ordinated in this sector?*

Answers to such questions may lead to proper understanding of the coordination system in these services. They may also lead to the establishment of a well defined co-ordination system in this subsector. The need for a formidable co-ordination system in the educational services for disabled people, and the need for understanding the forces underlying the co-ordination of the development and the provision of

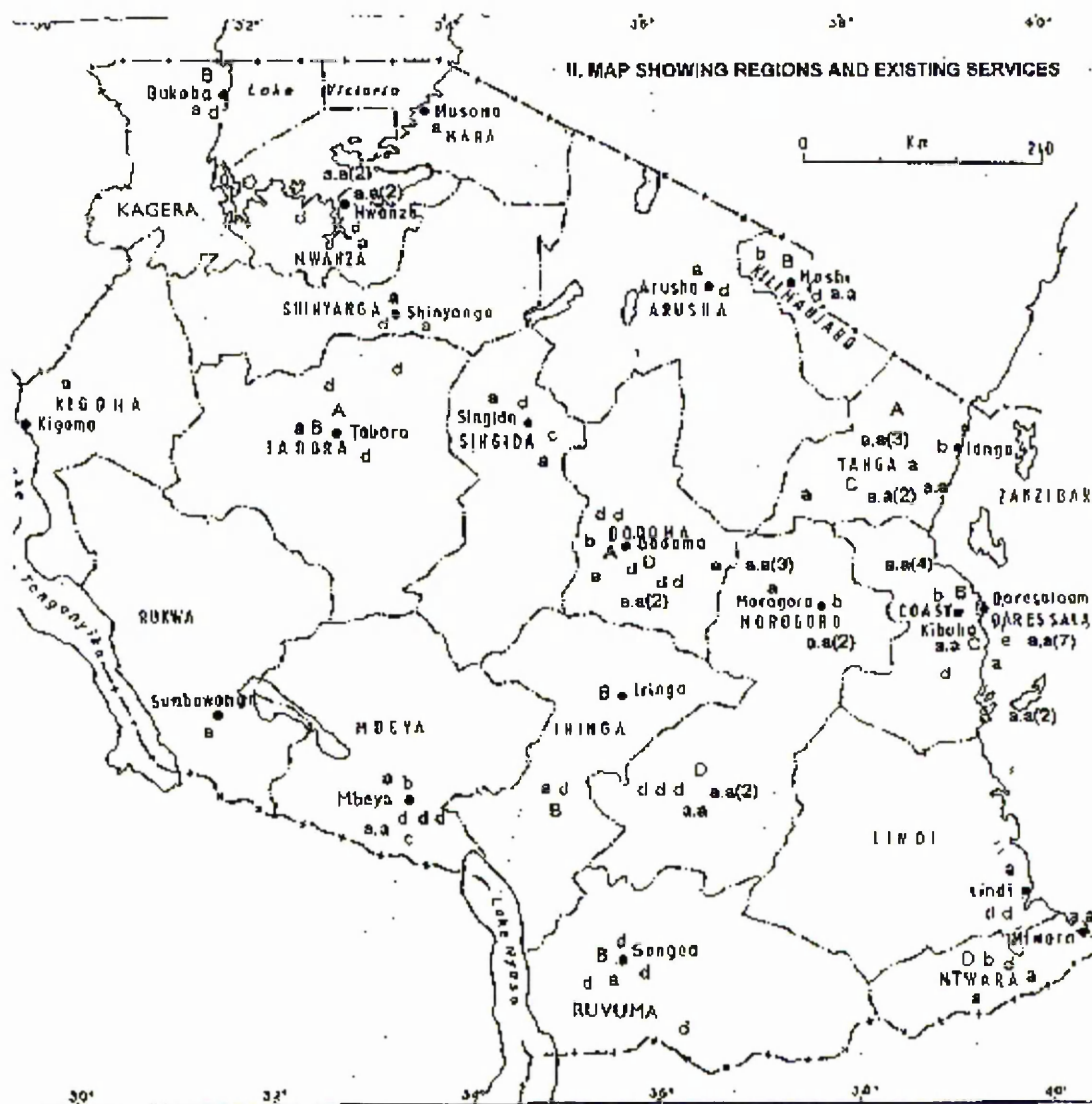
these services, necessitated a rigorous studying of the educational services for visually impaired and blind people.

Special education in Tanzania caters for visually, hearing, physically, mentally impaired and gifted people. For the purpose of this study, only the co-ordination of the educational services for visually impaired and blind people was studied. There were three reasons for this specification. First, the educational services for visually impaired and blind people were the first services to be established for disabled people in Tanzania.

Second, blindness is the category of disability more served if compared to other categories of disability in the country. Third, given the two reasons above, we expected the bodies in these services to be more experienced and organized (and therefore more effective in co-ordination) if compared to those in the services for other categories of disability.

Map 2 shows the available special education services in the country.

Map 2: AVAILABLE SPECIAL EDUCATION SERVICES IN TANZANIA



EXISTING SERVICES:

- | | |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| A. Special school for the Blind | a. Unit for the Blind |
| B. Special school for the Deaf | b. Unit for the Deaf |
| C. Special school for the Physically disabled | c. Unit for the Physically disabled |
| D. Special school for the Mentally retarded | d. Unit for the Mentally retarded |
| | e. Unit for the Deafblind |
| | a.a. Itinerant teacher(a) |

THE PROBLEM

This study aimed at contributing to the study and understanding of the co-ordination system in the educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. It sought to explain the nature, the issues, the kind of relationships in these services, and the forces underlying their co-ordination. The study also sought to explore the effectiveness of this co-ordination system, and the way the relationships inherent in it affected the aspired goals and objectives.

Educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania are meant to enable them to coexist in the educational system of the country. They signify the country's efforts to consciously involve every member in the act of being aroused and receiving new learning. These services turn the country's educational system into a "real" national educational system. A "real" national educational system is that which is "consciously" and "deliberately" practically equally shared and owned by all citizens (Ishumi, 1978).

In Tanzania, the educational services for visually impaired and blind people started in 1950. Since then, to a greater part, these services have given more emphasis to the western type of services. Today, there are services at pre-school, primary, secondary, tertiary, teacher and adult education. There are also services in community-based rehabilitation, vocational and occupational training, rehabilitation, assessment and support programmes (Institute of Education, 1984;

Ministry of Education and Culture, In Press). The main problems of these services might be their availability and accessibility to visually impaired and blind people; their efficiency in terms of delivery, their validity in relation to the educational, social, psychological and economic needs of visually impaired and blind individuals; the mode in which visually impaired and blind people coexist in them, collaboration systems and information circulation. In a situation where services to be delivered are so many and scattered over different structures, the issue that these services might be suffering from a more devastating problem of co-ordination raises a concern.

Thirty-four years after the first school for visually impaired and blind people was opened at Buigiri in Dodoma in 1950, the Institute of Education (1984: 54) wrote: "an examination of current measures in special education in this country has shown that there are some inadequacies that make its delivery inefficient. These inadequacies include lack of a specific policy, categorical and regional disparity in service development, shortage of trained staff, and lack of co-ordination of current efforts." The critics may contend the validity of the statement of the Institute of Education that there is lack of co-ordination in special education in Tanzania on the grounds that special education has an administrative structure to co-ordinate it. We are to believe that if there is lack of co-ordination in special education in the country despite the presence of its administrative structure, then this structure is symbolic, incomplete and or, is subjected to much more

stronger internal and external forces that hinder its operations. Whatever the case might be, for any administrative structure to be effective and efficient, a clear administrative basic structure and clear administrative structural practices are needed. Once there are imbalances between the two, such an administrative structure is likely to have serious problems in co-ordinating and fulfilling its responsibilities. It becomes inevitable therefore, that creating the administrative basic structure and creating the administrative structural practices are two different tasks and practices although the two call for each other. The administrative basic structure provides an organization with the skeleton. The administrative structural practices provide the skeleton (the administrative basic structure) with the muscles and the flesh to make it live. By becoming the muscles and the flesh to the skeleton, the administrative structural practices cannot therefore be separated or divorced from the administrative basic structure and vice-versa. Many inadequacies in special education in Tanzania as cited by the Institute of Education, are likely to stem from lack of co-ordination in the services available. In any activity, lack of co-ordination seriously cripples down implementation (Drucker, 1961; 1964). More seriously, it leads to the emergence of other problems in the activity. The problems emerging as a result of lack of co-ordination might be similar to those affecting special education in Tanzania as cited by the Institute of Education, or different; or, they might be fewer or many if compared to them. The diversity and the level of the problems depend on the existing co-ordination system and its mechanisms. The fact that

lack of co-ordination cripples down implementation in an activity, and the fact that there is lack of co-ordination in special education services in Tanzania, we are left with more uncleared doubts about the effectiveness of special education in Tanzania, as well as the services and the structures related to it.

According to Carmen (Personal Communication 1995), the coordination of services in a sector in a country is not strong, effective and complete just because there are co-ordination structures at the government or top level. In reality, co-ordination is more effective when the structures in place can integrate all forces and levels of operation in the sector or activity. In this sense, the co-ordination of special education (and the co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people for that matter) in Tanzania, is a deliberate effort to integrate all educational activities and programmes in the country into a single national system. How is this done in the situation where there are two subsectors may be with somehow differing packing orders, and where there are more than one organization, each with its own policies and interests, is a matter of great interest. To borrow Walters' (Personal Communication 1995) words, are the two subsectors of educational services for disabled people in Tanzania consciously coming together in the unity of purpose? Is it clear between individuals involved directly in the field as to who delivers what, when and where? Are the disparity groups working in the rendering of services in these two subsectors consulting

each other? Do they liaise? Or, do they yield to their professional jealousy and thereby seek to create and maintain their own empires in the field? Answers to such questions will enable us to know the current practices and situations in the co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in the country.

Some years after these services were inaugurated in Tanzania, the Ministry of Education and Culture (in press) wrote: "however, mechanisms for inter-ministerial and inter-agency co-ordination of services and collaboration are yet to be elaborated and strengthened." This statement by the Ministry of Education and Culture presents us with four impressions: one, there are educational services for disabled people in Tanzania. Two, intra-governmental and inter-agency collaboration and co-ordination systems in special education are yet not elaborate. Three, a certain type of co-ordination hitherto exists in these services. Four, there are some laxities in the special education system in Tanzania. These impressions send us some more puzzling questions. How are different organizations involved in these services brought together despite their differing management systems, infrastructure, packing orders, organizational cultures and interests? Are we justified to believe that there are so many organizations and individuals in educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania struggling against each other as they fish in the same waters and trying to catch the same fish? Answers to such questions will enable us to know clearly how this unelaborated co-

ordination system in special education in Tanzania works in the services for visually impaired and blind persons. These questions reveal and emphasize the fact that there is always a gap between the existence or presence of an administrative structure and practice in any service, a subsector or a sector, if efforts to define and elaborate practices and responsibilities are not made (Thompson, 1967). More to that, there always seems to be a discrepancy between rhetorics and practice. Co-ordination is always filling up this gap by making it possible for the integration of the sentiments, aspirations and practices in the administrative structure with those in the field.

From this presentation by the Ministry of Education and Culture, and by looking at the system of special education in the country, we can draw the following assumptions about the co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people (as well as for all disabled people) in Tanzania. First, the mechanisms of co-ordination and collaboration exist. Second, these co-ordination mechanisms are not very much binding to anybody. Third, any ministry and any agency involved is free to choose whatever service and approach it thinks appropriate. For example, although it has been the policy of the government to stress the establishment of resourcerooms and special units for visually impaired and blind people in regular schools, there are still the residential special schools in the country. Fourth, co-ordination as a process is principally unelaborate and unstrengthened, although there are services rendered. These situations and realities lead

us to more questions. For example, *how and why have these services which seem to be not well co-ordinated survived? What are the co-ordination systems underlying them? What are the forces that have shaped these co-ordination systems? How are effective these existing co-ordination systems?* Answers to such questions will enable us to determine the existing co-ordination system, the forces that shape it, and their effectiveness.

What is important is not just to know that there is an unelaborate co-ordination system in these services. It is important to know the factors that have shaped it. To know these forces, it is important to be aware of the current issues in the co-ordination of the services. Ahiyauzu (1986) stresses the importance of using empirical research to determine issues and situations in management in Africa. Likewise, if we are to understand the current issues and situations in the co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania, we are to clearly understand the nature of evolution of co-ordination thought and work in these services; the framework for analysis, theoretical and methodological inclinations in the co-ordination of the services; culture and its influences on the co-ordination system; the tradition in the co-ordination of these services; and the approach to international collaboration in the co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in the country. These features will enable us to know the environment in which the co-ordination of these services operate. According to Jones

and Blunt (1992), leaders, managers, administrators and co-ordinators for that matter, must clearly know the environment in which they are operating if their organizations are to survive. Thus, the co-ordinators of the educational services for visually impaired and blind people strive to know the environment in which they are working and the environment in which the services are rendered, so as to make the services they co-ordinate valid, acceptable and continuous.

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to examine the nature of the existing co-ordination system in the educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania, the forces shaping it, and its effectiveness in service provision. To achieve this overall purpose, the co-ordination of both the state sector and the private sector, and that between the two sectors, were studied. The issues of organization, communication, mechanisms of co-ordination, power and authority were investigated. These were studied as both processes and events in these service sectors.

In studying co-ordination effectiveness in these services, an emphasis was on the extent to which the existing co-ordination system strengthened effectiveness in service provision. In determining effectiveness, Scott's (1992) proposition on the evaluation of organizational effectiveness was adopted. Thus, the service structures, the processes in these structures and the outcomes of these processes,

were studied. In trying to understand effectiveness through the "structures" from which the services were rendered, issues of the population served, the accuracy in service provision, quantity and power relations, were investigated. In attempting to understand effectiveness through "processes" in the service structures, issues of continuity in services, timing in service provision, their accessibility and efficiency, were considered. On studying "outcomes" of the processes, issues of communication, operational mechanisms and the quality of the services provided, were explored.

In trying to understand the forces underlying the co-ordination system, the study focused on two aspects of the services. First, the positive and the negative factors surrounding the service development and provision in the country. These factors revealed the complex situations outside the services to which the provisions had to be adjusted. Second, a sociology of the services. This revealed the existing politics and relationships which influenced and dominated the co-ordination system, and therefore directed the services.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Although this study focused on Tanzania, its significance goes beyond its specific context. This is because, the significance of studies like this, is that they contribute to the body of knowledge in the areas of policy, planning and administration. They clearly show the shortcomings and strengths in the existing practice, knowledge and

theory. They do so by critically analyzing the existing and dominant practices, knowledge and theories. The evidence derived from studies like this, when combined with experience, may provide options in practice and theory, let alone refined knowledge.

By critically analyzing the existing practices, knowledge and theory, these studies identify the hindrances to the development and co-ordination of educational services for disabled people. They bring into an open, the negative factors underlying the existing theory and practice. As a result, they pose service planners and providers with a challenge of bettering practice, theory and approach to co-ordination.

These studies make policy makers, planners and administrators aware of the shortcomings and the strengths in co-ordination of educational services for disabled people. With this kind of awareness, gaps in the services and their co-ordination may be bridged, and efforts may be made to minimise problems. An awareness among policy makers, planners and administrators that a problem needing immediate action exists, is a springboat for good policies, plans and implementation of designed programmes (Mayo, 1983).

These studies also arouse the awareness of interested individuals and the community about the problems of co-ordination in these services. In many cases, problems of co-ordination in these services are known only to those involved in them. The whole community is entitled to

know what is going on in these services and whatever problems facing them, because they are community's services. Studies like this, make these problems known to everybody with interest to know. The availability of information influence the way people react to things and situations. Where information is not available, action and involvement are limited. Where information can be found, individuals are active, the morale is high and participation maximized (Heinze, 1986; Wirz and Winyard, 1993). Studies like this, help interested individuals and the community to know that problems exist in the co-ordination of the services, and assist them to understand the size of these problems by providing them with the necessary information.

These studies design and advance possible solutions to the problems of co-ordination in the educational services for disabled people. These possible solutions are designed in two ways: first, by critically analyzing the existing practice, knowledge and theory. Second, by developing newly independent theories out of rigorous engagement in the field. The grounded theories from the field and the outcomes of the rigorous analysis of the existing practices, knowledge and theories, increase the possibility of problems of co-ordination being avoided or minimised.

THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

As we have already seen in the previous sections, there are administrative structures in the Ministry of Education and Culture and

elsewhere, which were designed for the purpose of co-ordinating education, and the education of visually impaired and blind people inclusive. This seems to be in contradiction with the existing literature, which has suggested that co-ordination of special education in Tanzania is either non-existent or is yet to be elaborated and strengthened. It was in the basis of this contradiction, that this study sought to explore the following questions:

- (a) What is the co-ordination system in the state sector of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania?
- (b) What is the co-ordination system in the private sector of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania?
- (c) What is the co-ordination system between the state and the private sectors of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania?
- (d) How effective is the co-ordination system in the educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania?
- (e) What are the forces underlying the co-ordination system in the educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania?

THE DEFINITION OF TERMS

A number of terms were used in this study. The definitions given here, are exclusively for the purpose of this study. They are as follows:

(a) ***Co-ordination*** : The process, and, or, the efforts of organizing and bringing together resources for the common goal. The term co-ordination in this study was therefore used to refer to the administration and organization of the educational services for visually impaired and blind people in the Ministry of Education and Culture, Department of Higher Education, Department of Social Welfare, Department of Folk Development Colleges, Local Governments, the Church, TLB and TSB. The efforts to forge the unity of purpose within and between these structures for effective services were also studied. Communication, traditions and power relations within and between these organizations, were considered to be the component parts of the whole of co-ordination in both the state and the private sectors of special education.

(b) ***The State Sector of Special Education***

This was the sector of special education directly run by the government administration. It was administered by the local governments, or the central government. In this study, the term special education state sector was used to mean the sector of special education run by the government in Tanzania. It included public schools, colleges and programmes directly administered by either the Councils on behalf of their respective local governments or the central government.

(c) ***The Private Sector of Special Education***

This was the sector of special education directly under the administration of private bodies like private enterprises, autonomous

parastatal organizations, voluntary agencies and interested individuals. The term private sector of special education was therefore used to mean the sector of special education run independent of the state sector. This sector included schools and programmes, charities and church organizations.

SUMMARY

This chapter presented the definition of the problem. It has introduced this inquiry on the co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. Co-ordination is one of the major managerial and administrative functions and tasks. Others are planning and implementation of the plans. Co-ordination involves communicating, organizing, supervising, controlling, directing and decision-making. Co-ordination is at all levels of operation. It is carried out in the administrative basic structure, and the administrative structural practices are at the heart of any co-ordination process. All managers and administrators in an organization, are contributing to co-ordination. Powers and authority unequally distributed among positions in organizations, divide managers and administrators into the most powerful, and the less powerful.

In Tanzania, the administration of education is made by two ministries: the Ministry of Education and Culture, and the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education. Co-ordination of special education is the responsibility of the Special Education Unit in the Ministry of

Education and Culture. However, special education services (the education services for visually impaired and blind people inclusive), are scattered into different ministries. Even within the Ministry of Education and Culture itself, they are scattered into different departments, which are set according to subsectors. The education of visually impaired and blind people is provided by both the state sector and the private sector. The private sector is independent of the state sector. This study was set to explore the co-ordination mechanisms of the education for visually impaired and blind people in these two sectors, their effectiveness, and how they are shaped.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

This chapter presents the literature review for this study. After you have read it, you should understand:

1. The nature and purpose of theories; and
2. Some perspectives in co-ordination theory.

THEORIES: NATURE AND PURPOSE

A theory is a supposition. It is a system of ideas based on general principles independent of reality. A theory is a speculative view. It is a speculation about the form and the content of a particular thing or situation. It is the sphere of abstract knowledge or speculative thought. Theories are the exposition of principles. They are a collection of propositions to illustrate the principles (Concise Oxford dictionary).

Theories of co-ordination in special education therefore, are suppositions about co-ordination in special educational services. They are speculations on how the services can be, or are being best co-ordinated. These theories explain co-ordination in educational services for visually impaired and blind people.

PERSPECTIVES IN CO-ORDINATION THEORY

The theories discussed in this chapter, are principally the theories of management and administration. Scholars interested in mainstream educational management and administration have always used these theories to explain thought and practices in educational management and administration (Campbell, Flaming, Newell and Benion, 1987). While there is more evidence on the use of these theories in mainstream education, such evidence is very limited in special education. The computer search carried out for this study revealed that priorities for researchers and professionals in special education were attitudes, classroom practices, policy reviews, legislation, causes of disability, awareness-raising, service development, curriculum, prevention of disability, its identification, assessment and community-based rehabilitation. Thought and practices in management and administration were not a priority. This made lack of literature and studies on thought and practices of co-ordination in special education to adversely affect this study. However, as the analysis made in this chapter will show, the theories about management and administration adopted in education mainstream can provide the basis for explaining thought and practices in the management and administration of special education as well.

The Centralized Co-ordination Theory

This is the commonly used type of theory in co-ordination. Centralized co-ordination was a product of the theory of scientific management by Frederick Taylor. Working on assumptions that individuals do not work willingly, people must be made to work, and that these individuals normally do not know what is expected of them, this theory is based on six principles. One, the whole responsibility of planning and organizing the services is being shifted from the workers in the field and people with visual impairments to the top managers and administrators of service organizations. Under this proposition, only managers and top administrators are supposed to do the thinking in relation to the planning and designing of the services. The contribution of the workers in the field is only in carrying out the task of implementing what the managers and top administrators say. These service providers in the field are equated with machines in a factory, and the executives of the service organizations exercising power of operation on them. On the other hand, visually impaired and blind people are being pushed further down in the chain. They remain at the receiving end, listening to the field workers of the service organizations. Two, the managers and administrators of service organizations are to simplify the work in the field so as to allow high performance by the service workers in the field. In doing this, scientific methods are to be used in determining the most efficient way of service provision. After the efficient means of providing services have been established, the task of the provider of the services in the field is

designed accordingly. Prescriptions as to how the work must be done are outlined and given to the service providers in the field to strictly implement. Three, the managers are to select the best persons to perform the job thus designed. Under this proposition, the top management of the service organizations maintain and retain the discrete powers to employ and fire those providing services in the field. Four, the workers in the field must be trained to do the job precisely and efficiently. Five, the managers are to monitor the performance of service providers in the field to ensure that appropriate service procedures are followed, and appropriate results are achieved. Six, to ensure high performance, service providers in the field are to be motivated. Fixed and clearly prescribed material incentives are to be made available (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974; Morgan, 1986).

Under this theory, service providers in the field are peripheral to the whole system. Basically, there is an intentional creation of the power centre within the total organization of the services. Planning, decision-making and organizing, are carried out at the centre. All the peripheries (workers in the field and visually impaired and blind people), only receive instructions and orders to act on. The managers assume the role of an overseer; constantly checking on service providers in the field to establish if they are doing the job properly. They observe their performance and link it with expected results, at the same time shouting orders at them. The purpose is to ensure a high level standard in the service provision. The basic assumption is that the only way of optimising the services and their provision is a tight

control over them and those in the field, exercised by managers and administrators (Litterer, 1965; Fieudler, 1967; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974; Koontz and Weihrich, 1994).

In the educational services for visually impaired and blind people, the theory of centralized co-ordination is manifested in the creation of superior ordinate bodies to co-ordinate the services. Experience shows that there are about four types of superior ordinate bodies in co-ordination of these educational services. The first type is that of ministerial structures. Under this, a specific ministry is charged with the responsibility of administering the services. Generally the tendency has been having these services as a section, a division, a unit or a department within the larger structure of the ministry. As to what ministry, there has always been differences between countries. In some countries like Egypt, these services are in ministries of education; in others like India and Cameroon, in ministries of social affairs; and in the ministries of health in countries like Sudan and Cote D'ivoire; or, they are scattered in different ministries in some countries like Tanzania (Coleridge, 1993; UNESCO, 1995).

Two, inter-organizational committees. These are committees formed by two or more organizations. The committees provide an umbrella body of co-ordination in the services. Inter-organizational committees take three approaches. The first approach is inter-ministerial committees. Usually these are government structures bringing together different

ministries for the purpose of strengthening the co-ordination of the services. The second approach is that of inter-voluntary agency committees. This is when voluntary agencies join together for a stronger pressure group, or decide to join their efforts in service provision. The last approach of inter-organizational committees is that of inter-ministerial-voluntary agency committees. Under this approach, voluntary agencies set committees with government ministries or departments. Such committees are usually advisory or task force bodies. This approach of committees signifies the links between the government and charities.

The third type of a superior ordinate body is a council. These councils in most cases are statutory bodies. Their membership range from government ministries, through charities to co-opted prominent individuals. The experience shows that such councils are usually controlled by the secretariat which is comprised of professionals. These councils bring government efforts together with those of charities and individuals.

The fourth type of the superior ordinate co-ordination organ of educational services for visually impaired and blind people is that of passing bodies. These are transient bodies designed to achieve or carry out a specific function over a specific period of time. They are usually common during special campaigns or special events. Good examples of the passing bodies are the committees of the international year of the

child (IYC) and the international year of disabled persons (IYDP). When the time set for the campaign is over, or when the event that led to the formation of the body has passed, the body either disappears or takes up a new form.

There are some strengths in centralized co-ordination. Some of its strengths are as follows: one, it emphasizes supervision. With this, there is close contact between service managers and service workers in the field. As a result, problems are detected as they unfold, and services are frequently updated as the situation in the field changes. Two, the theory emphasizes high standard services. To achieve this, the jobs are divided into smaller daily tasks. Every individual is allocated specific tasks to perform on the daily basis. Three, the expertise of the individual carrying out the job, is another emphasis in this theory. Only the best personnel is used in service provision. Efforts are to be made to ensure that every individual involved in service provision knows and masters the task allocated to him or her (Morgan, 1986; Koontz and Weihrich, 1994).

There are also limitations to this theory. First, it separates the process of planning and organizing the services from that of provision. Due to this, the services tend to be rigid and unadjustable to circumstances. Decisions take long to come out, and delays become dominant. Such characteristic features may lead to providing inaccurate services. Second, the theory plays down the social aspect in the services. For

instance, it neglects the fact that excessive control and supervision of field workers by the Executives may breed complaints, dissatisfaction and resistance from field workers. The theory ignores human freedom at work. human beings always enjoy the work place and responsibilities when they enjoy a high level of freedom at work. Third, it tends to alienate service providers in the field and the population of visually impaired and blind people from the important processes of policy and service development. As a result, the services designed under this theoretical approach are frequently superimposed to both field workers and visually impaired and blind persons. In turn, this may affect the participation of these two groups, and sometimes the services may be identified with the managers or labelled against them. Fourth, in some cases, centralized co-ordination becomes a one-person or one-group of persons show. In such cases, the services and the provision processes are turned into personal and absolute affairs. In such situations internal struggles become eminent; and, cooperation and co-ordination become difficult. Fifth, the distance from the centre to the grassroots levels in vast areas of operation may entail taking a lot of time for the problems at the grassroots to be known at the centre and the solutions to be sought. This may become even more aggravated by the fact that even for a very small problem, reference has to be made to the centre for resolution. Sixth, when and where there are many service organizations and provisions, the centralized system may suffer from lack of co-ordination. Many of them may work on the same problem, and the duplication of work, efforts and thus misuse of time

and resources may be rampant (Morgan, 1986; Koontz and Weihrich, 1994; Werner, 1994).

DECENTRALIZED CO-ORDINATION

The theory of decentralized co-ordination is built on the principles of devolution and deconcentration of powers. It is the systematic effort to transfer powers and authority from the centre of the centre, to the centres in the peripheries. The purpose is to get away with ineffectiveness resulting from centralization of powers inherent in the rigid highly centralized systems by creating small powerful centres in the peripheries within the larger system. The theory proposes that some authority to command and powers to act be delegated to subordinates, but responsibility be always exerted on them by the higher authorities (Blunt and Jones, 1992; Koontz and Weihrich, 1994).

Decentralized co-ordination in educational services for visually impaired and blind people takes two forms: territorial and functional decentralization. Territorial decentralization is when a specific region or province is allowed to run its own educational services system within the larger geopolitical entity. Territorial decentralization therefore, allows the existence of distinct parallel systems. A good example of territorial decentralization in education is the United States, where every state runs its own educational system within the federal

framework. Functional decentralization is the delegation to lower structures, the powers to act, but within the single larger system.

In all situations of decentralization, the centres in the peripheries obey instructions and orders from the centre of the centre. They get responsibility superimposed on them from the centre. Their powers and authority are limited. They develop only minor policies, leaving the development of major policies to the centre of the centre. Even the minor policies they develop, are to be in line with the major policies produced at the centre. In most cases, the centres in the peripheries have to get approval from the centre of the centre for every big shift in policy (Nellis, 1980; 1983; Conyers, 1984; 1986).

There are remarkable strengths in this theory. One, the grassroots enjoy a certain level of freedom in deciding about matters immediate to them. They act within their limits and influence the centre in the problems beyond their capacity. Two, this theoretical approach enhances participation as a democratic right and principle in services. As a result, subordinates and field workers are motivated by the fact that their voices are being heard. In such situations people work hard, identify themselves with the services, and assume personal responsibility for the duties assigned to them. Three, decentralization contributes to the eradication of the thicket of red tape and the tyranny of following so-called right channels in a vast organization. It makes it possible for decisions to be made instantly and on the spot.

Decentralization enhances the capability of meeting the needs immediately; and, it enables the grassroots to adjust the services without wasting much time on waiting for a response from higher authorities (Nellis, 1980; 1983; Connyers, 1984; Koontz and Weihrich, 1994).

There are also limitations to decentralized co-ordination. Sometimes, it is being used as the means of cutting costs at the centre. In this case, the peripheries become under-resourced while the responsibilities placed on them continue to increase. In circumstances like these, the centres of the peripheries and the centre of the centre, shift blames on to each other. The peripheries may blame the centre for under-resourcing and playing politics with the services, and the centre may blame the peripheries for mismanagement, misplanning and irresponsibility. While they continue to point fingers to each other and clean themselves of any blame from the public and visually impaired and blind people, the services and persons with visual impairments continue to suffer. At the same time, it may be difficult to co-ordinate the efforts of many decentralized components. All parts will be acting independent of the other, thus integrating their end-results may prove difficult. In such circumstances, teamwork approach to problems is made quite difficult. Also decentralization has the problem of power struggle between the centre and the peripheries. In most cases, the centre intervenes and turns the whole affair into authority so as to to impose its wishes and policies on the peripheries even when they are

incompatible with the local situation (Nellis, 1983; Koontz and Weihrich, 1994).

MECHANISTIC CO-ORDINATION THEORY

This theory is a theory of human relations in the services. Behaviourists like Chester Barnard and Mary Follet used human behaviour to explain situations in management and administration. The whole theory is about bettering relations in the services, and thereby raise individual productivity and performance. It analyzes the way the organizational individuals relate to their organizational responsibilities and the way they relate to one another. The theory puts greater emphasis on human freedom to act in relation to efficiency in the services. Under this theory, individuals pay their allegiance only to their strictly narrowed down work responsibilities and the organizational chart. Individuals are tied to their jobs and job descriptions as the means to increased individual productivity and performance (Barnard, 1958; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974; Finch, Jones and Litterer, 1976).

The theory of mechanistic co-ordination is built on four propositions. First, organizations and the services are rational, technical and process systems. Thus, they need rational and well qualified individuals if they are to perform what they were designed for. The rationality and qualifications of individuals on the one hand, and the success of organizations and services on the other, fulfil human feelings and need

of being important and useful. All people involved in the services are to be recognized and enabled to develop belongingness to the services. This will remove personalization of the services. They will be "our services." With belongingness cultivated for, the services belong to all involved, and not just the managers. In this sense, every person involved is to be allowed to freely contribute substantially to the health of the services (Fieudler, 1967; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974; Morgan, 1986).

Second, a high division of labour characterized by specialization of jobs among workers in the services is a key to the creation of belongingness and success. This is because, according to this theory, social achievements are important than money in motivating people to work. People must therefore be allocated specific tasks to perform, and must not be reporting to more than one supervisor. As a result of this, jobs in the services become highly specialized, more focused, fragmented, strictly defined and entrusted to most qualified individuals (Morgan, 1986).

Third, people working in the services must be guaranteed stable social psychological conditions. If the services are to be a success, sound social interactions are important than money paid to individuals as salaries. The dynamic harmonious social relations between structures and individuals involved are to be maintained because the social psychological stability of the individual is the basis for efficiency. To

establish and maintain sound social relations in the services, informal rules and games are to be treated equally as the formal ones because usually people get satisfaction in informal procedures and interactions than in the formal ones. Fourth, since all workers are qualified and entrusted the jobs appropriate to their specializations, force or intense supervision is not required to make them work. Workers are therefore relieved of any pressure or organized supervision from the managers. In this perspective, supervision is replaced by a strong feedback mechanism. The workers are to easily and constantly feed the managers with all necessary information about their own jobs and job performances and vice-versa (Fieudler, 1967; Morgan, 1986; Finch, Jones and Litterer, 1976).

Experience shows that mechanistic co-ordination in the educational services for visually impaired and blind people are mechanistically designed. The jobs and the services are very defined and narrowed down to even smaller component parts. Due to this, one person with a visual impairment or blindness, may be attended by more than one expert. For instance, may require services from a counsellor, a psychologist, a social worker, a resource room teacher or an itinerant teacher and the classroom teacher. All of these come in at different times and at different levels. Still, regardless of the number of experts involved, the purpose is to make the system simple, effective and working in the benefit of the pupil.

There are some strengths in mechanistic co-ordination. The theory emphasizes the importance of sharing information between managers and all people involved in the services. Information flow and sharing forms the basis of teamwork approach in any service provision. As people become informed of what is going on, how things went wrong and when to merge their contributions, problems and mistakes can be put off for a while if they cannot be avoided completely. At the same time, the theory requires managers to satisfy the basic needs of workers in the services to ensure that they become service men and women, and that they do not become easily tempted to sabotage the services or to simply help themselves on the things they are supposed to deliver to individuals in need. Above all, the theory stresses a clear definition of tasks in the services as the means to high efficiency and better services. The clear definition of tasks makes easier for those needing the services to follow them up, and service providers to be held accountable for what will happen in their area of operation (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974; Morgan, 1986).

There are also limitations to the mechanistic co-ordination theory. There is a danger of emerging the "mindless" attitudes in the services as a result of a long-term strict division of labour. Attitudes like "that is not my job", or, "I have done what I was expected to", may develop if the system is not operated with utmost sensitivity. If such attitudes are allowed unchallenged, they in turn become the source of problems

and inefficiency. On the other hand, the mechanistic approach may breed the unquestioning and uncreative class of workers. Individuals may be contented with doing what they are assigned to do, leaving the virgin areas unattended. In such circumstances, the services will always fall short of their goals and the expectations of those in their receipt. Also information flow and sharing may be another difficulty. Individuals may choose to paint a good picture of what they are doing or what they have done so that they avoid criticism or being held responsible for grave errors made, or even to earn themselves a credit and a name. In such situations, the information being shared will be misleading to both managers and other people using it. Generally, the mechanistic theory of co-ordination puts an individual before an organization. For this reason, it de-emphasizes the formal structure for the informal one. It principally fails to balance the two types of structure, and therefore fails to balance between the interests of an individual and those of an organization and the services (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974; Morgan, 1986; Koontz and Weihrich, 1994).

Hierarchical Co-ordination Theory

The theory of hierarchical co-ordination finds its roots in the Weberian bureaucratic model of management and administration. According to this theory, the management of the services is more effective when it is bureaucratic. Bureaucracy in this sense, is the legal arrangement of personnel in services for an effective pursuit of set goals. In this arrangement, individuals are allocated tasks, positions, power and

authority to carry out specific functions and activities (Parsons, 1947; Weber, 1947; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974; Morgan, 1986).

This theory is based on the principle of a system in which different positions, authorities and powers are classified, graded and ranked one above the other. This is the organizational chart. It focuses on an orderly arrangement of the legal positions, authorities and powers in the organization of services. This system creates a stairs-like structure from the top to the bottom and vice-versa. Under this theory, the classification, the grading and the ranking determine the status of the position, the status of the individual occupying that position; and exclusively determine the type and amount of powers and authority held by the individual. This feature differentiates individuals into the highly positioned with so much power and very high authority, people with middle position and relative powers and authority, and people holding positions but with very insignificant powers and authority in the services (Weber, 1947; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974; Morgan, 1986).

The theory emphasizes the importance of the legal authority in all structures. The positions in the structure and not individuals, have authority, powers and responsibility of carrying out functions and tasks. The various activities are linked together by being placed under the central power and authority first at the level concerned, second at different levels as collectivities, and third, at the organizational level as

a collection of collectivities. Individuals legally occupying those positions in the structure have the legal right and responsibility to discharge the duties in their respective positions. Once they are relieved of the positions, then their legal right and responsibility goes to their successors. Thus, hierarchical co-ordination is pyramidal in terms of positions, responsibilities, powers and authority. There is one central position therefore which is a focal point for the co-ordination of all the activities. The fitting of individuals into specific positions determines what is expected of every individual in the services (Weber, 1947; Litterer, 1965; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974).

The hierarchical co-ordination theory also stresses control and supervision as the means of attaining efficiency. The theory gives two propositions for achieving supervision and control. First, division of labour. Individuals are to be allocated long-term jobs to perform. This proposition is based on an assumption that division of labour will clear confusion as to who is to do what, when and where. It is also assumed that it will lead to the accumulation of expertise and therefore the prevalence of rational decisions in the services. Second, rules and regulations are to be introduced to guide peoples' performances and make those particular individuals responsible and accountable. For these rules and regulations to be legal, they are to be formalized (Weber, 1947; Litterer, 1965; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974; Morgan, 1986).

There are some strengths in the hierarchical co-ordination theory. By emphasizing rules and regulations, the theory emphasizes the importance of all individuals understanding rights and duties inherent in their positions. This may ensure the uniformity and the stability of actions in the services. As the rights and duties for every position in the services are presumably clearly spelt out in rules and regulations, consistence in service operations will be maintained. Rules and regulations establish value systems. Good value systems are behind any successful and effective management (Walters, 1994). On the other hand, this theory maximizes rational decision-making. Because of the existence of rules and regulations, decision-making acquires a formal pattern. It becomes based on facts and not feelings or opinions. This becomes the basis of a balanced treatment for all people in the services. At the same time, the theory stresses on long-term specialization of jobs and tasks among individuals in the services. This may lead to improved individual expertise and performance due to accumulated experience in the jobs (Weber, 1947; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974; Morgan, 1986; Koontz and Weihrich, 1994).

Hierarchical co-ordination has also been criticized for its limitations. It is argued, that in emphasizing division of labour, the theory emphasizes only one part of the phenomenon: the creation and enhancement of expertise. It is being argued, that it fails to express the fact that division of labour is also the source of job dissatisfaction and

boredom. The division of labour tie people to the same jobs and processes for long periods of their lives. Sometimes these become monotonous to individuals concerned. This second aspect of division of labour forms one of the explanations as to why people seek to change jobs and professions. At the same time, although division of labour can improve rationality in decision-making by accumulation of experience and expertise out of job and task specialization, it can also produce a sterile atmosphere in which people interact as non-persons as far as impersonality is concerned. The fact is that the whole system is very artificialized to the extent that normal social interactions (which are usually essential for the social psychological fitness of workers) have no room in the structure. On the other hand, although the hierarchy of authority may enhance efficiency, it can lead to destruction and breakage of communication in the services. Information can deliberately be made very untimely, or can intentionally be disseminated in a segregative way. This is when particular individuals want to paint an impressive image or avoid criticisms or being held accountable. In these situations it is more frustrating when the higher authority is perceived as being engaged in such actions, because the lower authorities are powerless before the higher ones. Although rules and regulations provide continuity, co-ordination, uniformity and stability in action, they might also lead to apathy, rigidity and inability to adjust to change. Sometimes they lead to people developing artificial behaviours to impress higher authorities. In other situations rules and regulations may sometimes at the expense of humanity and a

need, prevent the services from being extended to new people and virgin areas (Litterer, 1965; Morgan, 1986; Koontz and Weihrich, 1994).

The Administrative Co-ordination Theory

This builds much on the mechanistic and the hierarchical co-ordination theories. The administrative theory of co-ordination focuses on how best service affairs can be managed while balancing workers' freedom and organizational control and supervision. Under this theory, service affairs include organizational individuals, behaviours, resources, subsystems, policies and needs. The theory lays down the principles of how best managers and administrators can integrate different aspects and parts of an organization into a single whole for the purpose of attaining services goals and objectives (Fieudler, 1967; Scott, 1992; Armstrong, 1995).

The administrative theory of co-ordination asserts that the process of co-ordination entails the designing of the major components or subsystems of the larger system, and establishing the somewhat permanent patterns of relationship among them. These subsystems and their patterns of relationship form the organizational formal structure of the services. Co-ordination is done in this formal structure because it is this structure which is taking on board all individuals involved in the services. Hence, the formal structure of an organization is the

springboat for service co-ordination (Fieudler, 1967; Katz and Kahn, 1966; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974).

The administrative co-ordination theory further suggests that formal rules and regulations for all positions and individuals in the services should be designed and put into practice. These formal rules and regulations might include policies (both guiding and operating policies), work procedures, control procedures, compensation procedure and the like. These formal rules and regulations should indiscriminately guide performances and behaviours of individuals in the services. The purpose is to ensure a great deal of accountability and horizontal flow of work in the services (Fieudler, 1967; 1965).

Another principle of the administrative co-ordination theory is the establishment and maintenance of a permanent pattern of formal relationships in the services. This means setting up a formal system of behaviour which will be acceptable in the services as a whole. This stipulates how different people in different positions relate to each other. Who is the boss, who is next, and who is last. Of equal weight too, they define the relationships of different structures and individuals in the services (Katz and Kahn, 1966; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974).

Closely related to the principle of formal patterns of relationships in this theory, is the principle of formal duties. The formalization of duties in the services is based on four propositions. One, all individuals are to be allocated permanent organizationally recognized tasks to carry out in the services. The assumption is that if the

individual hangs on the same tasks for some time, expertise, experience and recognition gained through practice may lead to increased productivity. Two, all individuals are to be given clear guidelines on how to discharge their duties. Guidelines on how should they dispose their duties, the boundaries of their jurisdictions, the sources of guidance, reference, clarification and higher authority, form the contents of the guidelines. This feature will minimize duplication of duties, under-utilization of labour, conflict and competition among organizational individuals for the few resources and responsibilities. Three, individuals are then allocated resources, power and authority with which to discharge the duties. This signifies the right and the ability of individuals to act freely in their capacities in the services. Once an individual acts within the established formal pattern in discharging a duty, the outcomes of the discharge should stand. Four, all individuals involved in the services should be visible. They are to be allocated formal positions and status. They are to be recognized as both individuals and power-holders by the virtue of the positions they occupy. Their duties and the products of their labour should be recognized and upheld. This may contribute positively to job satisfaction and increase productivity and efficiency (Litterer, 1965; Katz and Kahn, 1966; Child, 1984).

The merits of the administrative co-ordination theory are that: It emphasizes a formidable structure and the control of individual behaviours if efficiency in the services is to be attained. As a result of

this, the unit of analysis revolves around the institutions, the individual, the functions being performed and the structures in place. In this merit its demerit lies. It neglects the processes-that is, the way people ought to do things (Litterer, 1965; Morgan, 1986; Koontz and Weihrich, 1994).

The Top-Down Model

All the theories so far discussed, have a lot in common. These commonalities make them almost identical in practice. They all produce a "top-down" model of practice in the educational services for visually impaired and blind people. Under this model, the importance of visually impaired and blind people to the services is watered down. Their role and position are rarely, if ever, considered in the theories, and their possible contribution to effectiveness in the co-ordination of the services ignored. The theories focus only on how to maximize and optimize efficiency in service organizations. Their analysis revolves around managers of service organizations and their workers without including consumers of the services in the analysis they provide (Miles, 1986; Werner, 1994).

The exclusion of the service consumers in the analysis, leaves these theories and the "top-down model", with a number of shortcomings on top of what they already have. First, they produce centralized systems and practices. This is because managers and field workers work towards being main actors and actresses in the services to demonstrate

their compassion and effectiveness in their service organizations. Due to this, they concentrate on only setting controls with which service organizations managers can control workers in the field. The tendency of focusing just on workers in the field alone, appears to increase the alienation of these organizations managers from the services and visually impaired and blind people in general.

Second, service organizations, their executives and staff, are presented as the capable and responsible for providing the services, while visually impaired and blind people are powerless recipients. This perception deprives visually impaired and blind people the right to a say regarding their services. They become reduced to receivers of whatever is designed and made available to them. Third, services are designed and run with less or without proper consultation with visually impaired and blind people. In this situation, visually impaired and blind people have these services pushed down their throats. They are also kept on the side-lines in policy making, planning and administration. Finally, the model of co-ordination they provide is based on the chain-of-command, in which there is unequal distribution of powers and authority between positions and individuals in organizational structures. This feature may sometimes be the source of inefficiency as some highly positioned individuals may unchallenged decide to set things in their personal gain, and thus cause chaos to the lower positions and the services in general (Miles, 1986; Werner, 1994).

The Bottom-Up Model

The problems inherent in the "top-down model" necessitated the development of a more problem-less model. The purpose was to have a system in which every individual involved in the services could participate fully. This led to the emergence of another model, sometimes called "bottom-up." An important principle of the bottom-up model is the fact that the services are to be designed and run at the grassroots. There are two propositions in this principle. One, visually impaired and blind people detecting a gap in the existing services and organizing for themselves some activities or programmes in response to the detected gap or need. In this proposition, the whole project will be planned, started and controlled by visually impaired and blind people themselves. Two, a common front of providers and visually impaired and blind people, with or without the families of people with visual losses, detecting a need and developing a response to it. In this case, visually impaired and blind people enjoy expert advice and support from service organizations while they themselves design and operate programmes according to their needs. The main assumption here, is that such people will be able to merge the services well with the need if compared to the managers and administrators of a centralized distant service structure (Miles, 1986; 1993; Werner, 1994).

The second principle in the "bottom-up model" is that decision-making is a collective responsibility. All participants in the services have an

equal role and position. None of them is above others, and decisions are made on the majority basis (Werner, 1994).

Finally, the services in the "bottom-up model" are built on the flexible and non-formal structures based on trust, understanding, friendliness, respect and acceptability. The assumption is that this will increase the say, participation and control of every member over the affairs of the services. The purpose is to have problems dealt with immediately, the services more focused and to have those services reflecting the actual feelings, wishes and aspirations of people in their receipt (Werner, 1994).

There are some strengths in this model. The sense of collective leadership and responsibility is quite high. People assume and accept duties and responsibilities as they usually don't have higher authorities to bow to. The tendency of consulting each other is the order of the model. As a result of wide consultations, there is likely to be a higher level of equality among participants, and decisions are made not by some individuals, but rather by all participants. The model puts in place a more flexible service structure and system which can thus be adjusted easily when required. In such conditions, the services are subjected to a continuous linear planning process that responds to the dynamic needs and situations of visually impaired and blind people. Unlike in the top-down model, the "bottom-up model" decentralizes power and authority in favour of visually impaired and blind people

and the workers in the field. They get a say over what to be done, the means and the timing of the services. The model puts them in the driving-seat of the services. In this sense, the model empowers the less powerful of the services. It lays down a foundation for positive aggressiveness and introspection among visually impaired and blind people (Werner, 1994).

Some problems may feature in the application of this model. It may be difficult to co-ordinate many service systems designed according to the tastes and needs of wide diversities of people. Such systems may prove difficult to integrate in a larger system. To achieve uniformity across them may be impossible as their founders and owners may seek to protect or hang to what they will be perceiving as theirs, and which may not necessarily be better. At the same time, programmes designed under this model may be difficult to integrate in the rigid top-down service structures which account for more services to visually impaired and blind people. The bottom-up model may provide an excuse for the government's less involvement in the services. On the other hand, programmes borne out of the bottom-up model are small programmes and local centred and viable. In larger geo-political boundaries where there are big populations of visually impaired and blind people which cannot be sustained by small scale service programmes, bigger service programmes with complex structures are needed. The bottom-up programme structures cannot withstand the pressures, the complexities and the structural demands of big service programmes. This is because

of their being small scale service programmes, and having unstable and non-formal structures. In such situations, the population that might be served under these structures is quite limited. In cases where greater numbers of visually impaired and blind people are to be served at a go, the model becomes a fetter. Eventually, if not carefully designed and run, the bottom-up programmes can be the source of tension, misunderstanding and conflict between visually impaired and blind people and their families on the one hand, and the government and service organizations on the other over interests, credit and trust. In such circumstances, the actual issues may be fudged, leaving the services convincingly damaged (Miles, 1986; 1993; Werner, 1994).

The Voluntary Co-ordination Theory

This theory is based on the assumption that the grassroots can, and must positively influence the higher placed positions in the rigid centralized and hierarchical systems of the top-down model. Thus, the theory is banking much on the influence visually impaired and blind people and service workers at any level may have on the managers and administrators of service organizations.

The first principle of the voluntary co-ordination theory is the volunteering and the willingness to do so. Under this principle, both service workers and visually impaired and blind people must be ready to work more, even if it is for less or without any pay at all. The supposition is that this spirit will influence or exert pressure on the

managers and administrators of the service organizations for more support or positive actions.

The second principle in this theory is that of systematically identifying the gap in the services so as to be sure of the existing need. The proposition in this principle is that individuals or groups of people in the services are to consciously act in a systematic framework to have the services constantly reviewed for their accuracy, viability and necessity.

Finally, is the principle that without disturbing the existing structures, people should establish links and programmes to bridge the gaps in the services in their localities, and integrate those links and programmes in the existing structures and the larger sector as the means of meeting the need detected in the existing services. The main supposition in this principle is that as many people as possible, must be integrated in the services (Litterer, 1961; 1965; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974).

Experience in the services for visually impaired and blind people shows that voluntary co-ordination takes two forms. These are the directional and aggressive stances. In both forms, co-ordination builds on individual abilities, commitment and willingness. In some cases individuals receive less support from the service organizations, and in some cases, they do not receive any support. In other cases, they face some sort of opposition from the service organizations. Voluntary co-ordination therefore places more pressure on people practicing it at the

grassroots than it does to managers and administrators at the top of service organizations.

Under the directional stance, people outside the services and service structures detect a need and voluntarily act. The only satisfaction out of this action is expected only to be the bridging of the detected gap in the services. The common practice in this stance is that the services are given out as donation to service workers in the field, to organizations involved in service provision, and sometimes directly to visually impaired and blind people themselves. Financial support, materials and physical plants, are some of the common donations so far in this stance. The directional stance of voluntary co-ordination therefore implies supporting service providers in their efforts to provide better services; and or, directly intervening by helping visually impaired and blind people out of the gaps in the services they receive. In both cases, the impact may be the re-direction of resources by service organizations.

Under the aggressive stance, individuals in the services detect the gap and the need to be met, and they act. There are three common practices under this stance. First, the service workers taking the whole matter in their hands. They may within and from their own resources meet the need. This is possible when the resources required are very minimal. When and where the resources needed are beyond what they can afford, they exert a more considerable pressure on managers and

administrators of their service organizations for more support and resources. In cases where the pressure exerted is not paying well, they look for an alternative source for support and resources. At this point, people outside the service structures become drawn in.

Another practice in the aggressive stance is visually impaired and blind people detecting a discrepancy in the services they receive, and acting accordingly. In this case, they usually singly or collectively, exert pressure on service providers for more action. They also seek help from an alternative source, and thereby bringing in service provision a previously uninvolved force. Finally, the aggressive stance may take the "common front" approach between visually impaired and blind people, their parents and service workers in the field to pressurize service organizations managers and administrators for more and better services. In other instances, the common front may seek to involve more people and organizations previously uninvolved, in bridging gaps in the services. However, whatever stance the voluntary co-ordination may adopt, it sends a clear message to policy makers and service developers that the need exists, and that an action is needed.

There are strengths in the voluntary co-ordination theory. Generally, the theory functionally decentralizes powers to the field workers, visually impaired and blind people and their parents. It gives them a say over steps to be taken in relation to a very specific problem and need. It breaks the rigid tendency of following the hierarchy before any

action. In this sense, the theory encourages creativity, self assessment, self criticism and innovation in the services. Unlike other theories which focus on control of workers in the field, this theory banks much on personal commitment and the willingness to act among all individuals involved or interested in the services. As a result of this, it inculcates confidence, independence and the problem solving approach and spirit among workers in the services and visually impaired and blind people (Litterer, 1961; 1965; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1974).

There are also some limitations to this theory. To some service organizations, the sharing of consumer areas is not acceptable. Such service organizations perceive this theory to be a threat. When they realize that other means are being used to bridge gaps in the services they provide, they become offended. In such cases, such service organizations may withdraw their services completely or decrease them considerably as a response to what they perceive as aggression by other organizations or individuals. In this case, the theory plays visually impaired and blind people into the hands of professional jealousy, protectionism and enmity between service organizations and providers. If not implemented carefully therefore, the voluntary co-ordination theory may lead among various individuals, service organizations and service workers, to the emergence of a race for credit. Eventually, this race will may end up in mistrust, clashes over interests, and the discouraging of the services. However, it is quite difficult to adopt this theory in the services without violating the

boundaries set by the rigidly established top-down structures. It is difficult to keep a clear-cut balance between the adoption of the theory and the rigid rules in place. As a result, the service workers adopting this theory risk being reprimanded by their managers and administrators, especially if the adoption of the theory runs out of hand.

There are identical positive propositions in both the bottom-up model and the voluntary co-ordination theory. They are reflecting well on the role, position and importance of visually impaired and blind people in the co-ordination of their own services. They seek to put visually impaired and blind people at the centre of the services. Under the bottom-up model and the voluntary co-ordination theory, visually impaired and blind people participate in the daily affairs of their services. They both dwell on how visually impaired and blind peoples' participation and inputs in their services can be enhanced and optimized.

However, the bottom-up model and the voluntary co-ordination theory together do not answer a number of questions too. They concentrate on the activities by the grassroots in the services without resolving the question of relationship between these grassroots and the top managers and administrators of the services. This leaves the crucial questions of power, authority, recognition, responsibility, interactions and efficiency in the services unattended.

From this discussion, every theoretical approach to co-ordination so far presented, suffers from significant shortcomings. All of them have got strengths and limitations. It is therefore clear that none of them can be practiced without causing damage to the services. Due to this, another theory with very minimal risks is needed if the educational services for visually impaired and blind people are to be efficient, effective, viable, valid and acceptable. With this in mind, the researcher went into the field with an open mind, ready to to be led by the surprises of the field.

There were two reasons for this. The researcher wanted to avoid falsely locking the study into a predetermined theoretical perspective. Locking the study in a specific theoretical perspective would have meant ensuring that the study is driven by the theory instead of the field accounts determining the theory. Lastly, the researcher did not want to pre-empt the field situations by setting a rigid theoretical perspective in which to lock-up the study. Doing so would have increased the risk of bias in the study.

SUMMARY

This chapter was the discussion on the nature and purpose of theories, and co-ordination theories. The chapter also used management and administration theories used in explaining thought and practices in education to explain current practices in the co-ordination of education for visually impaired and blind people.

A theory is a supposition. It is a collection of general principles independent of reality. It is a speculative view about content and the form of a particular thing or situation. A theory is an abstract knowledge or thought. A theory is a collection of propositions about principles. This chapter presented an analysis of six theories and two models of co-ordination. The six theories presented, are the centralized, decentralized, hierarchical, mechanistic, administrative and voluntary co-ordination. The models discussed, are the "top-down" and "bottom-up" co-ordination. All the theories and models presented in this chapter, have both strengths and limitations in co-ordination practice in the education of visually impaired and blind people. Because none of them provided a more safe co-ordination practice, the researcher went into the field with an open mind, prepared to be led by the surprises from the field.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

This chapter presents the research design for this study. After you have read it, you should understand:

1. The context of the study;
2. Philosophical and methodological issues surrounding the study;
3. Sampling in this study;
4. Data collection methods used in this study, and their implications to the study itself;
5. The data collection procedure in this study;
6. The trustworthiness of the study;
7. The nature and purpose of paradigms; and
8. That the sociological paradigm was adopted for this study.

THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The study was an investigation of the co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. It explored the forces that have contributed to the emergence and consolidation of the present system of co-ordination in this subsector of services. It also examined the state of the current co-ordination system and its effectiveness in service provision.

PHILOSOPHICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

The qualitative approach of studying phenomena was used throughout this study. Some basic principles of a qualitative inquiry as outlined by Lincoln and Guba (1985), Guba and Lincoln (1989) and Patton (1990) were used. These principles are as follows:

1. There is no objective reality. A reality is a construction of the mind. Thus, there are so many realities in one phenomenon. It is the responsibility of the researcher to trace these constructions up to their root-cause and establish the social relationship between them, and the way they relate to the phenomenon under study. The emphasis is to explore and build on interconnected relationships in the phenomenon.

2. The qualitative approach emphasizes a naturalistic inquiry. Phenomena are studied in their real natural situation as they unfold naturally. The researcher is non-manipulative, unobtrusive and non-controlling. The researcher is exposed to whatever outcomes and situations in the field. He or she in turn takes advantage of this exposure to create and construct a reality out of his or her interactions with the research participants.

3. Phenomena are understood as a whole. Due to this holistic perspective, they are treated as more than their some of parts. The focus becomes the complex interdependencies which are never reduced to discrete variables and the linear cause-effect relationships.

4. Qualitative data give detailed and thick accounts of phenomena, because an inquiry is an in-depth one. The intention in a qualitative study is to capture peoples' personal perspectives and experiences as much as possible.

5. The researcher has a direct experience of the situation in the field. He or she has a direct contact with, and gets close to the people, situations and phenomenon under study. As a result, he or she develops personal experience and insights about the phenomenon under investigation. These personal experiences and insights are important in the inquiry. They are used in developing the framework for the critical interpretation and understanding of the phenomena studied.

6. Qualitative studies are inductive. The researcher is immersed in the social interactions in the field and the specifics of the data to discover important categories, dimensions and interrelationships. The emphasis is on open questions instead of testing deducted ideas.

7. One of the guiding principles in qualitative research, is that one emphasizes the constant changes in phenomena. It is generally assumed, under this principle, that there are constant changes in social processes in phenomena. The focus is to capture these changes as they take place, so as to be able to explain phenomena in their totality.

8. A qualitative inquiry treats each case as unique. The purpose is always to understand the details of each individual case. The cross-case analysis follows the collection of the information depending on the quality of individual case studies.

9. By treating each individual case as a unique one, qualitative studies are always context sensitive. They always place findings in social, historical and temporal contexts. This is because constructions held by people are born out of their experience with their context. Constructions create the context which the constructors experience and vice-versa. Thus, every action in human life is context bound.

10. Qualitative studies are characterized by flexible designs. The research design of a qualitative study is always unrigid so as to accommodate the deepening understanding of the inquiry, as well as the changes that might occur in the field. The purpose is to avoid being locked-up in rigid designs which eliminate responsiveness and the pursuit of the new paths of discovery as they emerge in the field.

11. Qualitative studies are very humanizing. Participants in the research are not treated as objects, but rather as equals. They interact directly with the researcher, they talk about themselves and their experiences; and they are active in constructing the realities which the researcher tries to study. In such circumstances, the study is a joint responsibility of both the researcher and the participants.

The qualitative approach to studying phenomena also has some disadvantages. Its critics advance the following as some of its disadvantages:

1. Objectivity is impossible. The subjectivity of the researcher determines the amount and the type of the data to be collected.
2. The qualitative data cannot lead to generalization, because they tend to be tied to specific single cases and contexts.
3. Validity is always at risk in qualitative studies, because no controls are in-built in these studies. The unforeseen conditions can easily erode the validity of the data collected.
4. The qualitative research methods produce the bulk of data that need more time to analyze and organize.

This study was descriptive. It sought to describe situations and conditions in the co-ordination of these educational services, with the view of exploring its prevailing patterns. According to Cohen and Manion (1994: 67), educational studies look at interconnections between individuals, groups, institutions, methods and materials, so as to be able to describe phenomena and their patterns. The factors that internally and or externally influence phenomena are properly analyzed, well interpreted and well described, when the phenomena are studied from within their social context. The internal and external motivations of phenomena can be studied well when social processes and social groups involved are studied close to each other. To be able to describe, compare, contrast, classify, analyze and interpret the

entities and events in the co-ordination of the educational services, the study focused on the relationships, practices, processes, feelings and trends inherent in the co-ordination system in this subsector.

The study was tapping information about peoples' experiences and opinions regarding service provision to visually impaired and blind people. The social relationship between these experiences, opinions and actual practice in the field, are what yield the needed data in a qualitative study like this (Best, 1970; Berg, 1989; Layder, 1993; Cohen and Manion, 1994). Studying such aspects in the populations, enabled the researcher to know the motives that have shaped the behaviours and the practices of individuals, groups and organizations involved in the co-ordination of these services. By studying the individuals, groups, organizations and institutions involved in these services, the researcher studied the insiders to the services and their co-ordination system. This enabled him to understand the underlying principles, practices, processes and relationships. Such characteristics enabled him to understand the co-ordination mechanisms in place, the forces shaping them, and their effectiveness in service provision.

The study was interpretive, intuitive and analytical. A combination of intuition, the interpretive and the analytic (induction) approaches gives qualitative studies a clear focus (Smith, 1975; Layder, 1993; Yin, 1993; 1994; Cohen and Manion, 1994). To establish a more focused outlook in this study, the experiences of various individuals, groups

and organizations were interpreted and critically analyzed. The interpretive and the analytical character sent the study down to the mental modules of its participants, so that we know why various people, groups and organizations involved in the provision of these services behaved and operated the way they did. This helped the researcher in relating peoples' behaviour in the provisions with actual practice, because in any collectivity or life circles, people, groups and organizations respond to a particular situation, need and demand. This self adjustment is permanently part of the daily practice and process of realizing personal and organizational objectives in an area of operation (McGregor, 1960).

A holistic approach was adopted in this study. This involves studying phenomena in their totality (Best, 1970; Dobberts, 1982; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Layder, 1993). In this case, it required a study of the co-ordination of educational services in its social context. To do so, the researcher faced the field situation with an understanding that what exists in any phenomenon is interconnected with what it is, and what preceded it, as well as the events that affect it as a system (Best, 1970). Thus, the co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people was studied as an integral part of events taking place in the education of visually impaired and blind people as a subsystem in the larger sectors of education and service provision for disabled people in the country. This revealed the kind of pressures and forces

the educational service sector for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania had to respond to, and or correspond with.

SAMPLING

The population for this study included teachers in the education of visually impaired and blind people in the country, social welfare officers, educational administrators, management and the staff of charitable organizations involved in provision of educational services to visually impaired and blind people, and visually impaired and blind people themselves. The population was purposively selected because of its experience in these services, its understanding of the co-ordination mechanisms in the services, the forces shaping it, and its effectiveness in service provision.

Sampling in this study considered the level of experience people had in the educational services for visually impaired and blind people. To tap a wide range of experiences, the sample included administrators, field staff, consumers of the services and professionals. A minimum of two years for professionals and three years for non-professionals in these provisions, was considered sufficient to understand the administrative, medical and educational needs of persons with significant loss of vision. People who had been affected by low vision and blindness for at least two years, and had been in the provisions for at least the similar period, were also included in this study. The purpose was to have the sample with some experience in the co-ordination of the

educational services for visually impaired and blind people in the country. This approach also was an effective means of controlling the problems of time-limit, finance and the vastness of the country, which were constantly exerting pressure on the study.

Different sampling procedures were adopted in this study. Sampling procedures are techniques used in sampling participants for a study. Each technique embraces various specific methods of manipulating situations, conditions and realities in the field to get the most appropriate and desirable sample for a particular study. The sampling techniques in this study included purposive, snowballing and opportunistic sampling.

Purposive sampling involves the researcher, as the main instrument of inquiry, in deciding the probability of the individual being selected for the study (Goetz and Lecompte, 1984; Patton, 1990; Cohen and Manion, 1994). This is because the purposive sampling technique is based on selecting information-rich cases for in-depth study. Patton (1990: 169) wrote: "Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research". This means that participants are being picked on the basis of the presupposed information they can give. Likewise, the sampling units are selected on the same basis: how rich they are in information necessary for the study. Hence, purposive sampling is an intentional handpicking of participants and sampling units.

The strategy of extreme or deviant case sampling (Patton, 1990) was used in purposively getting the sample and sampling units. This strategy, according to Patton, leads the researcher to sampling information-rich cases because they are unusual or special in some way. They may be unusual or special because they are particularly troublesome, specially enlightening, outstanding successes or notable failures.

In this study however, sampling units and individuals were sampled because they were considered to be information-rich cases. Only those regions with more than one institution and or, organization involved in the provision of educational services for visually impaired and blind people, were selected for this study. This gave the researcher an opportunity to study a diversity of service providers. The selection of individuals depended on how strategically they were positioned in the services. The position of the individual in these services influenced the nature, type and amount of information the individual provided.

The main advantage of purposive sampling in this study is that it was cost-effective. It allowed the effective use of time and resources in the field. It was possible to collect much data in a short time, and with minimal costs. The main disadvantage with this sampling technique is that, it was possible to miss a lot of data by drawing much attention to the information-rich cases and neglecting those assumed to be information-poor cases. Although the latter might not be as rich in

information as the researcher assumed the former to be, they might also have had important information to give, however little it might be.

Snowballing denotes the process of the researcher tracing potential informants. The technique allows the researcher to use personal relationships with study participants to identify other sources of information (Noblit and Hare, 1988; Stainback and Stainback, 1988; Cohen and Manion, 1994). According to Patton (1990: 176), snowballing is a qualitative research technique which involves the researcher in tracing and trying to get hold of a source of information indicated by key informants, or extreme cases. The trace-march is detonated by a number of questions like who knows a lot about this? Who should I consult? Where else should I go? Where else can I get more information about this? When such questions are posed to strategically placed persons, the researcher is in most cases getting another direction to go, or other individuals to add on the sample.

For this study, the researcher requested informants to propose the whereabouts of other individuals or organizations that could supply more information. This enabled the researcher to expand the population sample even outside the original plan, so as to get the necessary information. Snowballing was used until when the researcher was satisfied with the information collected. As a result of this, the researcher was able to correct the collected information or make additions to it while still in the field.

Snowballing was effected in two ways. First, the researcher used personal social relationship with people in the services to identify possible sources. An explicit explanation about the purpose and the importance of the study was given to every person before that person was asked to propose the possible vital source of information. Second, at the end of every interview, the interviewee was asked to propose the possible "good source" of information about co-ordination in the services. These two methods, then, enabled the researcher to develop a list of individuals and authorities to consult for information. Some authorities and individuals were indicated more than once. Only who were outside the original plan and had been indicated more than once, were included in the study as products of this technique. No indicated authority was outside the original plan. Most of the individuals indicated were retired officers of the government and charities, retired educational officers and teachers, and those who were no longer serving in the services. These were interviewed. They included two retired staff of the charities, one retired executive of a charity, two retired specialist teachers, two specialist teachers who had been removed from special education, one retired blind teacher, two retired government officials who served in the services; and an educational officer who was removed from the special education unit and from special education altogether.

There were two advantages in using snowballing. First, the researcher was able to use the knowledge of participants about the sources of

information in the area of study. Second, it allowed the researcher to be flexible enough to expand the sample as the situation in the field unfolded. There were four problems in using this technique. One, for how long was the researcher prepared to continue tracing the sources identified by participants, depended very much on other factors like the financial capacity and time, which were also very pressing. This means that some sources indicated by participants were dropped on the basis of the implications they might have had on resources. Two, there was a danger of paying too much attention to the sources suggested by participants and forgetting the original plan. Three, it was quite difficult to establish clearly whether or not the indicated source had a vital information. Due to this difficulty, the confidence the researcher had in the participant determined the chances of the source being traced. Still, some of the traced sources had little or insignificant information. Four, sometimes the researcher was caught up in the trap of being obliged to choose from the bulk of sources indicated by participants. This was when the researcher became torn up between keeping on the original plan as much as possible, and the need of including in the study as many information-rich persons as resources could allow.

Closely related to snowballing, was opportunistic sampling. While snowballing sampling banked on individuals, opportunistic sampling banked on opportunities. Patton (1990: 179) wrote: "Fieldwork often involves on-the-spot decisions about sampling to take advantage of

new opportunities during data collection". This means that the qualitative research designs can include new sampling strategies to manipulate the unforeseen opportunities while the researcher is already in the field. Opportunistic sampling gives the researcher the flexibility needed in qualitative research. It allows the researcher to follow the direction to which the data lead. It takes advantage of whatever the field unfolds for the good of the study.

In this study, opportunistic sampling enabled the researcher to use the presence in the field and the opportunity available as a capital with which to gather information. Under this technique, the researcher gathered information from meetings, study groups and other kinds of gatherings. The researcher attended the meeting of Tanzania Society of the Teachers of the Handicapped (TASOTEHA) Masasi branch, a meeting of Masasi district education officer and the representatives of TASOTEHA; and, the deliberations of the central committee of Tanzania League of the Blind (TLB) on education. The researcher also had meetings with various experts and persons experienced in educational administration, special education and services for disabled persons. Contributions from such meetings were a good source of information.

There were three problems in using opportunistic sampling. First, how could the researcher know that it is high time to seize the opportunity to the advantage of the study, was difficult to establish. In some

instances, the researcher was taken by surprise, and sometimes was overtaken by events and issues. In such occasions opportunities were missed, or were not used effectively. Second, it was not guaranteed that whatever opportunity the researcher capitalized on, would provide the data expected. Third, there was also a danger of the researcher being carried away from the original plan by paying much attention to the opportunities that frequently unfolded themselves.

DATA COLLECTION METHODS

According to Cohen and Manion (1994: 38), "By methods, we mean that range of approaches used in educational research to gather data which are to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation, for explanation and prediction". Since methods are the vehicle usually used by researchers to obtain the needed data, research methods appropriate to the study are one of the most important ingredients of a research. The research methods that were used in this study included a triangulation, questionnaires, interviews and observations.

Triangulation

According to Cohen and Manion (1994: 233), "Triangulation may be defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspects of human behaviour". Thus, triangulation is the use of the multiple-data collection technique in studying phenomena. As a result of this, triangulation is sometimes known as the multiple-method or the multiple-method approach to data collection. It enables

the researcher to explain the complexities of phenomena from more than one research technique. As a result, researchers use both quantitative and qualitative research techniques to explain one phenomenon at the same time.

As an approach to data collection, triangulation has both advantages and disadvantages. Somekh (1983), Lin (1976), Somekh, Posch and Altrichter (1993) and Cohen and Manion (1994), discuss these advantages and disadvantages in depth. The following are some of the advantages of triangulation:

1. It is possible to cross-check different data produced by different research methods.
2. It enables the inclusion of larger samples and more sampling units in one study.
3. It minimizes the weaknesses inherent in various research methods by permitting the use of more than one research method.
4. It permits the collection of much more data.

Triangulation also has its disadvantages. These include the following:

1. Triangulation may be threatening to some groups and individuals. The involvement of diversified populations may appear to defy some groups. For example in studying the performance of a school, the inclusion of teachers, support staff and pupils, may be displeasing to teachers. It is normal with human beings to be defensive when they feel that the information perceived as damaging them is being circulated.

In such situations, the researcher is very likely to face an opposition of some kind.

2. A high level of effort is required to put triangulation in operation. Many instruments are needed. More time to manage those instruments is essential; and sometimes extra manpower like that of the neutral observers may also be needed. Above all, extra time is needed to analyze the bulk of data collected.

3. Triangulation needs well experienced, trained aide and knowledgeable researchers. The researcher is to know exactly when different methods are to overlap, and or, supplement each other.

4. Triangulation is time consuming. By its nature, it requires more time in the field and in analyzing data. This is difficult because every study is time-limited.

5. Traditions may be a fetter to the use of some research methods. For example in some cultures, freedom of expression is affected when people of opposite sex meet.

6. Triangulation is costly. More manpower, more instruments, more approaches, extra time-and therefore, more money is required.

There are six types of triangulation. Denzin (1970) and Cohen and Manion (1994) discuss these types of triangulation in depth. They include time, space, combined levels, theoretical, investigator and methodological triangulation. In this study, only the investigator and methodological triangulation were used in collecting data.

Under investigator triangulation, efforts were made to increase the number of investigators as the means to better findings. The Guide was also made the Assistant Researcher. As investigators, the researcher and the Assistant Researcher operated independent of the other, and shared their impressions later. Investigator triangulation had three implications on this study. First, a lot of data were collected at a go on every aspect. Second, brainstorming and discussions between researchers contributed to the production of refined impressions and identification of new lines of inquiry. Third, investigator triangulation was an economical use of time: much data, good outcomes and lesser time investment. For the purpose of this study, methodological triangulation as a multiple-data collection technique, included questionnaire, interview and observation.

Questionnaires

Questionnaires were used in collecting data for this study. They are a useful means of collecting data in different types of studies like surveys, evaluations, experimental and action research. Campbell and Stanley (1963), Hoinville and Jowel (1978), Belson (1986) and Somekh, Posch and Altrichter (1993), give the detailed accounts of questionnaires as a research method. They have both advantages and disadvantages. Some of the advantages of questionnaires which many research methodologists identify, are as follows:

1. Questionnaires can cover a larger part of the population in the study.

2. Questionnaires are easy to administer and analyze.
3. Participants are free of any pressure from the researcher when filling in questionnaires, therefore the possibility of them being honest is great.
4. They permit the tapping of specific information which cannot otherwise be tapped with other research methods.
5. It is possible to tap opinions in questionnaire.
6. It is possible to cross-check the questionnaire data with those produced by other methods.
7. It is possible to use questionnaires along with other methods.

There are also disadvantages in using questionnaires. These include the following:

1. It is not guaranteed that whomsoever receives the questionnaire to complete, will respond to it accordingly. It can be underweighed or neglected.
2. There is no probing. Thus the doubts and issues raised by the responses remain unclear to the researcher.
3. It is impossible to confirm the understanding or the position of the participant.
4. The researcher does not have the opportunity to explain the study or any question to participants. Hence, doubts of participants over the study and some questions, remain unclear.
5. Participants have a limited chance for self expression.
6. There is no direct verbal exchange between participants and the researcher.

7. The researcher remains ignorant of the context in which the questionnaire was completed. This can affect the analysis that will follow.

For questionnaires to be more useful, their disadvantages are to be controlled. Fetterman (1989) suggests that the main way of controlling questionnaire disadvantages is winning over participants. Participants should know the value of the study. A sense that the study is important, should be inculcated in them; and, the style should be welcoming to participants. However, Fetterman (1989) and Cohen and Manion (1994) come to one point of agreement. they agree that the advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires are embodied in the settings-that is, participants tackle them in the absence of the researcher, in their own environment and at their own convenience. To minimize or control the weaknesses of the questionnaire, the researcher created an imaginative setting in the layout of the questionnaire and in the communication with participants. Moreover, they were used with other research methods.

In this study, questionnaires sought to tap the understanding and the experience of the population sample in the co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. The questionnaires had enough spaces to allow detailed responses. They were in Kiswahili, because that was the language participants would be more comfortable with. A combination of close-ended and open-ended type of questions were used in all questionnaires. The open-ended

questions were used for tapping specific information. Open-ended questions were used in tapping personal understanding, views and opinions, as they allowed freedom of expression.

The Interviews

The interview was another research method used in this study. The interview is a conversation. It is a dialogue characterized by asking questions and listening. It is a dialogue for the specific purpose of getting relevant information for the research. Interviews are systematic descriptions leading to predictions about the respective phenomena (Lucas, 1974; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Fetterman, 1989; Patton, 1990; Cohen and Manion, 1994; Fontana and Frey, 1994; Mertens and McLaughlin, 1995). In this respect, there are five main kinds of interviews that may be used as research tools. These include the structured and semi-structured interviews, the unstructured, the non-directive and the focused interviews.

There were both advantages and disadvantages to the use of the interviews in this study. The following were some of the advantages of using interviews in this inquiry.

1. There was a direct social contact between the researcher and the participants.
2. The researcher was in full control of the interview situation.
3. There was always a possibility of probing for elaboration or more information.

4. Participants had more freedom of expression.
5. There was a possibility of the researcher explaining the objectives of the research and even elaborating some questions whenever necessary, thereby maximizing participants participation and accuracy in responses.
6. The researcher directly experienced and witnessed the realities and situations in the field. This contributed to personal understanding and analysis of the situation.
7. The interviews produced the bulk of data.
8. Interviews gave the researcher the first-hand information about the co-ordination of these services.
9. They enabled the researcher to develop personal friendship with participants. This made it easier for the application of other research methods when the need arose.
10. It was possible to cross-check the collected data while still in the field.
11. The interview data could be cross-checked with any other data produced by other research methods.
12. The interviews could also be used along with any other research methods.

There were also disadvantages in using this technique. These included the following:

1. Only a small proportion of the population was included in the study because of the time which is usually needed in conducting the interviews and organizing the bulk of data they produce.

2. There was the possibility of the data being biased. The following factors may have contributed bias to the interview data:

(a) The researcher being dominated by value judgments, personal perceptions and beliefs.

(b) Participants becoming reserved, and thereby withholding information.

(c) Participants deciding for whatever reason, to impress the researcher.

3. Interviewing needed a well trained and experienced researcher to conduct. This is because it is important to know when to probe, withdraw, advance or establish a new line of questioning. Or, the researcher was to be able to detect the change of tone or behaviour in the participant. This is because the change may signify the sensitivity of the question, the ill-feelings of the participant towards the question, or intolerance of the participant to the interview situation.

4. Interviews produced a bulk of data which needed more time to analyze.

5. There was a danger of the researcher being carried away from the cause of the study by the interview situation, thereby using more time for nothing or collecting irrelevant data.

The disadvantages that became inherent in interviews as a research method were minimized or controlled by using it along with other research methods, the researcher keeping much closer with its principles, and winning the confidence and the cooperation of participants.

Two types of interviews were used in data collection for this study. These were non-directive and focused interviews. The non-directive type of interviews were used in introducing the researcher to the problem under investigation. Participants were given specific topic areas to talk about. In this case, the participant had an upper hand in the dialogue. The researcher technically guided the talk by asking questions that kept the discussion within the limits set by the purpose and objectives of the study. The researcher left the participant to guide the discussion by talking the mind. The researcher was more like a pupil in the class, and asked specific questions seeking clarification of issues.

Focused interviews were used in probing claims, issues and that were unfolding themselves in the field. These interviews were conducted on the basis of equality. Both the researcher and the participant became equal active participants. They were basically a discussion on specific topic arrangements between the two. The time for the discussion was agreed between the two; and, the discussion was purely an exchange of ideas on various possibilities, impossibilities, dynamics and statics in the discussion areas.

Throughout the interview situations in this study, it was a two-way traffic discussion between the interviewer and the interviewee. The interviewee was always encouraged to talk and lead the discussion. The researcher was always technically focusing the discussion on the

content specified by the research objectives, but with a clear mind that the interviewee has a higher knowledge and understanding of the co-ordination of these services. The purpose was to learn much from this knowledge and understanding of the interviewee. Thus, the interviews were grounded in mutual understanding, trust and social relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee.

Both individual and group interview approaches were used in this study. The individual interviewing approach was used for headteachers, heads of special education units in schools, principals, regional educational officers, district educational officers, the Acting Head of the Special Education Unit at the Ministry of Education and Culture, two co-ordinators of the education of visually impaired persons at this unit, regional social welfare officers, district social welfare officers, two Assistant Commissioners at the Department of Social Welfare, and executives of charities. Group interviews were used for specialist teachers, constitutional bodies (committees, boards and councils) of charities, and, visually impaired and blind teachers.

Observation

Another method that was used in gathering data for this study is observation. There were advantages and disadvantages in its use.

The advantages of observation as a research method in this study were as follows:

1. The researcher witnessed actions and actors in action. This increased the chance of relating events well and quickly.
2. It was possible for the researcher to get involved in the whole process while observing. This provided an opportunity to practically experience the social interactions in service provision.

Some of the disadvantages of observation in this inquiry were as follows:

1. There was the possibility of the data being affected by bias. Biasness might be caused by:
 - (a) The value judgments, attitudes and prejudices of the researcher. The researcher might be led by personal perceptions during observing.
 - (b) Those being observed demonstrating a cover-up behaviour to prevent the researcher from knowing how actually they behave or perform.
2. It was very difficult to decide on what actually to observe, because there were no clear-cut procedures for that.
4. It was sometimes difficult to balance between observing and noting down the observational points.
5. There was a need for a well trained and well experienced observer to conduct observations.
6. The visual loss limited the capacity of the researcher in observing.

In this study, both participant and non-participant types of observation were used. The passive participation kind of non-participation was

used alongside the moderate kind of participation. The moderate kind of participation was used in natural settings, while passive non-participation was used in artificial settings like offices of government ministries and departments, educational institutions and charities. Observing internal social interactions of such organizations was a good source of data for this study. Moderate participation was used because it permits minimum activeness and the flexibility needed to accommodate the changes that might arise in the setting.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Data were collected from six regions of the United Republic of Tanzania. These were Dar Es Salaam, Dodoma, Iringa, Mtwara, Singida and Tanga. Tabora region which was also in the original plan, was not included because of the time-limit. Eight primary schools were studied. These were Uhuru Mchanganyiko in Dar Es Salaam, Buigiri and Hombolo-Bwawani in Dodoma, Makalala in Iringa, Masasi in Mtwara, Ikungi in Singida, and Pongwe-Bweni and Irente in Tanga. Three secondary schools were also included in the study. These were Mpwapwa Secondary School in Dodoma, Korogwe Girls Secondary School in Tanga, and Polmelini Secondary School in Iringa. The first two were government schools, while the last one was a Lutheran Church school. Teachers in vocational training centres were not included because the centres were closed by the time of the study. Only the principal of Mtapika Vocational Training Centre was available for an interview. One Folk Development College of Anatoglou in Dar Es

Salaam was selected. The district education offices responsible for these schools were sampled for the study, as well as their regional offices. Where the school was run by the church, that particular church became the focus of the study. The Ministry of Education and Culture, the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology, the Department of Social Welfare and the Department of Folk Development Colleges, were also studied. Data were also collected from TLB and TSB.

The sample size in this study was 324. It was composed of interviewees and those who completed the questionnaire. Those interviewed were 128, while those completing the questionnaire were 196. Those interviewed included two Assistant Commissioners in the Department of Social Welfare, five Regional Social Welfare Officers, three District Social Welfare Officers; The Acting Head of the Special Education Unit at MOEC, his two Assistants responsible for the education of visually impaired and blind people at the Unit, four Regional Education Officers, six District Education Officers; eight Headteachers, ten Heads of Special Education Units in schools and colleges, one headmistress, one headmaster, two principals, twenty-six specialist teachers; two Heads of Education Departments in charities, one executive of charities; and, forty-three visually impaired and blind teachers. Among those interviewed, were also three retired staff and executives of charities, two retired government officials, three retired

teachers, two specialist teachers who were no longer working in the services; and, one education officer who once served in the services.

The sample size in the questionnaire was greatly determined by the returns in questionnaire schedules. To ensure that a desirable sample size was achieved, as many questionnaire schedules as possible were distributed among the population in six regions of Tanzania. The questionnaire instruments were re-adjusted and some questions dropped following a review after the questionnaire schedules distributed in Dar es Salaam were completed and returned. No re-adjustments were made after this one. The total of 282 questionnaire schedules were distributed. Out of those, the total of 196 (=69.5%) were completed and returned. Initially, the returned questionnaire schedules were 215. Of these, 19 (=8.83%) were half completed. They were thus excluded from the study, and perceived as unreturned. Of 282, 140 were distributed among teachers. Out of these, 89 (=63.57%) were returned. Among visually impaired and blind people, 53 questionnaire schedules were distributed. Out of these, 44 (=83.01%) were returned. The distribution of questionnaire schedules among social welfare officers was 40. The return was 29 (=72.5%). Among educational administrators the distribution was 22, and the return was 15 (=68.18%). With the executives and staff of charities, the distribution was 25, and returns 19 (=76%). Since the questionnaires were in print, visually impaired and blind people had their questionnaires read aloud to them by the guide or the Research

Assistant who also recorded their responses on the schedules accordingly. It appears that this factor contributed to high returns from this group. The whole of data collection was conducted in Kiswahili, because that was the language the sample was comfortable with. All the findings were later translated into English. People versed in both languages looked at the translation work so as to be sure that nothing was left out or included unnecessarily, or out of mistranslation.

The face to face and the chain-of-command follow-up techniques of maximizing questionnaire returns were used in making follow-up for returning the completed questionnaires. The face to face technique proved advantageous in five ways: first, it minimized the social distance between the researcher and participants. As a result of this, the researcher was able to develop a special relationship with participants wherever possible. This relationship acted as a stepping-stone for other techniques. Second, it gave the researcher an opportunity of stressing the importance of completing the questionnaire, the importance of the study to the participants' own career, the decisive damaging effects non-responding would have on the whole exercise, and, the necessity of cooperating. Third, the constant physical presence of the researcher on the site and the personal contacts with participants, were enough proofs to participants that there was determination and seriousness behind the study. Such simple but vital proofs, convinced participants that their cooperation and participation were crucial. Fourth, the face to face contacts between the researcher and the

participants enabled the researcher to make predictions about questionnaire returns, and be on alert for any emerging negative field situation. Fifth, the face to face technique clearly exerted the gentle person's pressure on both authorities and participants to cooperate.

The face to face technique had one main disadvantage: leaving the authorities on the side-lines. In some instances, this causes suspicion and uneasiness towards the researcher and the whole study among power-holders. In such circumstances, the good relationship that might have had developed with power-holders can be seriously damaged. To avoid conflicting with the "powerful" on sites, authorities are to be dealt with carefully and with respect (Fullan, 1992). To avoid conflicting with power-holders, authorities were kept informed of all the movements on the site, the researcher frequently reviewed the progress in participants' participation, and the availability of data needed with authorities. As a result, a special kind of relationship with power-holders developed. Power-holders became highly cooperative and motivating. However, the researcher had to keep a certain level of distance from authorities to save the study from being turned into an administrative affair. This was important because where there are groups differing in status, interests and aspirations involved in the study, the researcher is to be neutral as much as possible to command acceptance, trust and confidence in all groups (Fullan, 1992).

The chain-of-command follow-up technique was meant to involve authorities in ensuring high returns in questionnaires, as well as the

availability of needed data. Because authorities kept a lot of information and were responsible for the daily administration of the study sites, their cooperation was vital. There were three ways of getting and maximizing this cooperation. One, the researcher obtained from relevant authorities valid documents for introduction and permission to conduct the study. The introductory letter from the University of Manchester could not be used because the University of Manchester is a foreign institution. In this case therefore, what the law says concerning researchers and research, was to be put into context. An introductory letter from the Open University of Tanzania was used in getting the permission documents from all relevant authorities ranging from ministerial, through departmental, regional and district to institutional administration. Two, the legal status of the permission documents was binding to all authorities encountered. Since the permission was according to law, all authorities prescribed in them had to cooperate. However, the force of law does not necessarily mean success or commitment. Hence, the researcher had to make extra efforts to win over the commitment and support of power-holders as individuals. Three, while in the field, the researcher kept close contact and friendly relations with authorities. Due to this, the study and the researcher imperson were not perceived as a threat to anybody. Hence, many power-holders were ready to assist.

The advantages of using this technique included the following: one, the researcher was being helped in looking for participants, many of whom

he had never known before. Many of the participants were known to their institutions administration. It was much easier for the researcher to make a follow-up on the authority, so that the structure reminds its staff about completing and returning questionnaires. The technique made authorities in these services responsible for the study. Every authority was instructing its next lower authority to make sure the data collection was a success, to cooperate and to give the researcher every assistance required. Two, the technique made the study a jointly owned exercise between the researcher and these authorities. They allowed access to any area, individuals and materials under their jurisdiction. They frequently sought, and were happy to be briefed about how the whole exercise was going-on; and they were always delighted to share impressions about these services with the researcher.

There was one dangerous threat posed by this technique to the study. Where relations were bitter between the authority and staff, it was possible for some people to identify the researcher and the study with the authority they knew was providing assistance. In such circumstances, participants would treat the researcher and the study with caution, and withhold information for the fear of victimization. The importance of preserving sound relationship with the participants was always at stake throughout all follow-up endeavour, because tempering with that relationship would have adversely affected their participation in the study.

Interviewees were selected on the basis of how strategically they were placed in these services. Thus, the Acting Head of the special education unit at the Ministry of Education and Culture and his two Assistants responsible for the education of visually impaired people, regional and district educational officers, Heads of schools and their Heads of their special education units, principals of colleges and their Heads of special education units, principals of vocational training centres, two Assistant Commissioners at the Department of Social Welfare, the executives of charities, specialist teachers and visually impaired and blind teachers, were interviewed. The researcher used personal relationship with interviewees to identify other possible next interviewees. Due to this technique the sample size expanded.

The non-directive and focused types of interviews were used in this study. In the non-directive interviews, the researcher did not exert any controls on the interview situation. The whole situation was open. The researcher sat listening to the interviewee, allowing to be led in the discussion. In the course of the talk, the researcher sought clarifications by raising issues, concerns and claims as it was deemed necessary to make the discussion lively and to keep the whole interview on the right track. This made the whole interview situation natural-that is, a two-way traffic talk. The grand tour type of questions were used. These are either set general questions or general topics covering a larger area if compared to specific questions. The grand

four questions normally familiarize the researcher to the field situations (Hedges, 1985; Watts and Ebbutt, 1987; Fetterman, 1989).

The use of the non-directive interviews had two advantages in this study. First, the researcher was introduced to the co-ordination of the services by the "insiders" to the services. Two, the talk was kept within the objectives of the study.

There were two problems in conducting non-directive interviews. First, some interviewees made the interview situation quite artificial. They prepared their talk in the form of papers or speeches to be read out to the interviewer during the interview. In such circumstances, the interviewer was turned into an audience with a very small chance of making the situation otherwise. Where and when the interview was artificialized, the researcher was left with a very small room for probing and raising issues of special importance. Second, sometimes interviewees sought to balance between personal and organizational reputation with the objectives of the interview. As a result, some of them openly defended their personal or organizational role and position in these services. In such situations the researcher was faced by a problem of keeping a delicate balance between facts, realities and value judgment, presented by the interviewee on the one hand, and his own experience coupled with the field situation on the other.

Probing facilitated the process of maintaining this delicate balance. There were three main ways of maximizing this delicacy. First, getting interviewees' perception and understanding of the co-ordination of the services understood clearly by the researcher. The what, when, how and why questions, helped more. Second, construct questions were used to indulge interviewees in the meaning of situations. Questions like how do you compare (a) and (b), or what do you make of (c), were quite decisive in this. In such situations interviewees were made to draw comparisons of different situations and things in the co-ordination of the services. Third, interviewees were made to influence the researcher's feelings and analysis by being pinned to form opinions, issues, claims and concerns. The what, when, how and why questions proved useful also in this.

Focused interviews were used for further investigation of specific issues. They were thus follow-up interviews. Focused interviews are used when researchers want to cross-check or clarify the already obtained information. They are useful in clearing issues, concerns and claims by bringing back key sources of information back into the study. Unlike the non-directive type of the interviews, the researcher exercises a limited level of control over the focused interview situation. This limited control is imposed on the interview situation through the type of questions used, and the leading role the researcher takes during the interview (Fetterman, 1989; Marshal and Rossman, 1989; Cohen and Manion, 1994; Fontana and Frey, 1994).

The focused interviews were used in two ways in this study. Firstly, they were used as means of getting clarifications from interviewees who had already been interviewed. The preceding experience with interviewees influenced the way the focused interviews were conducted. Those who artificialized the non-directive interview situation were not given the topics in advance. They were simply requested to spare the researcher sometime for a general discussion about the services. The results were encouraging. All interviewees approached this way remained cooperative, and in some cases gave more information than in non-directive interviews. There were three reasons for this. One, the researcher had a wider room for probing. Two, the discussion was more focused. Finally, it was possible that by the time of focused interviews participants had developed more confidence and trust in the researcher and the study. Secondly, focused interviews were also used for those who were being interviewed for the first time. These were indicated by participants as having a thorough knowledge of issues being clarified. Such interviewees were given the topics for the talk before hand.

During interviews, the researcher encouraged interviewees to talk around specific questions. The researcher played the role of a motivator. Interviewees were motivated to participate in the talk as equals, to expose their experiences, feelings, concerns, claims and issues surrounding the services.

As a motivator, the researcher did the following during interviews:

(a) Technically guided the interview by raising questions deemed interesting to the talk. The purpose was not to dominate the talk but to encourage the interviewee to talk more. This technical guidance from the researcher assured the interviewee of the concentration of the researcher on the talk, and at the same time kept the talk within the limits of the study objectives. This made the interview situation a two-way discussion and a live activity.

(b) Adopting the member checks to the discussion. The member checks is a technique of seeking the confirmability of the issue or point being raised by the interviewee (Oakley, 1981; Ragin, 1987; Mertens and McLaughlin, 1995). With member checks, the researcher was able to confirm or cross-check the interviewee's understanding and position concerning issues raised in the discussion. Member checks also enabled the researcher to refine his own understanding of the interviewee's point by getting the more refined view from the interviewee.

(c) Getting the approval of the interviewee over crucial and or sensitive points raised in the discussion. The researcher got this approval by simply summarizing the points and putting forward that summary together with his own understanding of those points for the interviewee to approve or disapprove.

d) Probing for clarification or more information. This included following up the same question from a different angle, restructuring a

question, clarifying it, or, bringing in completely a new issue so as to get more information about the issue under discussion.

During interviews, the researcher sought to create and maintain the friendly relationship with the interviewees as a means to successful interviewing. This was possible by creating a sense of commitment and equalitarianism. The interviewee and the interviewer were equals. The African respect of age and gender was abided with. The principle of mutual respect, friendship, sensitivity to cultural values and equalitarianism in interviews, make interviewees participants in the study. They feel that they have a mission to complete. They become cooperative. They develop a sense of trust, confidence and allegiance to the researcher (Oakley, 1981; Tesch, 1989; Fontana and Frey, 1994). The main aim in interviews was to learn a great deal from interviewees. These were believed to have a high level knowledge in these services. It was the responsibility of the researcher to extract this high level knowledge. This responsibility was fulfilled through a special relationship, trust and winning over the confidence of interviewees.

The winning over of the trust and confidence of interviewees was achieved by the following means:

(a) Explaining to interviewees the purpose and the importance of the study.

(b) Explaining and showing to interviewees clear evidence that the study was sanctioned by the relevant authorities, and that it was not an offence for them to take part.

c) Assuring interviewees of the confidentiality in the study. This relieved them of the fear of being intimidated or harassed as a result of whatever information they gave.

(d) Avoiding trying to transplant personal attitudes, feelings or judgments about the co-ordination in these services and making a show of what was already known about the system. These would have embarrassed, frustrated, influenced or even intimidated interviewees and thereby affect the credibility of the interviews.

(e) The researcher respected the right of interviewees to privacy. This means that they were not pressed to talk about things they were not willing to. This is because such pressures would have soured the good relationship the researcher was keen to preserve. The researcher was keen to the interview conditions to detect any sign of uneasiness, frustration, withdrawal, hesitation or change of tone on the part of the interviewee. Any of these conditions would have been indicating intolerance to the question, the interview situation as a whole; or the sensitivity of the question. The researcher was as flexible as possible to allow withdrawal, advances and pressures in questioning as the social situations permitted. However, retired individuals appeared to be more relaxed, cooperative and humorous than those still in the services. The approaches of interviewing adopted in this study posed problems too. For instance, in group interviewing, some individuals

adopted the role of a task man. Such individuals talked too much, and appeared to dominate the groups. Other individuals adopted the role of a social man. These were never serious. They were bringing in other issues outside the context. It was difficult to make everyone contribute to the talk, as others opted to remain quiet. However, technically such people were brought in by having their names called and asked to respond to a very specific question, or to confirm the already made claim or concern. Because of the desire of individuals to air their views, and because of the desire of involving every member of the group, group interviews were fairly long. They went up to one and a half hours the shortest. Always interviewees insisted to go on with the talk until they were satisfied that they had expressed all their concerns. On the other hand, group interviewing was very resourceful. A lot of information was always being collected at a go. In other cases, information was being corrected on the spot through discussion between interviewees. At the same time, the approach provided the means of involving a larger part of the population.

Individual interviewing had the problem of chasing individuals around. Sometimes appointments were made, but re-scheduled without any communication. In such instances, the researcher had three options available. Either first, to accept the set date as it was. Second, to cancel the interview with that individual. Or, third, to renegotiate the date and time. In other cases, especially with high power-holders, the formal requests for an interview were turned down. In some of such cases, power-holders referred the researcher to other individuals under

their jurisdiction. Individuals had a limit in terms of what they could say also. In such cases they referred the researcher to the higher authority. In some cases, the referral authority was the individual who had declined to be interviewed. In principal, individual interviews were easy to manage, and they provided total confidentiality to the information given.

Observational data were collected from two perspectives: the perspective of the researcher and the perspective of the other neutral observer. Events were recorded for scrutiny. Although visually impaired, the researcher was active in observation. This was possible because observation was not the technique which involved the sense of sight alone. However, to many research scholars observation is perceived as systematic looking (Fetterman, 1989; Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Patton, 1990; Somekh, Posch and Altrichter, 1993). In this sense, the sense of sight is seen as the only tool for observation. Such generalization underrates the important role of other senses like hearing, smell and brains. However, not all variables can be observed by sight. In this circumstance, other senses play a greater role. For example in observing the teaching process in the classroom. While the observer systematically looks at the non-verbal expressions of the teacher, the sense of hearing will be engaged in listening to all verbal expressions uttered, and the brains will be passing judgments. Observation is nothing short of learning a great deal by using every sense organ possible. Usually, learning is through all senses. Therefore, in observation commonsense has a greater role to play. The

issue is to relate what is heard, smelled, touched, sensed or even seen, with reality, expectations, norms and the study. The researcher made use of other senses to get data by observation.

The moderate type of participation observation was used in collecting data in natural settings. Under this approach, the researcher participated in some activities. For example at Masasi Primary School in Masasi, this approach gave the researcher an opportunity to accompany the Head of the special education unit to the District Council to bargain for more funds for food. At Pongwe Primary School in Tanga, the researcher participated in negotiations with the food supplier who had not been paid for so long. At Uhuru Mchanganyiko Primary School in Dar Es Salaam, the researcher participated in the meetings of the members of staff of the unit. Participation at this school was also extended to the activities of negotiating with the businessmen and businesswomen for support to the unit. In all institutions studied, the researcher personally tested the equipment like the Perkins Brailers and typewriters to see if they were in good order. The storage systems of equipment were observed to establish the way in which equipment were being kept.

The passive non-participation observation was used in artificial settings like offices. Under this technique, the researcher became an attentive listener, and the Research Assistant an attentive watcher. They did not participate in anything anyhow. They were completely alien to the interactions being observed. They observed social interactions and

administrative processes for information about the co-ordination of the services.

The researcher developed and maintained the research diary. Events, issues, claims and concerns, were recorded in the diary. The diary acted as a reminder during data analysis and laying down strategies for further research activities. The daily events were tape-recorded. These were later brailled, so that the whole diary could be in an easily accessible form to the researcher.

All the interviews and the surprises that unfolded during field work were tape-recorded. Tape-recording gave the researcher an opportunity of revising the materials and reflecting on them more freely and as frequently as he wanted to. The tape-recorded materials reminded the researcher about the actual field situations when replayed during data analysis. for convenient use, most of these materials were brailled, especially those deemed necessary and relevant to the study.

The researcher left the field when there were no longer new revelations. When there was no new information coming up, and when the researcher felt that there were enough empirical materials collected, it was the right time to get out of the field.

THE TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY

The process of making the study trustworthy is the process of setting controls in the study, so that desirable outcomes that can be seen as worthy of serious consideration are produced (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In quantitative studies, the trustworthiness of the study is set by the treatment the researcher carries out on the variables. As a result, control, manipulation and selection, lead to what is perceived as desirable results. A quality quantitative study is the one with a high level internal validity, external validity, reliability, objectivity and generalizability (Miller, 1965; Yin and Heald, 1975; Shaughnessy and Zeumeister, 1985; Schofield, 1993). A quality qualitative study is the one with high credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability and authenticity. Credibility is equated with internal validity, transferability with external validity, dependability with reliability, and confirmability with objectivity (Stake, 1978; Stainback and Stainback, 1988; Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Patton, 1990; Mertens and Mclaughlin, 1995).

Credibility in qualitative studies refers to the level of correspondence between the participants' perception of the social constructs, and the way the researcher presents these perceptions (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Stainback and Stainback, 1988). In this study, the following measures were taken to enhance credibility.

(1) Prolonged and substantial engagement in the field. The researcher was engaged in the field for a quite reasonable period. Since there is no

a clear rule stipulating the length of field work in qualitative studies, the researcher remained in the field until themes and examples were repeating instead of extending.

(2) Persistent investigation was used to raise credibility in this study. Premature closure of an investigation was avoided because it leads to premature conclusions. Thus, the researcher investigated issues persistently enough to identify their different salient features, and their interconnections.

(3) Peer debriefing was also used. Throughout the study, the researcher developed and maintained a peer debriefer group with which to exchange ideas about the field findings. The peer debriefer group in this study was composed of both professionals in the services for disabled people and disabled people themselves. The ideas of this group and the challenges it posed to the researcher, refined and strengthened the researcher's perception of the revelations of the field.

(4) The negative case analysis was adopted throughout this study. Research questions were revised on the discovery of cases that would otherwise have not fitted. The negative case analysis provided the researcher with the confidence in research questions and the working hypotheses emerging out of them. When a reasonable number of cases was fit under a question and the subsequent working hypothesis, it was clear that the conclusions drawn out of that hypothesis were valid.

(5) The researcher was progressively subjective. The growth and development of constructions was closely monitored and documented throughout the study. Whatever developments, were shared with the

debriefers for an opinion of the neutral observer. This sharpened the understanding and the curiosity of the researcher, and thereby bettered the results.

(6) Member checks were used frequently during data collection. Member checks meant the researcher discussing the findings with the participants and other people not involved in the study. Both formal and informal member checks were used. Formal member checks included on-the-spot sharing of perception and understanding of the issue raised during an interview or observation. This was done by the researcher summarizing what was said or observed, and asking the person if the summary really accurately reflected the position withheld. The formal member checks gave participants an opportunity to clarify their perception and understanding of the situation of the services on the one hand, and the opportunity of counter-checking and refining personal understanding to the researcher on the other. There were two approaches to the informal member checks. First, neutral individuals went through the field notes and commented on them. Their comments became an exercise for the researcher to solve. Second, the researcher shared impressions and perceptions with the neutral individuals. This kind of brain-storming gave the neutral individuals an opportunity to challenge the impressions of the researcher. The member checks enabled the researcher to refine the constructions further.

(7) Triangulation was another important measure of increasing credibility to this study. It provided the researcher with the means of cross-checking information from different sources and methods for

consistence of evidence, both factual and non-factual. Methodological and investigator triangulation provided these means.

Another quality determinant factor in qualitative studies is the transferability of the study. Transferability is the degree of similarity between the study site and the other sites on which the study results may be tempting to be replicated. While external validity in quantitative studies is the responsibility of the researcher, transferability in qualitative studies is the personal judgment of the reader. The researcher is a mere facilitator to the reader's judgment (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Guba and Lincoln, 1989).

In this study, the researcher facilitated the reader's process of judging the transferability of the study by providing a detailed account of every aspect of the field situation. A thick description of time, place, context and culture, was given on every aspect of the study. This put the study more into its context, and made it more transparent to both the researcher and the reader.

Dependability is another criterion used in creating trustworthiness in this study. It is a qualitative parallel of reliability in quantitative studies. Dependability is a process of tracing, inspecting and recording changes in the study (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Stainback and Stainback, 1988; Guba and Lincoln, 1989). In establishing dependability in this study, the researcher frequently carried out a dependability audit. This meant

the researcher always testing the quality and the precise nature of every inquiry step for every issue, claim and concern. This sometimes led to adjustments in the inquiry plan. Where the adjustments were made, it was clearly documented explaining the reasons behind the adjustments and the way the study was made more accurate in the new path.

Confirmability is another criterion that made this study trustworthy. This is a qualitative parallel of objectivity in quantitative studies. Confirmability is determined by the level to which the data and their interpretation are not a presentation of the researcher's own imaginations and preconceived judgments. This means that the qualitative data are trustworthy when they are a true presentation of the views and opinions upheld by participants. In this sense, they can be traced to their original source and the analysis mechanism explicitly known (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Stainback and Stainback, 1988; Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Patton, 1990).

In this study, the researcher made sure that the data can be traced to their original sources by making the sample and the sampling procedure known and understood. Also, the researcher made it possible for the process of synthesizing and analyzing data in this study to be confirmed.

These were achieved by maintaining a balance with the participants. This balance was made more effective with the use of member checks, the peer debriefer group and triangulation techniques.

The final aspect of trustworthiness in this study is authenticity. This refers to the researcher presenting a balanced view of all perspectives, values and beliefs surrounding the study. Authenticity in qualitative studies denotes fairness and ontological questions (Stainback and Stainback, 1988; Guba and Lincoln, 1989).

Fairness in this study encompassed the extent to which different constructions and their underlying value complexities were studied and honored. In order to be fair, the researcher identified participants and recorded the context in which their information was obtained. Conflicts, value and norm differences between groups and organizations under study, was clearly displayed. This means that the varying viewpoints, both against and for, were presented. There was an open negotiation between the researcher and the participants on recommendations and an agenda for future actions.

Ontological authenticity refers to the balance between participants' experiences in their daily operations and their being conscious of the principles and guidelines directing their performance and duties (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). Thus, the researcher kept a balance between the information given by participants and the level of their consciousness in other social principles expected to shape their experiences, achievements and aspirations. Throughout this study, the researcher was striking a balance between the experience of participants and the

existing rules guiding the services. The testimonies of participants were primary in striking this balance.

PARADIGMS

Paradigms: Nature and Purpose

According to Patton (1990: 37), a paradigm is a world view. It is a general perspective in viewing phenomena. It is a way of breaking down the complexity of phenomena. Thus, paradigms are systematic assumptions about phenomena. Paradigms are sets of basic beliefs which deal with ultimates or principles (Guba and Lincoln, 1985: 107). Paradigms therefore, present the view of phenomena. They help those holding them, to define and understand the nature of the world or phenomena, the place of individuals in it or them, and the range of relationships that exist. Paradigms lay down principles, with which the "believer" can swim in phenomena to search for truth.

Paradigms are traditions in inquiry (Patton, 1975; Guba and Lincoln, 1985). In this sense, they present dominant perspectives in perception of phenomena. They therefore present underlying customs in conducting inquiries. They present predetermined opinions or beliefs about relationships, content, conditions and the state of phenomena. Paradigms therefore, present distinctive patterns in analyzing and conceptualizing phenomena. They prescribe to those holding them, how to go about a specific inquiry. They define for inquirers, what is

that they are to look at in a particular inquiry, and what falls within, or outside the limits of a legitimate and good inquiry.

Like any tradition, paradigms are very dynamic. They develop and change overtime. This is because they are a product of a social process. They develop as a consequence of practice and more experience gained by inquirers in the field. Thus, because the issue of conducting research has been given more emphasis of the late, paradigms are being continuously altered. Some are being almost rendered obsolete. Others are being more refined, and new ones are being developed.

Any paradigm addresses three fundamental issues of research. These are the ontological, the epistemological and the methodological questions(Guba and Lincoln, 1985). The ontological question is about the form and nature of reality to be studied. Here, paradigms prescribe the focus of studies. They tell the inquirer where to concentrate, for good results. On the epistemological question, paradigms prescribe the relationship between the inquirer and the reality under investigation. They prescribe the ways with which to produce valid results. With the methodological question, they show how the inquirer can find about whatever is believed possible to be known from the reality being investigated. However, this does not refer to methods. Whatever methods the inquirer uses, they are always fitted into a methodology predetermined by the adopted paradigm. For the purpose of this study, the sociological paradigm was used.

THE SOCIOLOGICAL PARADIGM

This paradigm was adopted for this study because it is an analytical and critical paradigm (Colman, 1978; Lemert, 1990; Lincoln, 1994). Its analytical and critical nature, enabled the researcher to separate retorricks from realities in co-ordination.

Writing about this paradigm, Lane (1981: 8) stressed: "It takes as its subject matter, the recurring relationships between human beings, which are manifested in various social groups and institutions, each having goals, beliefs, structures and social effects." This principle in this paradigm, made the researcher more focused in determining the way different groups in the services and their co-ordination, related to each other. The purpose was to understand the way their beliefs and aspirations affected their relations and co-ordination.

The sociological paradigm focuses on practices as they are rather than as they were intended to be by their advocates (Lane, 1981: 9). In analytically and critically studying practices, a researcher upholding the sociological paradigm will immerse into the journey between rhetoric and practice. The relationship between practitioners and policy makers, the relationship between these two groups and the consumers or beneficiaries, and the relationship between policy making and practice on the one hand, with theory on the other, become the centre of the investigation, so as to establish the legitimacy and the appropriateness of the rhetoric and practices in place. In attempting to understand the

balance between retorrics and practice in co-ordination in these services, the study concentrated on the relationship between policy makers and people like teachers and social welfare officers in the field. It also paid special attention to the relationship between service organizations, their staff and the consumers of the services: visually impaired and blind people. Also, concentration was on the relationship between actions by managers, administrators, teachers and social welfare officers with the theory underlying co-ordination of the services. The matching of actions with theory, or their differences, was tested against feelings and perception of the services and co-ordination, held by studied groups in the services.

This paradigm also uses the relationship between legal or formal authority and individuals, to explain phenomena (Colman, 1978; Tomlinson and Barton, 1981). The focus is on how the legal or formal authority is being used, the way it affects the lives and conscience of individuals and vice-versa. This reveals the prevailing attitudes of both individuals and the legal authority towards each other, and the responses they are likely to adopt. In this study, legal authority was taken to be the positions of management and administration held by individuals. Studying the relationship between these positions and individuals under their jurisdiction, revealed the type and level of consensus that existed between the two. The agreement or disagreement between the two, revealed the kind of co-ordination problems inherent in the system.

For better results in the study, two more attributes were added to the paradigm. First, informal authority. An informal authority is the form of authority paralleling the legal one. It is when people pose as if they have authority to act, and make or influence decisions (Finch, Jones and Litterer, 1976). Studying the strategically placed in the co-ordination system, it revealed how the informal authority was used in the services. Secondly, there was the issue of relationship between authorities. Here, authorities were perceived to be positions in organizational charts, and organizations themselves. Thus, the way different positions and organizations related to each other, was studied. This revealed the patterns of participation, co-ordination linkages, and patterns of policy and decision making in the system.

SUMMARY

This chapter presented the research design of this study. The study was an investigation of the co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. It explored the forces that contributed to the emergence and consolidation of the existing co-ordination system, its current state, and its effectiveness. The study was carried out in six regions. It included eight primary schools, three secondary schools, one college, and a number of managerial and administrative authorities in the service. The study was qualitative.

The study population was comprised of teachers, social welfare officers, educational administrators, staff and executives of charities,

and visually impaired and blind people themselves. The criteria of experience in these services were used in selecting the population and the sample. The purposive, snowballing, and opportunistic sampling techniques, were used. All of them had implications to the study.

Different data collection methods were also used. These included triangulation, questionnaires, interviews, documentary reviews and observation. None of these was perfect. They were all with problems in application. Hence, steps were to be taken to ensure their safe and advantageous use for the study.

The chapter also discussed the nature and purpose of paradigms. Paradigms, are perspectives in world view. They are beliefs and traditions in describing phenomena. They contain principles and assumptions underlying the studying of phenomena. They address three fundamental questions of ontology, epistemology and methodology in research. The sociological paradigm was adopted for this study. This is an analytical and critical paradigm. It enabled the researcher to separate rhetoric from realities in co-ordination. Basically, the sociological paradigm focuses on the relationship between individuals of different social groups and institutions, and the way this relationship affects them and their daily duties. It also focuses on practices as they are, and not as they were intended to be. The relationship between the legal or formal authority and individuals under its jurisdiction, is another issue in the sociological paradigm. The focus is how the formal or legal

authority and individuals, affect each other in daily activities. However, the researcher added two aspects to the paradigm. One, the informal authority was added, so as to be able to study activities and relationships outside the formal or legal structure of co-ordination, and the way they affected the system. Two, there was the issue of relationship between authorities. This focused on how different positions and organizations related to one another, and the way their relationship affected co-ordination.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

This chapter presents the method of data analysis in this study. After you have read it, you should understand:

1. That qualitative data analysis procedures were used in analyzing data in this study;
2. Initial analysis during planning this study;
3. The making sense of data in the initial analysis stage;
4. The initial analytical analysis in this study;
5. The initial content analysis of data in this study;
6. The initial critical analysis of data in this study; and
7. The final analysis stage in analyzing data in this study.

DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is the process of putting data into context. It is principally the process of developing and building meanings, perceptions and interpretations on the basis of the data in hand (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Guba and Lincoln, 1989). While in other types of research data analysis starts after data collection, in qualitative studies analysis and data collection begin simultaneously. The researcher in this sense, is a human research instrument discriminating among different types of data and different research methods before even the data are collected, or the available data are analyzed. Due to

this characteristic, data analysis in qualitative studies is an on-going undertaking right from the planning stage until writing the last word in the report. Data collection and data analysis in a qualitative study therefore proceed at the same pace and time. This process of collecting data and analyzing them at the same time leads to the generation of other issues which stabilize and guide the subsequent undertaking of data collection and analysis (Krathwohl, 1985; Fetterman, 1989; Patton, 1990).

In analyzing data in this study, a number of qualitative data analysis procedures were used. Data analysis procedures are the tools we normally use in interpreting and finally putting the data in context. Data analysis procedures help us to know how best we can interpret the raw data (empirical materials) so that our understanding of the situation becomes clearer, analytical and reliable as the basis for planning any future action (Stainback and Stainback, 1988; Somekh, Posch and Altrichter, 1993).

Due to the process being an ongoing undertaking, data analysis in this study was carried out in two stages. The first stage was that of initial analysis. This stage included a comprehensive analysis at the planning stage up to leaving the field. The departure from the field marked the concentration of the second stage, the final analysis stage.

THE INITIAL ANALYSIS STAGE: Planning Phase

As already indicated, qualitative data analysis starts as soon as the study starts. It is a continuous process. An initial stage of analysis is the starting point of this rigorous process. The initial analysis starts immediately as the researcher starts to think about conducting a study. This means that the research findings are produced and systematically arranged as different empirical materials are gathered. Empirical materials carry no significant meaning to the study until they are subjected to square scrutiny so as to have meanings attached to them. It is this scrutiny and the meanings attached to them that make them significant (Miles and Huberman, 1984; Stainback and Stainback, 1988; Patton, 1990; Somekh, Posch and Altrichter, 1993; Mertens and McLaughlin, 1995).

In this study, the initial data analysis stage was carried out in two phases. Phase one was the planning stage. Different existing materials about the subject of investigation were collected and scrutinized. This was the foundation phase. Books, journal articles, reports and newspapers were read and analyzed to put the investigation in context (Hakim, 1993). This phase prepared the researcher for the realities in the field, provided him with a general understanding of the situation in the services, and posed him a number of unanswered questions, issues to solve, concerns to clear and claims to verify.

The second phase started as soon as the first phase had acquired shape and the researcher had stepped into the field. In this phase, the objective was to collect as many empirical materials as possible to answer hitherto unanswered questions, verify claims, clarify issues and clear concerns.

The two phases were not discrete. They were overlappingly carried out. For instance when the researcher was distributing questionnaires and interviewing people in the field in what was supposedly the second phase, different written materials were being reviewed for any vital information for the study. Likewise, during the first phase, the researcher did not concentrate on written materials alone. Different people were consulted for their views, the views which were in turn used in planning this study. Hence, the whole of the initial analysis stage was a continuous and a systematic one, with clear objectives. There were three objectives: one, to open the mind of the researcher to an understanding of the situations and realities in the services. This was important for the advancement of true and realistic views about the services. Two, to stimulate the inquisitiveness of the researcher regarding the situations and realities in the field. The researcher's inquisitiveness was vital if as much information as possible was to be obtained. Three, to help the researcher to explain the field situations and realities in connection with the data in a more simplified style and approach.

INITIAL ANALYSIS: Making Sense of Data

In analyzing data in this study, the case analysis and the close case analysis (Patton, 1990) approaches were used. In case analysis, the researcher wrote notes for each case. In writing these notes, the researcher considered the diversity of the sample. Since the study was composed of five distinct groups, the notes prepared were according to groups. This means that each of the five groups was considered to be an independent case because they occupied different positions in the services, and therefore they had certain sorts of differing experiences. Hence, there were five cases for this study. Corroboration within a single case was the main tool with which to establish a leverage in data.

In close case analysis, all case analyses were brought together. The merger of these different case data led to the emergence of more comprehensive data, rejection of hitherto existing interpretations, and or, more refined data were obtained through aggregation of findings. Like in the previous approach, corroboration in each close case was primary. At every point in analysis, data were rigorously scrutinized.

The process of scrutinizing empirical materials and data is what is termed as "making sense of data" (Patton, 1990; Somekh, Posch and Altrichter, 1993). The process of making sense of data started with the process of data collection. There was no typically precise point at which data collection ended and analysis began. In the course of

gathering data, ideas about possible analysis were occurring. Those ideas constituted the beginning of analysis. This had two implications on this study. One, field work and data analysis were overlapping as processes. Two, during field work the researcher was also engaged in the initial data analysis as a basic prerequisite for a later stage of data production.

The process of making sense of data (scrutinizing empirical materials) was a preliminary step in analyzing data in this study. It was a descriptive stage. Data were described so as to bring their immediate initial meanings to mind. The process was meant to be a foundation for a more rigorous analysis undertaking later. The making sense of data was characterized by the researcher developing descriptions for various collected empirical materials. The descriptions presented the initial meanings of the events and the factors that precipitated them. Such descriptions enabled the researcher to attach due weight to every empirical material accordingly.

INITIAL ANALYSIS: Content Analysis

The initial analysis of data in a qualitative study is mainly featured by content analysis. Content analysis during field work forms one of the bases with which to include or exclude a particular empirical material or certain data from the study. With content analysis the researcher can investigate a broader spectrum of problems in which the communication between the researcher and the study environment can

serve as an inference. Content analysis is a point in the analysis of the qualitative data where the researcher measures the empirical materials against the whole process of their collection. For instance issues such as style of collection, the credibility of the participants, the weight of the information in hand and the mode of communication through which the particular empirical materials were collected, are examined (Holsti, 1968; Schatzman and Strauss, 1973; Somekh, Posch and Altrichter, 1993).

During content analysis, the researcher attached meanings and descriptions to events so as to have the descriptive understanding and explanations about the social interrelationships underlying co-ordination developed. Such an understanding was a key to valuable predictions and judgments about the social situations of the co-ordination system. The researcher developed impressions on the meanings. These led to reflections on some featuring relationships, patterns, similarities and differences between different data.

INITIAL ANALYSIS: Analytical Analysis

This was the process of developing conceptual leverage in data. The process of attaching meanings and descriptions to events and developing impressions on those meanings and descriptions, engaged the researcher in writing short notes for each single case as the means of developing conceptual leverage on data. The notes written were based on the theoretical knowledge of the researcher about the co-

ordination of the services so far accumulated. These theoretical notes marked the process of compiling events into narratives. The meanings and descriptions were organized into the form of stories explaining coordination analytically. These notes provided the basis with which to create an order in a bulk of data. In these notes, events were organized to present a coherent mental picture of the situation. A coherent mental picture was developed by relating different events to each other, and refining the perception and the interpretation of events and situations in the services.

In writing field notes at any point in the research process, the researcher was analytical of all the empirical materials, data and the situations in the field. This analytic character made this stage the analytical one. The meanings and descriptions previously attached to different events were refined, facts re-examined, relationships re-explained and concepts redefined. During this process, new ideas, theories, questions and explanations that came to mind were recorded to stimulate more research activities and for use in the following stage of analysis. In recording them, a brief account of the data or an event that gave rise to any of them was also included. Such accounts acted as reminders in the following stage of analysis. It is at this point that these field notes became a key for a move from the mere details of events to an advanced stage of a conceptual level, the level of uncovering relationships underlying the phenomena, finding the

significance of those relationships, and the level of uncovering the underlying theories and developing the new ones as well.

Throughout the analytical process, the researcher distinguished and chose between logical and enticing paths; between valid and invalid but fascinating data, and between genuine patterns in the co-ordination of the services and series of apparently similar and distinct reactions. The best guide in this, was clear thinking. This guided the processing of information in a very meaningful and useful manner piece by piece.

The analytical process in data analysis set the process of isolating simple perceptions from the complex ones in motion. This process was dependent on clear thinking. It was further stabilized by an assortment of basic theories and models to focus and limit the scope of the investigation. In this view therefore, field notes were the means of storing the various ideas that emerged in the research process. To give the field notes weight, they were labelled with the striking word or sentence for every single case.

INITIAL ANALYSIS: The Critical Analysis

After analytically organizing the data, the critical analysis process came to effect. The field notes were revisited with the constructive activities being carried out. The data created during the analytic process were tested: Are events really captured? Are the data focusing on the central issues in both the events and the study? Is the presentation of data

clarifying the underlying relationships between events? Is the interpretation so far made explaining well the data? Is the interpretation and the mode of data presentation stimulating further analysis? Such questions tended to guide the critical stage of data analysis in this study. The purpose was to make a critical examination of the analytic process, to identify shortcomings in the data collected and to determine how research activities in the field were still necessary to the study.

During critical analysis, various data were organized into more detailed notes. In developing these detailed notes, the logic and the correspondence of data to the established initial impressions were critically analyzed. This brought an improved conceptual leverage to the data. It improved identification and understanding of the main features and concepts in the data. By critically examining these features and concepts, comparisons, contrasts and correspondence in data were isolated. New concepts and ideas were critically tested along with the preceding analytic outcomes to get their more refined versions. At this point, data were categorized and coded. Different single cases with similar data were amalgamated into one category. Each category usually represented a particular sub-theme in data. For remembering, order and a clear reflection on the content of the categories, each category was labelled with a catchy word or sentence. Then, they were coded.

Coding is the process of grouping a number of categories under one main theme. Usually categories represent more focused and more narrowed themes. Codes on the other hand, present major themes, and therefore general items of the study (Schatzman and Strauss, 1973; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Fetterman, 1989; Somekh, Posch and Altrichter, 1993).

There are two ways of developing categories and codes: the deductive and the inductive ways. Under the deductive way, the researcher plays the dominant role. The researcher bases on personal theoretical knowledge to create categories and codes independent of the data. After the researcher has already decided on the sub-themes and major themes, then the data are searched through for relevant passages. However, the inductive way of developing categories and codes is dependent on data. The data determine the size, type and amount of categories and codes to be adopted, and not the researcher. The catchy words or sentences to be used against different sub-themes (categories) or major themes (codes), are also sorted out in the data (Schatzman, 1973).

For the purpose of this study, both the deductive and the inductive methods of developing categories and codes were used. The researcher was flexible in developing categories and codes for this study. While personal theoretical knowledge was used in developing categories and codes in this study (the deductive method), the flexibility provided an

opportunity to manipulate the surprises by data and use them in developing appropriate categories and codes (the inductive method).

Perhaps an important point to make here, is that the making sense the analytical and the critical analysis processes of data were not discrete. They were all continuous and overlapping. They were interdependent and interconnected. They all made the systematic arrangement of data while in the field possible. They enabled the researcher to detect gaps in the data. They were the tools needed for the researcher to monitor the developments in data collection. Hence, the whole of the initial analysis stage enabled the researcher to be acquainted with the realities in the services and the means of controlling the emerging problems in the field.

Throughout the initial analysis, the researcher developed, maintained and conducted the peer debriefing system. Under peer debriefing, the researcher discussed personal field impressions, initial data and field situations with other people, both professionals and non-professionals. The peer debriefers' viewpoints and arguments helped in balancing and correcting the hitherto existing reservations, feelings, findings and conclusions. Peer debriefing provided refined perception of data, and guided the next steps of the study in the process. Moreover, peer debriefing was used as a member check to the researcher's biases, understanding of phenomena and fairness to the study.

The negative case analysis was another important principle of analysis during the initial analysis of data in this study. Under this principle, the working codes and categories were revisited for the data which were not fitting. The fittingness of the data under categories and codes verify the correctness of the data. The main purpose of the negative case analysis is to refine data and identify more specific future research activities in the study (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Mertens and McLaughlin, 1995).

THE FINAL ANALYSIS STAGE

A more comprehensive and a more systematic analysis of data in a qualitative study is after the field. This is the final analysis stage of data in a qualitative study. It is when the researcher starts to reorganize the data to develop more detailed notes about events, conditions and situations in the field. Data analysis after the field is completed, is more systematic, rigorous and comprehensive if compared to the initial analysis which is normally being carried out prior and throughout field work (Tesch, 1990; Mertens and McLaughlin, 1995).

THE TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE ANALYSIS

Some scholars like Stainback and Stainback (1988) suggest that the researcher should distance himself or herself from the analysis of data for a certain period after the field so as to develop new feelings about the data. Bogdan and Biklen (1992) echoed the same view. They

suggest that by the researcher developing a gestation period in data analysis after the field, new perspectives on the data and the nature of the field are likely to come up. The problem confronting such scholars is that of maintaining fairness to the data during analysis. The fears are that the horrors and the delights of the field might carry the researcher away from fairness if the gestation period is not observed. The main assumption underlying this suggestion is that by observing a gestation period in data analysis, the researcher will resume data analysis completely as a new person free from the horrors and the delights of the field, and thereby free from any bias.

However, the problem lies in how to establish the gestation period without actually working on the data. If new perspectives about the data and the field are to develop, the researcher must reflect on the data and the experience in the field. They are these reflections that act as a catalyst in the development of new perspectives on data and experiences in the field. Still, there is a danger of the researcher losing the horrors, the delights and the settings that produced the bulk of data collected. These are very important in data analysis because they help the researcher in explaining why certain data were obtained. The horrors and the delights of the field provide the data being interpreted with the actual fittingness into the setting of phenomena under investigation (Guba and Lincoln, 1981; 1982; Schofield, 1993).

To avoid the researcher losing the memories of the field (which were equally important for analysis), the researcher did not observe any gestation period between the initial and the final stages of data analysis. The two stages were intertwined and interdependent. Working on analysis with a fresh memory of the field still ringing in mind, enabled the researcher to relate every bit of the analysis with a specific situation in the field. The issue at stake was how to do so without affecting fairness to the data.

To ensure fairness during analysis, the quality control mechanisms were used throughout. To put these quality controls in effect, the analysis was systematic and comprehensive, but as flexible as possible to accommodate the criticisms regarding the fairness of the researcher to the analysis, the accuracy of the conclusions drawn, the internal coherence of the data and the support of data to the conclusions made and vice-versa.

THE FINAL MAKING SENSE OF DATA

At this point in analysis, the task becomes of making sense of data by identifying significant patterns and constructing the framework within which to present and explain what the data reveal (Fetterman, 1989; Patton, 1990; Tesch, 1990; Mertens and McLaughlin, 1995). The final analysis stage of qualitative data begins with the researcher revising the whole of the initial stage. In revising the data, the researcher goes through all smaller units of data systematically, carefully, analytically

and critically. In the process, reorganization of the data is carried out. The making sense of data in the final analysis stage defines the moments of telling whether or not truth and clarity exists in the voluminous data in hand. The main purpose is to simply use the data in explaining phenomena.

During making sense of data in final analysis in this study, the researcher carried out the critical content analysis of data. The units of analysis ranged from single words, through groups of words to single sentences and passages. The main purpose during content analysis was to identify contradicting versions, ideas and meanings. This helped in maintaining the purpose and the context of the study on data. All contradictory elements were recorded for further content analysis.

Data were inductively scrutinized. Their different blocks were reorganized as they were being refined. This meant that the reorganization was to be predominantly guided by the findings being presented in every single case analysis. This had three implications to data analysis in this study. First, additional or new categories and codes emerged. Second, some of the categories or codes that had emerged from the initial analysis were proved to be unimportant, misplaced or inappropriate. The unimportant categories or codes were excluded from the study. The inappropriate ones were reformed to suit the study findings, or abandoned. Those misplaced were rightly placed. Third, the more voluminous data from the initial analysis continued to decrease in size.

THE FINAL ANALYTICAL ANALYSIS

After induction, categories and codes were analytically reviewed for any sign of mislabelling. To be analytical about the existing categories and codes, a comparison and a contrast was drawn between data under their categories and codes to detect similarities, differences and correspondence. As a result of this analytical analysis, categories and codes were refined and the conceptual framework redefined therefore.

By the researcher being analytical during the final stages of data analysis, different explanations and patterns being presented by the data during the initial analysis are being well verified (Guba and Lincoln, 1989). In this study, the analytical analysis of the data helped in separating the negative evidence from the positive one. Both of them were recorded for use in further analysis. This phase of analysis was crucial in understanding and explaining the significance of each pattern that emerged from the data. The preceding descriptions of data were re-visited and refined further so that they present data in a more coherent and a more simple way and style. The dominant claims, issues and concerns raised by the data were recorded for the purpose of further analysis activities.

THE FINAL CRITICAL ANALYSIS

After analytically organizing the findings, the researcher was then faced with the task of judging the quality of the data. This was the critical point of analysis in this stage. The issue was whether or not

the data reflected the participants' perception of co-ordination in the services. There were three ways to this. First, peer debriefing. This was the use of a neutral person to critically review the analysis. Hence, the researcher allowed other individuals to challenge the interpretations done. The criticisms of these individuals were used in keeping the analysis on the right track. Second, the researcher persistently searched and compared the raw data with the summaries made. This permitted the control of gaps in data. Third, the negative case analysis was used in maintaining this fairness. This was done in three ways. One, all the emerging themes were tested against categories to see the way they fitted in. This led to their being dropped from the study if they did not fit well in any category. After this step, categories became more refined. Two, all the categories were tested against their respective codes to be sure of their fittingness in them. As a result of this, some new categories emerged, while some of the old ones were being dropped as they were proved inappropriate. Others were moved to new codes where they fitted better. Three, all codes were revisited to see whether or not they presented a coherent mental picture of the co-ordination of the services.

Generally, as a result of the negative case analysis, the data were even more reorganized to produce a more coherent mental picture of the situation in the co-ordination of these services. This coherent mental picture formed a higher order of synthesis grounded firmly in descriptions, patterns and themes in data on the one hand, and the

theory on the other. A combination of all these measures was decisive in keeping the data in context, and as close as possible to the respondents' perception of the co-ordination of the services.

The process of critically examining and refining the data was accompanied with the writing of more condensed notes to present the findings in a more fashionable and shorter formats. In these notes, the whole of the critical process was recorded and audited to see if fairness to data, respondents and the services was maintained. Like in the initial stage of data analysis, the outlined procedures in the final analysis stage were not discrete. They were overlapping. They were interdependent and interconnected. Thus, they were all used concurrently and consecutively. They were used this way from the day the analysis started, until when the research report was completed.

Data analysis in qualitative studies has no any clear-cut rule that the analysis is complete. In quantitative studies, the completion of the tests of significance may signify the end of the analysis. While the researcher is made aware that the analysis is complete by the completion of the tests of significance in quantitative studies, in qualitative studies the researcher is to depend on personal intellectual, knowhow and imaginative abilities in establishing that the process of analyzing data is complete. Data analysis in a qualitative study is to continue until when it is no longer yielding new significant results

(Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Guba and Lincoln, 1989; Patton, 1990; Mertens and McLaughlin, 1995).

In this study, there were three preconditions for data analysis to be assumed complete. One, data analysis to stop as soon as there were no new meanings and information coming out of the data. Two, it was also assumed complete when there was reasonably lesser criticism from the peer debriefer group. Three, the amount of negative case data in the data also influenced the decision about leaving the analysis. The analysis did not stop until the negative case data were reasonably reduced.

SUMMARY

This chapter presented the way data were analyzed in this study. Data analysis is the process of putting data into context. It is the process of developing and building meanings, perceptions and interpretations with the use of data in hand. Qualitative data analysis procedures were used in analyzing data in this study. Data analysis procedures are the tools we use in interpreting and putting data into context.

Data analysis in this study was an ongoing process divided into two stages. The first stage was that of initial analysis, and the final analysis was the last stage. The initial analysis included a comprehensive analysis at the planning stage up to leaving the field. The two phases were overlapping and not discrete.

The single case and the close case analysis approaches were used. The empirical materials were scrutinized so as to make sense of data. At this point in analysis, data were described so as to bring out their initial meanings. The content of the empirical materials was analyzed to establish its correspondence with the whole process of their collection. To develop a conceptual leverage on data, the researcher wrote short narratives basing on events in the field.

The meanings attached to events were then looked at analytically with the view of refining events, re-examining facts, re-explaining relationships and redefining concepts. In this process, field notes were the means of storing various ideas that emerged. Data were then revisited. They were critically analyzed. Data were retested to see if events were really captured, central issues focused and if the presentation revealed the underlying relationship. Data were therefore organized into more detailed notes. By critically analyzing them, comparisons and contrasts between them were established. Then they were categorized and coded. Both deductive and inductive methods of developing categories and codes were used.

After field work, analysis became more comprehensive, more systematic and more analytical. There was no any gestation period observed. At this stage, the levels of analysis under the initial stage were revisited with an even more focused concentration. Fairness was maintained by keeping the peer debriefer group and carrying out the negative case analysis. All the phases and stages mentioned in this

chapter were interdependent, interconnected and overlapping. They were not discrete, and were continuous.

CHAPTER SIX

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

This Chapter presents the study findings. After you have read it, you should understand:

1. The way the findings were presented;
2. The way the services were run;
3. What was expected of the service providers;
4. The type of provisions offered;
5. Communication in the services;
6. Co-ordination mechanisms in place;
7. The effectiveness of these co-ordination mechanisms; and
8. The forces that were shaping the co-ordination system.

MODE OF PRESENTATION

The presentation is descriptive using a thematic system to present the findings. This means that findings are presented under themes sought inductively from the data. Each of the sub-headings used represents a particular theme. Under every sub-heading, findings from questionnaires are presented in tables. Along with questionnaire data, interview and observational data are presented as narratives. The narratives and questionnaires with similar data are presented under one sub-heading. Short extracts from interviews are used to explain and support the narratives presented.

BACKGROUND TO THE SERVICES

The background information about the sample and the services, is presented here. The information presented helped to understand the sample, its contribution to the services, expectations placed on it, and the way the services were run. The characteristics of the sample and the information about the management and administration of the services are presented in this section.

Table 1 and Table 2 present the sample distribution between organizations. They further show, that the sample spread through Government Ministries, Councils, Charities and Self employments. However, it was clear from interviews that there were staff and executives seconded or attached to charities by government departments. The government continued to pay salaries of individuals on attachment, while the charities paid those on secondment. There were staff who held positions because they were elected to them. This was found in TLB and TSB. On the other hand, there were those who were politically appointed. These were found in the Councils and Government Ministries.

It was further revealed that the special education unit was responsible for the posting of specialist teachers and visually impaired teachers to primary schools in the country. In vocational training, recruitment and posting of teachers was the responsibility of the department of social welfare. Within these organizations, participants worked in various departments.

Table 1: Percentage Distribution of the Sample by Service Providers

	MOEC	MCDWC	COUNCIL S	MLDY	TLB	TSB	SELF EMPLOYED	GRAND TOTAL
Educational Administrators n = 15	60%	0.00%	0.00%	40%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%
Social Welfare Officers n = 29	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%
Teachers n = 89	0.00%	8.98%	91.01%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%
VIBP n= 44	22.72%	0.00%	36.36%	13.63%	0.00%	0.00%	27.27%	100.00%
SEC n = 19	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	57.89%	42.10%	0.00%	100.00%
n = 196	9.69%	4.08%	52.55%	17.85%	5.61%	4.08%	6.14%	100.00%

NB: MOEC = Ministry of Education and Culture

MCDWC = Ministry of Community Development, Women and Children

TLB = Tanzania League of the Blind

TSB = Tanzania Society for the Blind

MLDY = Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth

SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities

VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

Table 2. Distribution of sample of interviewees by service providers

No. of participants	MOEC	MCDWL	Councils	MLDY	TLB	TSB	Others	Total
Educational Administrators N = 13	7	-	6	-	-	-	-	13
Teachers N = 47	5	2	40	-	-	-	-	47
Social welfare officers N = 11	-	-	3	8	-	-	-	11
VIBP N = 43	5	-	34	4	-	-	-	43
SEC N = 3	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	3
Others N = 11	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	11
Grand total	17	2	83	12	2	1	11	128

NB: MOEC = Ministry of Education and Culture
MCDWC = Ministry of Community Development; Women & Children
TLB = Tanzania League of the Blind
TSB = Tanzania Society for the Blind
MLDY = Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth
SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People
Others = Retired Officials and those who once served in the services but have moved to other jobs

Table 3: Percentage Distribution of the Sample According to Departments - (n = 196)

DEPARTMENT	EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n= 19	VIBP n = 14	GRAND TOTAL
Department of Education	87%	91.01%	0.00%	5%	36.36%	56.63%
Commissioner of Education	13.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	11.36%	3.58%
Department of Social Welfare	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%	0.00%	11.36%	17.34%
Department of Women	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	5.27%	0.00%	0.51%
FDC	0.00%	8.99%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	4.08%
Department of Administration	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	89.47%	0.00%	8.68%
Department of Labour	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	2.27%	0.51%
Others	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	38.65%	8.67%
GRAND TOTAL	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

NB: FDC = Folk Development Colleges
Others = Students and Self-employed

It was found from interviews, that the Office of Commissioner of Education was not a department. It was a structure designed to integrate different departments dealing with educational matters at MOEC.

I should like to make this clear to you. The Office of Commissioner of Education is not a department. It is a superior body co-ordinating all academic and professional matters of education in this ministry.

(Senior Officer at MOEC)

It was further observed, that this office co-ordinated activities of primary, secondary, teacher and adult education, the inspectorate and planning departments. It was further observed, that in every organisation studied, there were staff who did not belong to a particular department. This was the case with top executives. For

example at MOEC, staff of the Office of Commissioner of Education did not belong to any departments. In charities too, the situation was similar. In TLB and TSB for instance, the leaders and staff in their offices were above departments. Such individuals either indicated their offices as departments, or departments which would closely be identified with their duties.

In these organizations and/or departments, the sample worked in different units/sections in the services. Table 4, presents the units/sections from which the sample was drawn. However, it was observed that there was not a special unit/section of educational services for visually impaired and blind people at the regional and district levels. It was also observed that there was no unit/section of special education at these levels of operation too. However, such a unit existed at the national and the institutional levels. There was not a common pattern between regions and districts as to what section/unit should look after the services.

It was further observed, however, that under the system and the structure, there was no difference between a section and a unit. Both of them had to work under the umbrella of a department or an established structure. They both had the same status in the structure. Thus the powers of a section or a unit were limited within the jurisdiction of the umbrella structure. It was found from interviews, that the Special Education Unit worked as a Section/unit of the Office of

Commissioner of Education. One officer in the unit put this clearly: “
Our duty as a unit is to advise the Commissioner of Education on all
matters of special education. We are the staff in his office. Table 5,
shows that the sample was distributed across different levels of
operation in the services. The table further shows that, the sample
spread from the national level to the personal level, the lowest. It was
established from interviews, that in the state sector, at regional and
district levels, education was a department with sections/units: “*at the
regional and district levels education is a department with
sections/units under The Regional Administrative Secretary as the
chief co-ordinator of departments in the region*”

(Regional Education Officer)

Table 4:Percentage Distribution of the Sample by Units/Sections

UNITS/ (SAMPLE)	SECTION	EDUCATION SECTION	ACADEMIC	PRIMARY EDUCATION SECTION	ADULT EDUCATION	SPECIAL EDUCATION	ADMINI- STRATION	FDC	PRO- BATION	FAMILY AND CHILDREN	REHAB- ILITATION	LABOUR DISPUTES	EDUCATION AND EMPLOYME NT	OTHERS	TOTAL
Educational Administrators n = 15		0.00%	53.33%	20.00%	13.33%	13.33%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%
Teachers n = 89		0.00%	0.00%	62.69%	0.00%	24.71%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%
Social Welfare Officers n = 29		0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	41.37%	41.37%	17.24%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	100.00%
SEC n = 19		5.26%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	89.47%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	5.26%	0.00%	100.00%
VIBP n = 44		0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	70.45%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	2.27%	0.00%	27.27%	100.00%
GRAND TOTAL n = 196		0.51%	4.08%	31.63%	1.02%	28.06%	8.67%	4.08%	6.12%	6.12%	2.55%	0.51%	0.51%	6.12%	100.00%

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People
OTHERS = Self-employed

Table 5: Levels of Operation in the Sample

LEVELS	EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44	GRAND TOTAL
Regional	46.70%	0.00%	41.40%	47.40%	0.00%	12.80%
District	40.00%	0.00%	27.60%	21.00%	0.00%	9.20%
National	13.30%	0.00%	31.00%	31.60%	13.60%	13.30%
Institutional	0.00%	100.00%	0.00%	0.00%	59.00%	58.70%
Personal	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	27.30%	6.10%
	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities

VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

The interviews further revealed that, in this state sector, the regional and district levels of operation worked almost independent of the other: "primary education is the responsibility of District, town, municipal and city Councils. The Department of Education in these authorities is run independent of the regional department, and is answerable to the Executive Director of the respective Council" (Regional Education Officer).

The interviews also revealed that, the administration of general educational services in the state sector were partly centralized, partly decentralized and hierarchical. When asked about the structure, one officer at MOEC said:

We have a straight structure from the top downwards. Secondary education, teacher education and planning are centralized. They are thus the duty of the ministry. Primary and adult education are decentralized to local governments, where the Councils are

responsible. The inspectorate is decentralized to the zones?

However, it was difficult for anyone to say with certainty on whether or not the educational services for visually impaired and blind people were centralized or decentralized. It was observed, that they were being administered from within the formal structure of general education.

It was observed that the state sector structure was hierarchized, and that people respected and paid allegiance to positions rather than rules and regulations. It was further observed that the regional level of operation had quite limited powers and authority on the services, because the management and administration of education had been decentralized further down to councils, which were independent of the regional educational structure. In the private sector of special education, centralization was observed to be the principal approach to service management and administration. Both TLB and TSB were found to be very weak and almost non-existent at the regional and district levels of operation. TLB had a strong presence at the institutional level. Although TSB had not any physical presence at the institutional level too, it had influence on institutions.

Participants had different duties to carry out in the services, right from the national level to the personal level. Table 6 presents the

duties which participants were performing in the services. It shows that the sample had various duties in the services. There were managers, administrators, workers in the field and consumers of the services. It was observed that the services and the duties in the state sector were mechanically designed. They were concentrated at national, district and institutional levels of operation, leaving the regional level with little to do. It was further observed that, although special education was perceived as an integral part of the general system of education, its administration was detached from mainstream management and administration. The officers responsible for certain duties in mainstream education did not necessarily bear the same duties in the services. For instance at regional and district levels, Education Officers responsible for equipment in schools felt that they were not responsible for special equipment used by visually impaired and blind learners. One of them said: "As far as their equipment are concerned, that is the responsibility of the Ministry headquarters".

There was also a high level of ambiguity in roles and duties in the services at all levels. Because of lack of guidelines, people appeared to be working by personal convictions and sensitivity, instead of guided actions. "To be honest, our unit is not well organized. We have no guidelines. We work the way we know the services to be and require" (the officer at MOEC). The situation was not different in Councils. "I think it is better to make it clear

to you. We are running these services out of our own understanding, commitment and love to our blind children. The Ministry of Education and Culture has never given us guidelines as to how we should render these services" (District Education Officer). The same situation was echoed in schools and colleges: "We do not have guidelines. We work the way we were trained. We use our understanding of the situation and commitment to offer good services as much as we can" (a specialist teacher).

Headteachers too acknowledged problems in this area:

We have no guidelines about these services. Specialist teachers come here with their posting letters, we receive them and given them responsibilities. To make it quite clear to you, we don't know what exactly they are to do. Ask them why they don't do something, they will point to your ignorance of the services.

Table 6: Duties of the Sample in the Services

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44
To co-ordinate education at MOEC; Regional education administration; Adult education - Regional co-ordination; Promotion of academic standards in primary schools; Organising academic regional conferences for teachers;	Counselling; teaching; school administration; helping visually impaired and blind learners.	Co-ordinating rehabilitation services at the ministry; Administration of Regional Social Welfare Services; Administration of district Social Welfare Services; Counselling; Probation Services; Family Problems; Children's affairs	Administration; Finance Management and Control; Rehabilitation, policy development; Counselling.	Teaching, Transcribing books; Petty business; Arbitration; Studying; Counselling.

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

Table 7 presents the various positions in which the sample served in the services. The findings showed that the sample occupied positions ranging from policy developers, through planners and the troops in the field, to those in the receiving end of the services. The positions indicated largely reflected on what they were in the mainstream and not in the services, because the services were theoretically administered as an integral part of mainstream education

Table 7: Positions of the Sample in the Services

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44
Administrators of education for VIBP at the Ministry; Regional Educational Officers (academic); Regional Educational Officers (equipment and statistics); Regional Educational Officers (adult education); District	Head teachers; Assistant head-teachers; teachers; Heads of special educational units.	Head of Rehabilitation section at the ministry; Regional Social Welfare Officers; Assistant Regional Social Welfare officers; District Social Welfare Officers; Assistant District Social Welfare Officers.	Chair persons; Secretary - generals; Treasurers; members of executive committees; a Rehabilitation officer, an Education Officer, Education and Employment Officer.	Teachers, students; the self employed; Senior Transcribers, Social Welfare Officers; Assistant Regional Social Welfare Officer, Assistant Labour Officer.
Education Officers; District Education Officers (academic);				
District Education Officers (equipment and statistics)				
District Education Officers (teaching media)				
District Officers (adult education)				

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities

VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

Table 8 presents the levels to which the sample was trained. It shows that, the sample had variations in training. It further shows that, the sample was composed of those with degrees, diplomas,

certificates, the ones training on the job, and the untrained. The findings further revealed that, the services had an acute shortage of trained staff, because most of the people involved in the services were trained in other professions and not special education.

Table 8: Training Levels in the Sample

LEVELS OF TRAINING	EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44	GRAND TOTAL
First degree(education)	26.67%	0.00%	0.00%	5.26%		2.55%
First degree (general)	0.00%	0.00%	6.90%	10.53%	6.82%	3.57%
First degree in Law	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	2.27%	0.51%
Diploma in Adult education	0.00%	6%	0.00%	0.00%	2.27%	3.06%
Diploma in Education	33.33%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	4.55%	3.57%
Diploma in Special Education	6.67%	2.25%	0.00%	5.26%	0.00%	2%
Diploma in Social Work	0.00%	0.00%	20.69%	0.00%	31.82%	3.06%
Certificate in Special Education	6.67%	24.72%	0.00%	5.26%	4.55%	12.24%
Grade A teachers	26.67%	67.41%	0.00%	0.00%	36.84%	44%
Certificate in Social Work	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	21.05%	0.00%	2.04%
Secretarial	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	21.05%	0.00%	2.04%
On-the job	0.00%	0.00%	44.83%	15.80%	31.82%	15.31%
Students	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	11.36%	300%
TOTAL % AGE	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP: = Visually Impaired and Blind People

Those who held managerial and administrative positions, acquired them by appointment as promotions, or rewards for good behaviour and good service. Training was secondary. It was observed, that Heads of schools and their deputies, and some educational administrators, were not trained in management and administration. Their positions were attained as part of promotions because of long service in teaching or other politics in mainstream system. A specialist teacher summed this up during an interview:

Headteachers are usually appointed by the district education office. We do not know the procedure, nor are the requirements known to us. The only thing we know, they appoint them as they deem fit.

This was confirmed by one regional education officer, who said:

All staff in educational administration are appointees. I personally appoint all my assistants in the office, as well as educational officers incharge of districts. At the district level too, the officers incharge appoint their assistants.

When asked about qualification, she warmly answered: "Basically, they must be good long-service teachers, with clean records". Such administrators were observed to be unconfident and resorting to other means available for them to remain in office. Even those who were trained in management and administration, their training was secondary when the time of being considered for managerial and administrative office came.

Likewise the requirements for being appointed to be the Head of a special education unit at the institutional level were unknown. The procedures of people being appointed to these posts were also unknown. As a result of this, different procedures existed among schools. It was found that in some schools the headteachers appointed them at their own convenience. At one primary school, a visually impaired teacher said: "The head of our unit here was appointed by the headteacher. Why him and what were the criteria used, only the headteacher knows. That is how the system operates". In others schools, they were appointed by the District Education Officers. At one school, a specialist teacher said: "The head of our special education unit is appointed by the district education office. We do not know the criteria. He just uses powers to do so". They were also voted in by the teaching staff in some schools. One blind teacher at one school put it this way: "At our school, responsibility among teachers is distributed by voting. That is how we got our head of special education unit. We do this every term".

PROVISIONS

There were specific services made available to visually impaired and blind people. The findings presented below show identified educational needs and the available services.

Table 9 and Table 10 present the diverse educational needs of VIBP as identified by different organizations.

Table 9: Educational Needs of VIBP

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44
Equipment; boarding facilities; food, medical care	Transport; boarding facilities; food; medical care; equipment; specialist teachers	Training in vocations, conscientization of the public and VIBP; equipment Preparation and adaptation of institutions; trained teachers; boarding facilities; food.	Equipment; books, funds; training in vocations, a special curriculum; adapted environment; specialist teachers; Boarding facilities, food, transport	Equipment, adapted environment, a special curriculum; specialist teachers; love; recognition; boarding facilities; food

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

Table 10. Educational needs of VIBP

(Responses from interviews by service providers : n = 128)

MOEC	MCDWC	Councils	MLDY	TLB	TSB	Others
Equipment	Equipment	Boarding facilities	Food	Equipment	Boarding facilities	Transport
Trained teachers	Transport	Transport	Counselling	Funds	Equipment	Vocational training
Finance	Finance	Specialist teachers	Support	Counselling	Funds	Funds
Buildings	Teachers	Buildings	Vocational training	Training	Transport	Building
Special curriculum	Support	Equipment Finance Food	Employment Equipment	Special environment Food Medical care Employment Boarding facilities	Counselling Training Transport	Employment Education

NB : VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People
MCDWC = Ministry of Community Development, Women and Children
MOEC = Ministry of Education and Culture
TLB = Tanzania League of the Blind
MLDY = Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth
SEC = Staff and Executions of Charities
Others = Retired officials and those who once served in the services but have moved to other jobs.

They further show, that there were similarities between groups and organizations in the educational needs identified. It was revealed that, service providers had not carried out studies of these educational needs to establish their validity:

These needs have existed for so long. We believe that they are actual needs because from the advice we get from international and local organizations, we are always told to keep it up.

(An officer at MOEC)

In the private sector of special education, the situation was the same. Studies were not made to establish the actual educational needs:

We have never made any survey of these needs. This is because we have been trying hard to solve the immediate problems facing blind people in the education system. At the same time, we are to work according to the practice by the government.

(an Executive of a Charity)

Table 11 and Table 12 show the type of services that were being provided. They further show that, the traditional type of services such as food and boarding facilities were high on the list, while the services of a current thinking like counselling, career and vocational guidance, were given low priority.

It was also observed that, there was a difference between service providers as to what type of services to emphasize or de-emphasize. What was emphasized by one service provider could be unacceptable to other service providers. For example, TSB and

TLB were very much concerned with post-school life, and criticized other organisations for neglecting that.

Table 11: Available Services for VIBP

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44
Teaching media; food, boarding facilities, transport; administration; staffing; funding	Teaching; boarding facilities; food; counselling, teaching media; medical care; transport during vacations	Board facilities; food; counselling; administration, staffing, vocational training; support	Support, counselling; administration; funding; equipment	Equipment; boarding facilities; food; medical care; transport; counselling; teaching; support

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

Table 12. Available services for VIBP

(Responses from interviews by service providers. N = 128)

MOEC	MCDWC	Councils	MLDY	TLB	TSB	Others
Curriculum	Equipment	Funds	Boarding facilities	Support	Funds	Training
Staffing	Education	Equipment	Equipment	Counselling	Equipment	Buildings
Training	Buildings	Staffing	Buildings	Career guidance	Training Support	Teaching
Financing	Teachers	Administration	Counselling	Funds	Counselling	Funds
Administration		Food	Teachers			Transport
Equipment		Buildings				
		Boarding facilities				

NB : VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People
MOEC = Ministry of Education and Culture
MCDWC= Ministry of Community Development, Women and Children.
TLB = Tanzania League of the Blind
TSB = Tanzania Society for the Blind
MLDY = Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth
SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
Others = Retired Officials and those who once served in the services but have moved to other jobs.

COMMUNICATION IN THE SERVICES

Experts in management and administration have always indicated that communication is important if functions and tasks in any activity are to be properly co-ordinated. The findings presented here show communications in the educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania.

Information about the services was being disseminated. Various groups of people in the society were perceived as consumers of that information. Table 13 and Table 14 show the perceived consumers of the information disseminated. They show that different groups in the society were identified as potential consumers of the information about the services. These tables show that there was no significant variation between groups and organizations as regards the perceived consumers of the information about the services. What means were used in disseminating information was also important. This is because the means determine the end.

Table 13: Perceived Consumers of the Services Information

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44
The Public; VIBP; Pupils/Students; Parents; Parents of VIBP; Service Administrators	Parents; Pupils/Students; the public; VIBP; TLB	Community; prospective students; parents of VIBP; charities	Community; parents; VIBP	Community; VIBP; those responsible for the services

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

**Table 14. Perceived consumers of the services information
(Responses from interviews by service providers. n = 128)**

MOEC	MCDWC	Councils	MLDY	TLB	TSB	Others
Society	VIBP	Parents	VIBP	VIBP	Parents	Community
Councils	adults	Students	Students	Charities	VIBP	VIBP
VIBP	Public	VIBP	Parents	Public	Govt.	Parents
Parents	Councils	Charities	Charities		Schools	
Other		Public	Councils			
Ministries			Employers			
Charities						

NB : VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People
MOEC = Ministry of Education and Culture
MCDWC= Ministry of Community Development, Women and Children.
TLB = Tanzania League of the Blind
TSB = Tanzania Society for the Blind
MLDY = Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth
SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
Others = Retired Officials and those who once served in the services but have moved to other jobs.

Table 15 and Table 16 present the means indicated by participants as being used in disseminating information about the services. The findings in these tables show different means that were used by different groups and players in the services for disseminating information about the services.

Table 15: The Means Used In Disseminating Services Information

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44
Publications; telephone; school boards; college boards; regional education offices; district education offices; media	Letters; meetings with parents; pupils/students	Media; meetings; conferences; seminars; workshops; word of mouth	Radio; Newspapers; Television; meetings; conferences; seminars; workshops; visits	Seminars; Radio; Newspapers; Television; meetings; conferences; workshops; publications; home visits; personal relationships

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

**Table 16. Means used for disseminating services information
(Responses from interviews. n = 128)**

MOEC	MCDWC	Councils	MLDY	TLB	TSB	Others
Newspaper,	Radio,	Letters,	Letters,	Visits,	Meetings,	Word of
radio,	word of	parental	telephone,	meetings,	media,	mouth, media,
seminars,	mouth,	meetings,	seminars,	word of	letters,	parents.
books.	regional	students,	meetings	mouth,	VIBP,	
	officers,	word of		newspaper,	parents	
	teachers,	mouth,		radio,		
	adult	teachers.		seminars		
	learners.					

NB : MOEC = Ministry of Education and Culture
MCDWC= Ministry of Community Development, Women and Children.
MLDY = Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth
TLB = Tanzania League of the Blind
TSB = Tanzania Society for the Blind
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

However, in getting any message about the services across, the level to which information was kept in circulation was crucial. Table 17 presents the level to which information about the services was kept in circulation, and therefore in the public domain. The findings presented in this table indicate that only sometimes was information about the services circulated. They further show that the level of how frequent did various groups and players in the services circulate information about the services was considerably low. The culture of circulating information was not strong in the services and among key players. The findings further suggest that information circulation was simply occasional or casual. It was found that, the circulation of information was one-way traffic from the lower levels of operation to the higher ones. Higher levels of

operation were found not giving any information to the lower levels:

We do not get any information from the ministry. We usually play our part by sending our annual reports to the ministry as required of us. After that, it is finished. No feedback, and no annual report from the ministry.

(Regional Education Officer)

Similar claims were made by the district level against the regional level: primary schools expressed the same claim against Councils: and secondary schools and colleges made similar claims against the ministries.

In the private sector too, the headquarters of charities were strongly criticized for not giving information to their branches:

The headquarters are quite centralized. They do not regularly keep us informed. As a result, we can, with difficulty, help those coming to us.

(TLB Regional Chairman)

Table 17: The Level of Services Information Circulation

LEVEL OF CIRCULATION	EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS RS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44	GRAND TOTAL n = 196
Sometime	60.00%	58.42%	65.51%	84.21%	63.63%	55.61%
Always	40%	41.57%	34.48%	5.25%	/	35.20%
Never	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	10.52%	36.36%	9.18%
	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

NB: SEC = Staff Executives of Charities

VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

The exchange of information between organizations was quite difficult. It was established that organizations were not keeping each other informed, and the problem was more serious between the private sector and the state one.

Government ministries and departments do not give us information about what they do. This I guess, is partly just because we are charities and partly because information is so sensitive in government circles. We have to undergo great stress before we can get any information from them. Even among ourselves, charities, the sharing of information is quite rare. May be, we don't want to share our strategies.

(an Executive of a Charity)

At the special education unit at MOEC the same cry existed:

We have the communication problem. We do not get information from other organizations involved in these services. Schools, councils, regions, districts and charities are never sending us any information. We are very uninformed because people come to us only when they have problems.

(an officer at MOEC)

The release of information was seen to be very much controlled in both state and private sectors. The mechanisms used in information release and the mode of circulation, controlled and finally minimized its quantity:

Any information in this department must get out through the commissioner or higher authorities. The information intended for us here in the department, comes in a folder to all Heads of Sections to read. After reading, the folder goes back to the commissioner's office. Even when it is deemed important for every section to have copies of the information, usually the Head of the Section is given that copy.

(Senior Officer/Department of Social Welfare)

The same situation was found at MOEC, regional, district and council levels of operation, and in charities.

It was further observed that, there was no defined open system of storing information about the services. Most organizations had no libraries. Only MOEC had a library among all sampled organizations. However, this library at MOEC was not maintained. It was more observed that, information was a sensitive issue. Therefore, it was centralized, and strictly placed in the hands of highly positioned individuals in the structures of all organizations studied.

The information that entered the public domain was very specific. All service providers stressed their achievements, pleas for public support in their activities, the abilities of visually impaired and blind people, as well as the importance of sending them to school and vocational training centres. However, it lacked information on where people could turn for assistance and advice.

MECHANISMS OF CO-ORDINATION IN THE SERVICES

The term "co-ordination system" means permanently existing, or putting in place mechanisms of integrating efforts by different sub-systems, individuals and component parts of the whole, for the achievement of set objectives and goals. The findings about the

mechanisms of co-ordination within organizations and between organizations in the services are presented here.

The findings in Table 18 and Table 19 show that there were intra-organizational co-ordination mechanisms in place in the services. However, the findings further suggest that meetings and directives were widely used.

The findings in Table 20 and Table 21 show that meetings were the major mechanism used for inter-organizational co-ordination in the services.

Table 22 shows the way and the extent to which meetings as a mechanism for inter-organizational co-ordination in the services were used. The findings in this table show that meetings were convened only with convenience. They had no fixed time-tables.

Meetings also had the problem of attendance. Delegates either attended in fewer numbers, or the meetings were frequently being adjourned because of not reaching the needed column in attendance. As one of the members of one of the task forces put: "my experience with these committees is very discouraging. People value their employers than these committees. They frequently don't turn up despite knowing that they were to attend a meeting. In fact, these meetings are nothing but a complete misuse of time".

Table 18: Mechanisms Used for Intra-organisational Co-ordination

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44
Regional education offices; district education offices; meetings, joint ventures; common policies directives; visits	Meetings; umtashumta, school boards; pupil/student leadership, orders	Regional social welfare offices; district social welfare offices; common policies; meetings; conferences; directives	Meetings; visits; letters; seminars; directives	Meetings; seminars; workshops; media; visits; personal relationships

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

**Table 19. Mechanisms used for intra-organisational co-ordination
(Responses from interviews by service providers. n = 128)**

MOEC	MCDWC	Councils	MLDY	TLB	TSB	Others
Meetings	Policies	Meetings	Policies	Constitution	Meetings	Meetings
Policies	Laws	Consultations	Meetings	Meetings	Constitution	Administrati
Directives	Meetings	Conferences	Letters	Personal		on
Laws		Rules	Regulations	relationship		Circulars
						Directions
						Letters

NB : VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People
MOEC = Ministry of Education and Culture
MCDWC= Ministry of Community Development, Women and Children.
TLB = Tanzania League of the Blind
TSB = Tanzania Society for the Blind
MLDY = Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth
SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
Others = Retired Officials and those who once served in the services but have moved to other jobs.

Table 20: Mechanisms Used for Inter-organisational Co-ordination

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44
Meetings, joint ventures, seminars, letters, visits, media	Meetings, TLB, writings, word of mouth, seminars, workshops, media	Meetings, writings, joint ventures, joint committees	Meetings, joint committees, task forces, visits, letters	Meetings, seminars, workshops, media

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

**Table 21. Mechanisms used for inter-organisational co-ordination
(Responses from interviews by service providers. n = 128)**

MOEC	MCDWC	Councils	MLDY	TLB	TSB	Others
Committees	Committees	Schools	Policies	Meetings	Letters	Meetings
Task forces	Policies	Administration	Meetings	Constitution	Conferences	Letters
Partnership	FDCS	Policies	Vocational	Partner-ship	Constitutions	Word of mouth
Meetings	Meetings	Meetings	training	Letters		Personal
Policy	Consultations	Conferences	centres			relationship
Charities			Letters			Legislation
						Organisations

NB : VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People
MOEC = Ministry of Education and Culture
MCDWC= Ministry of Community Development, Women and Children.
TLB = Tanzania League of the Blind
TSB = Tanzania Society for the Blind
MLDY = Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth
SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
Others = Retired Officials and those who once served in the services but have moved to other jobs.

Table 22: The Use of Meetings for Inter-Organisational Co-ordination

USE	EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRAT ORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44	GRAND TOTAL n = 196
Adhoc	60.00%	86.51%	10.34%	63.15%	79.54%	69.38%
No Meetings at all	33.33%	13.48%	51.72%	36.84%	20.45%	24.48%
Monthly	6.66%	0.00%	20.68%	0.00%	0.00%	3.57%
Quarterly	0.00%	0.00%	3.44%	0.00%	0.00%	0.51%
Half Yearly	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Yearly	0.00%	0.00%	13.79%	0.00%	0.00%	3.57%

NB: SEC = Staff Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

Observations further revealed that positions in both the structure of general education and the services were the main mechanism of co-ordination. People in the services highly respected positions. This was exacerbated by the lack of formal rules in the services, and the dominance of the informal ones.

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE EXISTING CO-ORDINATION SYSTEM

Any co-ordination system earns a credit for effectiveness when it is capable of optimizing time, resources and services. The effectiveness of co-ordination may be measured by the accuracy of the services, their timing, accessibility and efficiency. The information presented below, presents the findings about these issues in the co-ordination system of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania.

However, it was observed that, there were national committees and a Council designed to co-ordinate efforts in the services. These mechanisms were centralized. They were just nominal mechanisms, and thus each organization went on its own. The state and the private sectors of the services were almost operating independent of each other. Still, the number of mechanisms in place differed between levels of operation. There were lesser mechanisms at lower levels, if compared to the top levels. At the lower levels, voluntary work and activities were very strong. This led to cooperation between some groups, and had great influence on institutional success and existence.

It was further observed, that each service organization had a preference in certain professions for employees, thus leading to professional protectionism and blocks in the services.

Table 23 and Table 24 present the findings about the extent to which the services addressed the needs. They further showed that the current services were not accurately, and adequately addressing the educational needs of visually impaired and blind people. It was observed that, there was an acute shortage of equipment in all of the studied state primary education institutions with visually impaired and blind people. At Masasi Primary School in Masasi, only ten Perkins Brailers were available, while the school had 52 pupils (the ratio of five pupils per machine). The school was completely without braille papers, and there was no idea as to when

they would get new supplies. Not one white cane was at the school. There were six typewriters (the ratio of nine pupils per machine). With only a slight difference in the size of the problem, all of the state primary schools studied suffered from an acute shortage of equipment.

Table 23: The Extent to which VIBPs Educational Needs are

EXTENT	Addressed by Services					GRAND TOTAL n = 196
	EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44	
Very low	53.33%	60.67%	75.86%	100.00%	100.00%	75.00%
A little below average	46.66%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	3.57%
A little above average	0.00%	7.86%	20.86%	0.00%	0.00%	6.63%
Average	0.00%	29.24%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	13.26%
Very high	0.00%	2.25%	3.44%	0.00%	0.00%	1.53%
TOTAL	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

**Table 24. Perception about adequacy of services for VIBP in percentage
(Responses from interviews, n = 128)**

	MOEC	MCDWC	Councils	MLDY	TLB	TSB	Others
Very inadequate	53.84%	72.73%	77.10%	66.66%	100.00%	100.00%	54.54%
Inadequate	30.78%	0.00%	12.05%	25.00%	0.00%	0.00%	45.46%
Somehow adequate	15.38%	27.27%	10.85%	8.34%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
Grand total	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

NB : VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People
MOEC = Ministry of Education and Culture
MCDWC= Ministry of Community Development, Women and Children.
TLB = Tanzania League of the Blind
TSB = Tanzania Society for the Blind

MLDY = Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth
SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
Others = Retired Officials and those who once served in the services but have moved to other jobs.

Ambiguity in who was responsible for the availability of equipment in schools, aggravated the situation:

MOEC used to send lorries with all of our supplies. That was being done once yearly. That has stopped. I hear they say it is the responsibility of our Councils. You know what the people in our Councils are telling us? They simply tell us that they have no money for that, and that, that is the responsibility of the Central Government.

(Head of the Special Education Unit)

That position was confirmed at Tanzania Braille printing Press (which acts as a national resource centre). When interviewed, one officer said: "We used to travel to send supplies of materials to all of our schools. That was stopped in 1987. Now, it is the responsibility of Councils to come and collect materials for their schools. Anyway, I hear, the Councils are not co-operating well. I don't know why". When pressed why was the practice stopped, the Officer answered:

We work according to the directives and the policies of MOEC. The practice is still our policy. The problem is that the Ministry is no longer budgeting for that purpose. The best advice we can give to our schools then, is for them to ask their Councils to collect their materials from us on their behalf.

In state secondary schools and teachers colleges, the situation was slightly different from that in primary schools. There were Perkins

Brailers and typewriters enough to cater for every individual student. These Perkins Brailers and typewriters were very old, and maintenance activities were less carried on them. However, these institutions were also faced with the problem of shortage of braille papers. Like in primary schools, they had been without supplies of materials for some time, and their respective departments at MOEC were not doing enough to ensure that they had enough materials for visually impaired and blind students. Individual schools and colleges were struggling to alleviate their own problems single-handedly. Like in primary schools, not a single white cane was available. Students were seen moving around without white canes.

In the private sector, primary schools were well equipped with materials. The primary schools of Buigiri and Irete had enough braille materials. Perkins Brailers were for pupils of standard five to seven. Each class had a special day of using Perkins Brailers. Each pupil had an A4 Interlining Frame to use when not using a Perkins Brailer. There were enough Interlining Frames at the ratio of one per pupil in these schools. In private secondary schools, materials for visually impaired and blind people were adversely lacking. There were no specialist teachers employed, and they were not being resourced by the government. Students were left to depend on their own or their relatives' aggressiveness for materials and support.

In all educational institutions studied, live-reading was the only major way of visually impaired and blind learners accessing information. There were no recorders and books recorded on tapes. Braille reference books were remarkably lacking. In all institutions except the University of Dar Es Salaam where there were people employed to read for visually impaired students, in all educational institutions, students were being used as readers to visually impaired learners. In regular primary schools, pupils sitting next to visually impaired pupils were usually used as readers. However, in special primary schools, dictation by the teacher was commonly used. In state secondary schools, the reading was done after official class hours. In these schools, the arrangement was either made by the students concerned, or by the school administration through students' leadership. The situation was different in private secondary schools. There were no official systems of enabling visually impaired students to access information. This was left to individual students to sort out.

It was also observed in all primary schools and vocational training centres studied, that medical care of learners was not under due consideration. They had no first aid kits and nurses. For some with first aid kits, the kits were empty. In all secondary schools and teachers training colleges studied, there was a nurse employed, and the first aid kit. Like in the case of primary schools and the

vocational training centres, the kits were empty. The nurse did the work of referring sick students to the nearest clinics or hospitals.

The environment of all (except Buigiri and Irete primary schools) sampled schools and colleges in both state and private sectors of special education were found to be unadapted for visually impaired and blind people. The buildings and physical environments in these institutions had never been adapted to suit the getting-around needs of visually impaired and blind people. They had no pavements, corridors or marks that could make the movements of a visually impaired person less strenuous and more safe.

At both Buigiri and Irete primary schools, some adaptations were observed. There were marks clear enough for a visually impaired person to note. Buildings were orderly arranged, and paths were made to suit the mobility needs of a visually impaired person.

In vocational training centres, the situation was more difficult. There was no braille equipment at all. The teaching of braille had stopped, although there were teachers for the subject. Materials for training were lacking, and the centres were closed due to lack of funds.

There were no special curricula in schools and colleges. Visually impaired and blind people followed the ordinary curricula with or

without modifications. Even at the basic level of standard one to three were visually impaired and blind pupils learn separated from their sighted peers, there was not a syllabus: "I teach them the way I know. No books and things to consider are laid down in principle by the ministry. I teach the way I find it necessary and convincing" (specialist teacher teaching standard one to three).

From standard four onwards, a visually impaired and blind learner was the responsibility of the subject teacher, as it was with their sighted peers. The resource room teacher only advised the subject teacher when necessary, on how to meet the subject needs of a visually impaired learner. The efforts of bridging gaps in the classroom processes of visually impaired and blind learners were very limited. In all schools and colleges studied, specialist teachers limited their responsibility to resourcing their learners, and usually this responsibility was in the hands of one or two specialist teachers. They never supported ordinary teachers teaching visually impaired and blind learners, except during exams when they did the transcribing. They did not give teaching support to the learners. They were seen leaving the schools as soon as the official hours of teaching were over. At Korogwe secondary school, Pongwe Bweni, Makalala and Ikungi primary schools, visually impaired and blind teachers provided extra tuition to visually impaired and blind learners after official school hours on some days of the week.

Food was also observed to be a problem in state schools and colleges. In primary schools, fruits, vegetables, meat and some spices had been struck off the menus. Pupils were eating *ugali* and beans every day. This was alleged to be the result of budget cuts by the Councils. In colleges and vocational training centres the situation was no better. The institutions were even to close because of lack of food.

The situation was no better in adult education. In adult education centres and classes, there were many drop outs to the extent that some classes had to close down because of the cutting of services and support from the government. One specialist teacher summarized it all this way:

We started well. We had equipment, money for home visits and lunch for our adult learners. Today we are no longer offering them lunch although they are to be here from 8.00 a.m to 4 pm. We can no longer visit them in their families. We have no equipment at all. We have lost most of our learners. We are very much disappointed and frustrated. The departments of FDS and education are not bothering. The government is intentionally failing our disabled adults.

Another individual running an adult education class for visually impaired and blind people added: "We were recruited and trained by the MOEC. After starting work in the centres and classes, they abandoned us. The FDCS are not supporting us in our work, and the department of education in our Council does not know that we

exist. We are stuck, and we cannot serve our learners as we should."

The findings presented in Table 25 show that only a very small proportion of the visually impaired and blind population received the services. It was observed that the service institutions were situated in urban areas or in the suburbs of towns, leaving the rural population which accounted for 90% of the country's population travelling miles away in pursuit of the services. The bad communication system and the cost, aggravated further the access of the rural population to the services. The urban visually impaired and blind people could press for their share of the services by showing-up themselves at the offices of respective charities or institutions.

Table 25: The Proportion of VIBP Receiving the Services

PROPORTION	EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRAT ORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44	GRAND TOTAL n = 196
Very small	73.33%	69.66%	72.41%	78.04%	72.72%	71.93%
Small	26.66%	11.23%	6.89%	21.00%	27.27%	16.32%
Very big	0.00%	19.10%	20.68%	0.00%	0.00%	11.73%
TOTAL	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

Even people in the services, did not travel to the rural areas to identify people in need of the services:

We are supposed to go round in search of visually impaired children and bring them to

school. We are never doing that because we have no means, and the country is too vast for the exercise.

(Head of the Special Education Unit)

With the exception of Buigiri school for the blind which used the church parishes to reach visually impaired and blind children in remote areas, the sector had no strategies of increasing registrations and reaching more sections of the visually impaired and blind population.

Cost-sharing which required individual pupils and students to contribute to their education and training, was another problem for visually impaired and blind people to break. Most of them came from poor peasant families. Cost-sharing was another hazard to the already thin purses of such families. Faced with the bitter choice of sending their children to school by sharing costs and risk more hardship in the family, they opted for the softer option of having their children staying at home and avoid the economic hardships.

Putting this problem into perspective, the Office at MOEC said:

Some remain in the system with serious difficulties. We have been receiving complaints from charities and Heads of schools and colleges that cost-sharing is adversely affecting visually impaired and blind people. We agree there is a problem here: some of them are dropping out because of this so we are told.

Table 26: The Extent to which the Available Services Reach VIBP

EXTENT	EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44	GRAND TOTAL n = 196
Very low	80.00%	73.03%	58.62%	63.15%	63.63%	68.36%
A little below average	20.00%	24.72%	31.00%	21.00%	36.36%	27.55%
Average	0.00%	2.25%	10.34%	15.78%	0.00%	4.08%
TOTAL	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

NB: SEC = Staff Executives of Charities

VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

Table 26 presents the findings about timing in the services. The findings presented in this table show the extent to which the services reached visually impaired and blind people in need. They indicate that, participants felt the services reached the population of visually impaired and blind people at a very low extent. They suggest that, the timing of the services was low. They further suggest that, the services reached visually impaired and blind people while it was already late, and sometimes, the services were not coming.

Visually impaired and blind people started schooling at a very late age, and there was a vacuum of prospects after the schooling. One specialist teacher explained this further:

We do not have an age limit for a blind child to start a school. This is because the system is failing them. We do not work towards identifying them from childhood, and the system is not in touch with the rest of the population. The worst of all, after school, if that particular child is unable to go further in education, life is bleak.

Repairs of equipment were either not being made completely, or were made after delays. For example, at Masasi primary school, nine out of ten Perkins Brailers were found to be out of order, and had been in that situation for quite sometime. At the same school, all the six typewriters the school had were out of order. In all sampled schools, colleges and centres that was the problem, and all schools did not know how to get out of it, or when it would come to an end. One headteacher put this into perspective:

We have a very big problem of repairing our equipment. Technicians from MOEC used to come here annually to do the work. It is a long time now since I saw them. Some of our specialist teachers were given a basic training in repairing these machines. They tried to do a good job, but they were let down. Surprisingly, they were trained that way, but they were not given tools and we have no spare parts. The ministry is tying our hands, and we cannot work ourselves out.

Most buildings in studied institutions were in bad condition. Some of them were very old, and some of them had their roofs leaking or almost falling down. Repairs had not been done for sometime and nobody knew when they will be carried out.

Table 27 presents the findings about the level of efficiency in the services. The findings show that the services were viewed by participants as neither efficient nor moderately efficient, but somehow efficient. The participants further felt that the efficiency in these service provisions was quite poor.

Table 27: Levels of Efficiency in Services

LEVEL	EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44	GRAND TOTAL n = 196
Somehow efficient	60.00%	68.53%	65.51%	57.89%	72.72%	67.34%
Moderately efficient	20.00%	15.73%	34.48%	42.10%	27.27%	23.97%
Not efficient at all	20.00%	15.73%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	8.67%
TOTAL	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
 VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

FORCES UNDERLYING THE CO-ORDINATION OF THE SERVICES

Co-ordination in any activity is subject to a number of factors. The information presented here, presents the findings about the issues that shaped, or indeed, helped to shape the co-ordination system in these services.

Table 28 presents some factors which were leading to successful co-ordination in the services. The findings presented in this table show that the services were subjected to diverse influencing factors, all of which were to be given a certain level of consideration in the overall policy development, planning provision and co-ordination of services.

Table 29 presents findings about factors which inflicted setbacks on the services and their co-ordination. They show that a number of factors hindered the development, co-ordination and provision

of services. These findings suggest that these factors were a mixture of social, political, economic and technological issues. It was also revealed that there were administrative problems in the services. The special education unit at MOEC was found to be out of touch with schools, colleges, teachers and Councils.

Table 28: Factors Influencing Success in Co-ordinating the Services

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44
Public attitudes; professionals; politicians; non governmental agencies; seminars	Societal attitudes; professionals; charities; VIBP themselves	Public attitudes; VIBP themselves; government efforts and commitment	Government efforts; charities; VIBP; the international community	Politicians; VIBP themselves; government commitments; the international community

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

Table 29: Factors Hindering Co-ordination of the Services

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS n = 15	TEACHERS n = 89	SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS n = 29	SEC n = 19	VIBP n = 44
Budget constraints; shortage of information; the acute shortage of teaching media; no strategy of making VIBP participate fully	The acute shortage of teaching media; underfunding; government negative attitude; no policy; no guidelines; absence of regional and district co-ordinators, shortage of trained staff	Acute shortage of teaching media; budget constraints; shortage of trained staff; poor communication	Financial constraints; no policy; shortage of trained staff; shortage of equipment; government bureaucracy	Shortage of equipment; financial constraints; low government commitment, no policy; public attitudes

NB: SEC = Staff and Executives of Charities
VIBP = Visually Impaired and Blind People

There was no liaison between the unit based at the ministry and lower structures in the services:

Our leaders at the unit are hidden away from our sight and reach. They never officially visit us: we are not answerable to them; and we have no link with the unit.

(A specialist teacher)

The unit at MOEC was an advisory body with quite limited powers in decision-making. Big matters were dealt with by the Commissioner of Education in person or his deputies and others were handled in their respective departments: "We are working under the Commissioner of Education. We just advise the Commissioner on matters of special education. Decision-making is in the hands of the Commissioner" (an office in the unit). One officer of a charity added:

If you want the problem to be solved quickly, once and for all, going to that unit is inappropriate. Those people never decide and their powers are very limited. Face Directors of respective departments, the Commissioner, The Principal Secretary or the Minister. That is what we are doing nowadays. Thus, the unit is another stumbling block to avoid.

A secondary school teacher commented: "I have a bad experience with that unit. I think it is good at posting and transferring teachers and referring people to Braille Press for equipment. In other issues, they always have lesser help to offer."

Managers and administrators in the services were more secretive, and they were practising less involvement of their subordinates. A specialist teacher put this into context:

People at the top do not think or believe we are worth consulting. They decide and do things without informing us. They award scholarships the way they feel and want: they invite the same people to seminars and workshops as if there are no others in the field; they never seek our opinions about the way the services are run.

Managers and administrators were secretive even in matters which affected schools and other institutions under their jurisdiction. Schools, vocational training centres and adult education centres and classes did not hold warrants of fund; they were not consulted on their budgets, and they did not know how much money was set for each of them, nor did they know how their accounts were used.

A specialist teacher commented:

We do not know how much money we use. We even do not know if at all there is any special account for us in the Council's books. We never budget, and we have never been asked to budget. Issues of budgeting and finances are beyond the school gates. They are the monopoly of the bosses in the Council.

There were struggles in the services between different positions and groups. The first level of struggle was between visually impaired and professionals in the services. A specialist teacher commented:

Specialist teachers and visually impaired and blind teachers in schools are always against each other. We go to the extreme of sending our differences to our employers. I actually do not know why this conflict, but it has been with us for quite a long time without attempts to bring it to an end.

A blind teacher added:

To be very honest with you, there is no harmony and unity between visually impaired teachers and the so-called specialist teachers. Specialist teachers do not want to involve us in the daily running of the services. They come to us when they are in problems. Still, we cannot, and we will never stand aside while they are messing things up.

At the ministry level, it was an official policy that visually impaired and blind people were to be receivers of the services only, and not otherwise. A senior officer in the Department of Social Welfare said: "We were instructed by the Commissioner, that disabled people, and visually impaired persons for that matter, cannot, and should not, be appointed in positions of administration. They are the people we are supposed to serve". At MOEC, the situation was no different. The senior officer there said: "Visually impaired and blind teachers are not specialist teachers. They are regular teachers. We have made it clear to the schools, that because of that they should not be involved in running special education in schools." However, the policy documents on this issue in both the Department of Social Welfare and MOEC were not made available.

There were struggles between professionals in the services and the non-professionals. A specialist teacher summed this up:

It is very difficult and frustrating to face the Head or the Education Officer who is not a specialist in this area. They are always keen to exercise their powers. If you persist, the consequences may be shocking. We have seen

our workmates who were transferred just because they were very vocal against the system. It is very depressing, because some of them were even removed from the services.

Non-professionals in the services believed that, the specialists lacked understanding. One District Education Officer said:

It is not that we do not want to co-operate. The problem with our specialist teachers, is that they are always not prepared to accept anything short of what they perceive to be right. We have our own limits. I wish they understood it that way.

However, it was observed that struggles existed among specialist teachers in some schools. That was clearly eminent at Makalala and Pongwe primary schools. In these schools, Heads of the units were falling very far from the rest of the staff on the unit. It was further found that each section and or organization involved in these struggles sought to influence the services and their co-ordination in its own favour.

SUMMARY

This chapter presented findings about the co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. The services were provided by both the state sector and the private sector. In the state sector, government ministries and departments, and councils were responsible for the services. In the private sector, charities like the church, TLB and TSB, played the dominant role. Specific departments and sections/units were charged with the services. There were different levels of operation,

depending on the type of a subsector within this larger sector. The centralized, decentralized, hierarchical, mechanistic and voluntary co-ordination practices were at the heart of the system. There application differed between organizations and departments or sections/units within organizations and subsectors.

The education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania, like special education as a whole, was supposedly an integral part of mainstream education. Workers and administrators in mainstream education also had a responsibility for the services. Although some of them were strategically placed in educational administration, they did not play similar roles in educational services of people with visual loss. The models of staffing that existed in the services, were similar to those in mainstream education. Levels of training among staff, were a mixture of high level manpower, the intermediately trained, and the lowly trained.

The provisions were directed towards identified needs. There was dissemination of information about the services. Different groups of people in society, were perceived as potential consumers of this information. Different means were available for information dissemination, but their amount differed between levels of operation. The top ones had more means. However, information circulation itself, was occasional or casual.

Mechanisms for intra-organizational co-ordination differed between levels of operation. Meetings and directives were the commonly used. Meetings were a mechanism for inter-organizational co-ordination. The meetings themselves were ad-hoc. Unless they were fostering organizational interests, delegates and organizations did not take them seriously. The educational needs of visually impaired and blind people were addressed by the services at a very low extent. Only their very small proportion actually received them. These services were also reaching them at a low extent, and efficiency was low. The co-ordination system was influenced by both internal and external factors.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

This chapter presents the discussion of findings presented in Chapter Six. The discussion made, puts the findings into context. After you have read this chapter, you should understand:

1. Organization of the services and its implications to co-ordination;
2. Issues in staffing;
3. Models of staffing;
4. The philosophy and the theory underlying co-ordination and their implications;
5. The nature of the services;
6. The communication system in the services;
7. The nature and type of co-ordination mechanisms in place;
8. The level of effectiveness in the services; and
9. The forces to which co-ordination was responding.

ORGANIZATION

The findings on how the services were run revealed that organization of the services was around departments and units/sections. However, it was clear that some individuals, especially top executives, did not belong to departments. They were usually above them. This led to the existence of special structures in organizations; for example the Office of Commissioner of Education at MOEC. As the findings about levels of

operation revealed, the organization of the services was further divided into five levels of operation depending on the type of service. The main approaches to departmentation were functional, territorial or geographic and customer or service. Functional departmentation was the approach used in grouping functions and activities in the services. The size of the departments and the pattern of their departmentation depended on the size of an organization, organizational goals and objectives, and the situation which an organization faced. Big and multi-structural organizations had more complex systems. Such organizations were governmental bodies. For example, the Ministry of Education and Culture had more departments and units/sections if compared to TSB or TLB. This ministry had six fully-fledged departments dealing with the services. These departments included the inspectorate, planning, adult, primary, secondary, and teacher education.

In the Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth, only the Department of Social Welfare dealt with educational services for visually impaired and blind people. This department operated in the area of vocational training. The departments of Folk Development Colleges and Higher Education in the Ministry of Community Development, Women and Children and the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology respectively, were the only departments involved in these services in these ministries. The Folk Development Colleges were running adult education centres and classes; and the Department of Higher Education was responsible for tertiary education.

In the church and charities, functional departmentation was used. Functions determined the formation of departments. However, the smallness of this type of organizations limited the size of the formed departments. Education was a department in the church and TSB. In TLB, such a department did not exist. In the church, every diocese had its own education department. For example, Iringa Diocese of the Evangelical Lutheran Church had its own department of education. The same department existed in the same church for the Diocese of Northeast Tanzania, and the Diocese of Central Tanganyika of the Anglican Church. In all cases, these departments were relatively small, and thus manned by fewer people if compared to those in the state sector. A very special case was in TSB, where the whole department was made of two people: the Education Officer and his Secretary.

The size of education departments in the church and charities was small due to the size of the organizations themselves, the scope and nature of the services they provided. These organizations were simple. Due to this, they had simple structures. For example in the church, dioceses were simple organizations, with simple structures. Because all non-governmental organizations were simple, their services were concentrated in small geopolitical areas, and therefore limiting the number of staff to be employed. Their operations were emergence-like activities, as they depended on application from individuals and institutions for help. In such cases, their involvement was more of an event, and not a process. They were usually coming in to bridge specific

gaps in the services. Finally, there was an effective use of manpower. Cooperation between departments in the church and charities was high. This way, the limited manpower available was being maximized and optimized.

In both the state and private sectors of education, functional departmentation of the services was a key to co-ordination. It was the basis on which the services were mechanically designed and organized. It provided a logical method of grouping the functions and activities. The approach gave managers and administrators an organized way of monitoring staff, activities and principal line executives with ease. The approach was the start of effective use of manpower. This is because it was based on the principle of occupational specialization. The objective was to place people according to their specializations.

There were problems in functionally departmenting the services. The approach appeared to de-emphasize overall organizational objectives. Specialists working in different functionally designed departments, had problems in seeing the services as a "whole". In multi-structural organizations like government ministries, people struggled to earn credits for their respective departments. They demonstrated behaviours and attitudes involving loyalty to their functional departments. In such situations, individuals were set to defend the positions and interests of their particular departments. This made efforts to co-ordinate contributions to the services by different departments difficult. Also, only

chief executives of departments and their bosses could be held responsible for the services. This could easily be done in small organizations like the dioceses and charities. In larger and multi-structural organizations such as government ministries and councils, the burden was too large and difficult for one person to bear. In such a situation under which the chief executive officer was the only responsible for decision-making, it was difficult for the services to adapt quickly to the change of environment.

Territorial or geographic departmentation was widely used in the state sector. This was the form of departmentation used by organizations that operated over wide geographical or vast areas. The purpose was to provide similar services simultaneously across the nation.

There were variations in the use of territorial or geographic departmentation. This is because the approach was used along with other approaches, as there is no a single best approach to departmentation which is suited to all situations. Regardless of the differences in application, territorial or geographic departmentation clearly established levels of operation in the services. It divided service organizations and workers into national, zonal, regional and district levels.

Geographic departmentation was used only in the Ministry of Education and Culture. In this Ministry, geographic departmentation was used in the inspectorate. Under this approach, inspectorate territories were formed on the basis of geographical location. Seven zones existed on this

basis. Each zone had more than one region in its area of operation (Eklindh, Kurwa and Mkaali, 1995).

Territorial departmentation was used by the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Department of Social Welfare. In the Ministry of Education and Culture, territorial departmentation applied to primary and adult education. The departmentation in this case considered the geopolitical boundaries of regions and districts. Under this approach, town, municipal, city and district councils were responsible for primary and adult education in their areas. Regions and districts were running education as a department, which was also responsible for the education of visually impaired and blind people (Eklindh, Kisanji, Kurwa and Mkaali, 1992; Ministry of Education and Culture, 1995).

In the Department of Social Welfare, territorial departmentation meant the department establishing regional and district offices. Like in the case of the Ministry of Education and Culture, geopolitical boundaries determined territories for operation. All social welfare services were found being offered at regional and district levels. Although these services were being provided at the regional and district levels, the vocational training centres were controlled from the centre. As one Regional Social Welfare Officer put it: "We can offer blind people all the social welfare services. That we are doing. However, we are not responsible for the vocational training centre. That is controlled from the headquarters. We just help in getting students for it".

In the private sector, territorial departmentation was vivid in TLB. Territorial departmentation meant the organization setting up regional and district structures. These formed the branches of the organization in their respective areas.

Geographic or territorial departmentation enhanced co-ordination at the lower levels. It was the extension of an organization to the grassroots. It was the acceptance of responsibility, and acting to deliver services to people quickly and effectively. It was a good means of increasing local influence, control and participation in the services. Problems in the services were frequently dealt with locally. This minimized delays, and raised efficiency.

Territorial departmentation also had some adverse limitations. The approach needed more managerial and administrative personnel with some general understanding of the services. To a greater part, these were lacking. As a result, managers and administrators holding positions and responsibility either had very little knowledge about the services, or they did not have any at all. In all regions and districts studied, more than half of educational administrators did not have an understanding of the services, although they themselves were expected to play a role in the provisions. On the other hand, territorial departmentation posed a great threat to co-ordination. Each region and district was organizing and running the services according to its own environment and priorities. As a result, it was quite difficult if not impossible, for respective ministries

to monitor the activities of many different regions and districts. There were events that were taking place at regional and district levels without the ministry itself being aware. For example, between 1995 and 1996, Masasi, Pongwe, Makalala and Uhuru Mchanganyiko primary schools were sending home their visually impaired pupils during term periods because of lack of food. Down at the grassroots, territorial departmentation created extra co-ordination problem. Town, Municipal, city and district Councils were very autonomous from their regional administration. Education administrators at that level were accountable to their Council Directors and not otherwise. This led to a co-ordination vacuum between the regional and those lower levels of educational structures. The situation was even worse, however, as Directors of Councils were not answerable to the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC). This had far reaching implications. One, it was difficult for the Ministry to know how exactly education was fairing. Two, the grassroots of education were being detached from the main body, MOEC. Three, control by the MOEC was compromised. Lastly, the regional level was left with very little to do. It was left with functions such as receiving new teachers and allocating them to respective councils in the region, monitoring intra and inter-regional transfer of pupils, teachers and educational administrators; and advising or helping the councils when requested.

Customer or service departmentation was found to be widely used in organizing the education of visually impaired and blind people in the

state sector. Customer or service departmentation is the process of grouping services and activities so that they reflect a primary interest in customers or service users (Koontz and Weihrich, 1990). In the education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania, customer or service departmentation was used to streamline the services provided by various departments even further. There were two common approaches to this. First, institutions were created to offer education. These included schools, colleges and universities. This approach was used in primary, secondary, teacher, adult, vocational and higher education. The created institutions were assigned the duty of meeting clearly defined educational needs of people with visual loss. Second, sections and units were formed to take care of the services. For example, at MOEC, there was the Unit of Special Education in the Office of Commissioner of Education. Also in this Ministry, separate Sections of Special Education existed in the Department of Adult Education and the Inspectorate. In the department of Social Welfare, a Section of Rehabilitation existed, and it looked after vocational training of people with disabilities.

What was clear in this approach, was that its application differed between levels of operation even in the same organization. For instance, in MOEC, at regional and district levels only two sections were found. These were the Academic and the Adult Education sections. These did not necessarily reflect the approach adopted at the Ministry level. Furthermore, in the private sector, customer or service departmentation was only found in TLB. In TLB, a Unit of Education and Employment was formed to take care of matters related to education and employment

of people with visual impairments. In TSB and the church where the department of education existed, the need for further streamlining of functions and activities was not urgently felt because the departments themselves were relatively small.

There were vivid strengths for co-ordination in customer or service departmentation. In their respective departments, the sections and units to a greater extent addressed the special and widely varied educational needs of people with visual impairments. Efforts to have their problems solved were more focused, and control and supervision could easily be exercised by managers and administrators. Likewise, this was an economical use of manpower. People were allocated jobs they were familiar with and knowledgeable in. Factors like these, were a way to the enhancement of efficiency and effectiveness.

There were also problems resulting from departmenting this way. Inter-departmental co-ordination was quite difficult. Every unit or section worked under an umbrella structure. It had to exercise its duties within the jurisdiction of the umbrella structure. This meant that every department dealt with its own issues as it deemed appropriate, and the section or the unit reinforced this necessity. It was in this spirit that the Inspectorate and Adult Education departments in MOEC established their own sections of special education despite the existence of the Special Education Unit in the Office of Commissioner of Education.

The limited jurisdiction of sections and units had wider implications to the Special Education Unit at MOEC. One, every department, and every section or unit, was responsible for the educational problems of people with visual loss in its service areas. Thus, the Special Education Unit had no legal authority to instruct or intervene in the way other sections, units or departments had handled their respective matters of education of visually impaired people. Two, the whole structure minimized the authority and powers of the Unit to effectively integrate the contributions of all departments. Three, afraid to disturb the delicate balance that existed, the staff in the Unit resorted to informal relationships to get the cooperation of officers in other departments, especially those without a special education unit or section of their own. As one staff in the Unit put it: "We have to depend on personal relationships if we are to achieve something". In such circumstances, cooperation replaced co-ordination. According to Gregg (1957), cooperation cannot, and should not, replace co-ordination, but compliment it.

The existence of the Special Education Unit created confusion to staff, teachers and visually impaired people. First, people did not know exactly who to consult, until after some trials. For example, a person in need of equipment for a secondary school was not sure whether or not to go to the Special Education Unit or the Department of Secondary Education. It was a similar case for a person from a teachers training college or an adult education centre. Second, some problems took long to be solved just because either someone somewhere, believed that it was the

responsibility of another department or section or unit; or, there were some bureaucratic communication channels to be followed between departments before the problem was resolved.

THE PHILOSOPHY AND THEORY UNDERLYING CO-ORDINATION OF THE SERVICES

Philosophy

The findings revealed the official philosophy which guided co-ordination of the services. The official philosophy adopted by MOEC was that "the education of visually impaired people is an integral part of General Education." Its co-ordination was therefore to be done within mainstream education (Institute of Education, 1984; Eklinth, Kisanji, Kurwa and Mkaali, 1992; UNESCO, 1992). This meant the education of visually impaired and blind people being co-ordinated from within the administrative structures in respective subsectors. This official position had two problems. First, there were different ministries and agencies involved in the provisions. All these had their own approaches in its management and administration. Second, mechanisms were needed to convince all involved organizations to accept and adopt this philosophy.

THEORIES

Five theories were found to be underlying the co-ordination of the education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. These were the centralized, mechanistic, hierarchical, decentralized and voluntary co-

ordination theories. Their use was not discrete. They were used overlappingly. The way some of them were applied, had minimal difference between the state sector, the private sector and organizations.

Centralized Co-ordination

The findings revealed that centralized co-ordination was the backbone of co-ordination in this education. At all levels of operation in both sectors, all processes of policy making, planning, decision-making and supervision, were centralized. They were concentrated in the offices and the hands of managers and administrators. This had two implications to co-ordination. One, other key players in the services were denied the opportunity to influence events in co-ordination. Teachers and other ordinary service workers were alienated from the processes affecting their work and life: policy making, planning and decision-making. As one specialist teacher put it: "Everything is planned and decided at the top by the executives. We are never involved anyhow. They plan and decide for us, and they always tell us what to do". This kind of alienation meant that service standards, procedures and programmes, were imposed on teachers and other workers in the field. Dissatisfaction, anger and frustration among them, were clearly expressed by their opposition to some "traditions" in the services. As Sheppard (1996) said: "where frustrations pervade, where people feel that their presence and contributions to the whole are not noticed, and where authority and power are used to deny others the opportunity to participate in the processes affecting their wellbeing and successes, no doubt that

ambitions, commitments, unity, successes and morale crumble". In such situations, co-ordination in this subsector of education was made difficult.

Not workers in the field alone were alienated, but also the beneficiaries of the services. Visually impaired people were not being consulted about their services. Everything was being decided for them by managers and administrators. This alienation became the source of conflict in the system, as those alienated tried to bring alienation to an end.

The second implication of centralization on co-ordination, was the creation of power centres at every level of operation. At the national level, each respective department in the ministry had its own power centre. Heads of departments known as Directors in MOEC, Ministry of Higher education, Science and Technology and the Ministry of Community development, Women and Children. The equivalent of these in the Department of Social Welfare, were the Assistant Commissioners. In MOEC, all department heads were answerable to the Commissioner of Education. The office of Commissioner of Education was therefore a body above departments, designed to co-ordinate the activities of these departments. Above the Commissioner of Education, were the Principal Secretary who was the Chief Administrator of the Ministry, and the minister, who was the political head of the organization. In the Ministry of Higher education, Science and Technology, the situation was slightly different. There was no position of the commissioner. Thus, Heads of departments (including the Director of Higher education) were directly

answerable to the Principal Secretary, above whom, was the minister. The structure was the same in the Ministry of Community development, Women and Children. The director of Department of Folk Development colleges, was accountable to the Principal Secretary, above whom was the minister. In the Ministry of Labour and the Development of Youth, the structure was even more different. In the department of social welfare, the commissioner was assisted by two Assistant Commissioners, each of whom heading a unit/section. These Assistant Commissioners were accountable to the commissioner, above whom were the Principal Secretary and the minister.

The level of centralization differed between services, and therefore departments and ministries. In MOEC for example, differences could be found between departments. Planning, secondary and teacher education departments were centralized. All the institutions under these departments were controlled directly from the headquarters. Heads of these institutions were there just to ensure that policies and orders made by the headquarters were precisely implemented. The Special Education Unit too, was centralized. In the Inspectorate, adult and primary education, the level of centralization was different. There were some levels of devolution of powers and authority in these departments. Even in these, issues of policy making remained centralized.

The patterns of centralization found in MOEC were also found in other government ministries. In the Ministry of labour and the development of

youth, vocational training was centrally co-ordinated. Vocational training centres were directly controlled by the unit/section of rehabilitation in the Department of Social Welfare at the headquarters. In the Ministry of Community development, Women and Children, the Department of Folk Development colleges centrally co-ordinated folk development colleges. In the Ministry of Higher education, Science and Technology, higher education was devolved to autonomous higher education institutions. In the private sector, centralization was as strong as in the state sector. Like in the state sector, there were variations in its application. In TLB, policy making, planning and decision-making, were concentrated at the headquarters. Co-ordination was centralized in the office of secretary-general. In TSB, the situation was almost similar. Although organization was a national organization, it was only found in Dar Es Salaam where its headquarters were. Co-ordination was centralized in the office of the Director. In the church, the situation was slightly different. The secretary of education was responsible for the co-ordination of these services. Above the Secretary, was the church hierarchy.

There were advantages from centralization of co-ordination. Firstly, there were fewer people to be held accountable for decision-making in the services. This meant fewer channels and positions to consult before a decision was made. Secondly, this system also minimized the possibility of contradicting decisions as there were few people with powers and authority to do so. On the other hand, there were problems resulting

from centralization. One, Tanzania was a too vast country to have co-ordination centralized. Problems were taking too long to reach the top. Hence, there were delays in decision-making. For example, it took longer for equipment repair requests to reach MOEC from the school further northwest. Two, there was communication breakdown in the system. Information from the lower levels of operation either did not reach the top completely and vice-versa. Sometimes, information was deliberately distorted at different levels, to suit a particular interest. For example, although Masasi primary school had sent home its visually impaired blind pupils for the most of 1996, the levels above the district did not know it. The same situation existed in Mufindi in the case of Makalala primary school. The distance between power centres, in some cases, provided an opportunity for cover-ups in the system.

Mechanistic Co-ordination

The findings further revealed, that to alleviate some shortcomings in centralization, the mechanistic co-ordination approach was also used. This theoretical approach was in line with functional departmentation. In mechanistically co-ordinating the services, the services were functionally organized. Structures were created along subsector lines to co-ordinate them. This meant that every subsector of education was also responsible for providing for people with visual impairments in its services. Mechanistic co-ordination had some advantages to the services. Firstly, the education of visually impaired and blind people was made an integral part of general education. It made it possible for them to be provided in

the mainstream. Secondly, this approach made the education of visually impaired and blind people a responsibility of not just specialists, but everybody involved in education. This increased chances of being accepted and being positively understood in the whole educational system. Thirdly, mechanistic co-ordination ensured that each subsector of the education of visually impaired and blind people was in the hands of respective specialists. This was a key to focused, appropriate and effective education.

There were also problems resulting from co-ordinating mechanistically. Firstly, there was undefined functional authority of the special education unit in the Office of Commissioner of Education. The existence of this unit meant the presence of the superior ordinate structure with functional authority over activities in various departments in the Ministry. The relationship between this unit and line-departments in the Ministry was undefined. This limited the jurisdiction of the unit, turning it into an advisory body. Secondly, the special units were misunderstood for independent structures with separate own goals and objectives to achieve. As a result, they operated independent of line-departments. This had two effects on the education of visually impaired people. One, line-departments jealously protected the aspects of the services which they were formally required to offer, leaving those formally unspecified unattended. For example in adult, secondary and teacher education, the issues of equipment and materials for learners with visual loss were found to be left unattended. Two, the education of visually impaired people acquired an accessory character as some of its aspects became

detached from general education management and administration. Third, In organizations which had more than one department involved in the education of visually impaired people, there was the careless application of the staff device. Staff specialists in the education of visually impaired people and the related specialist areas, replaced line-managers and line-administrators contrary to the line arrangement of staff in the organizational structure. For example in MOEC, the special education unit in the Office of Commissioner of Education was comprised of specialists of educational special needs. These specialist staff were to advise superior managers and administrators in different line-departments on matters of education for people with visual impairments. Unfortunately, this unit appeared to undermine the authority of line-departments which it was supposed to advise by highly preoccupying the Commissioner of Education. This had three implications. One, The line-managers and line-subordinates were effectively excluded from the education of visually impaired people. This caused resentment among line-managers and line-administrators, because they felt that they were being relieved of their duties. Two, the unit was sometimes assigned problems that would be more appropriate if they were assigned to line-departments, line-managers and line-subordinates. Three, there was the breakage of the unity of command. Issues related to policy, staffing and training which were formally to be handled by respective line-departments were sometimes hijacked by this unit.

Finally, mechanistic co-ordination was very likely to disadvantage the education of visually impaired people. This likelihood was even greater in organizations where this education was scattered into many departments, but with a special unit between them. In such organizations like MOEC, mechanistic co-ordination provided the base for distributive relationship between departments. Under this type of relationship, contacts between departments are limited to few formal channels wrapped in rigid formal rules. Line-managers depend on higher authority for calm and integration of purpose. Bargaining strategy is the only tactic for any department to have resources from higher authority (Finch, Jones and Litterer, 1976). This kind of approach had more effects to the education of visually impaired people. The special education unit was being left out of the bargaining because it was not a department. This made special education to be left out of policy making and planning processes. An analysis of a policy on higher education produced by the Ministry of Higher education, Science and Technology (1995), and the policy on education and training produced by MOEC (1995), revealed that these policies were a compilation of proposals by respective departments to their higher authorities. It was no wonder therefore, to find these two policy documents organized around functional subsectors. What was revealed by this analysis, was that special education and all the vocabularies related to it, were excluded.

Again, the education of visually impaired people, like the subsector of special education as a whole, was adversely hit by limited powers and

authority the special education unit had. The legal power and authority of this unit has already been discussed. Let us now examine its expert and referent powers and authority, and the way they affected its operations. The special education unit was further weakened by its limited expert power. Expert power is the influence one person have over another because of knowledge and skills (Finch, Jones and Litterer, 1976; Koontz and Weihrich, 1990). Expert power therefore, may be characterized by demonstration of mastery, ability to influence mates, and meeting or surpassing standards of a particular source of power.

In their evaluation study of the training of special education teachers in Tanzania, Kristensen, Kristensen, Kisanji and Nyaga (1990) found that some tutors had questionable qualifications. Although they were training teachers at the certificate level, some of them had just the certificate qualification. Very few of these tutors had diplomas and degrees. Another problem they found, was that most of them had never had any in-service training after they graduated. Thus, they were sticking to their old knowledge, regardless of current innovations and thinking.

The special education unit was no exception. All five officers of the unit at the time of the study had not gone beyond form four. Out of these five, four held a certificate in special education. The fifth was a diploma holder. All of them underwent their training before 1982, and none of them have had any retraining. In societies like Tanzania where school levels and academic credentials are used as a measure of the quality

nature of human labour, expert power and status, low qualifications among staff of special education unit was contributing to their marginalization as both individuals and a unit.

Referent power and authority comes from relationships between individuals and groups. They influence each other and come together into a special relationship because of identical goals and objectives, status, class or background (Koontz and Weihrich, 1990). Referent power and authority therefore, are products of well cultivated relationships. They signify the sort of exchange relationship that might exist between individuals and group.

Three types of exchange relationships existed between special education units and overall organizations. First, there was a collaborative exchange relationship. This was a win-win relationship. This was when the unit had the same, similar or unconflicting interests with those held by other parties. This type of relationship was found in the Department of Social Welfare, TLB and TSB. In these organizations, the approach was integrative. In all of them, an organization was seen as a whole. Common goals were emphasized, and every sub-structure was collaborating with the whole to achieve the organizational goals. The second type of exchange relationships was the confrontational one. This was the win-lose relationship. The involved parties had conflicting interests. One of them had to eventually accept losing. This type of relationship was found in the MOEC. Because the special education unit

could not stand up against functional departments of respective subsectors, it systematically lost co-ordination of services in those respective subsectors of education. The organizational structure and the power and authority imbalance between this unit and line-departments fettered the ability of the unit to stand up. Lastly, there was a negotiated or compromised exchange relationship. In this type of relationship, there were perhaps conflicting interests. The relationship was guided by convictions that fighting was too costly, withdrawal or flight was unnecessary or undesirable, and the need to have things done however little they might be. Under such circumstances, overt or covert bargaining took place. This was common in distributive approach organizations like the MOEC. The special education unit had to reach negotiated solutions with line-departments before it carried out some of its planned activities. Unless it convinced the respective line-department about the importance of the activity, and the security of the integrity and interests of that line-department, nothing could come out of the negotiations. One officer of this unit said:

The unit depends on the cooperation of other departments in this Ministry for its success. They are these departments which run most of the institutions in which the education of visually impaired people takes place. Unless they allow us to do whatever we intend to do, we cannot do it.

This relationship was a direct product of co-ordinating mechanically, and the distributive approach adopted in organization.

Decentralized Co-ordination

Decentralized co-ordination was another approach to co-ordination in the education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. It was mainly found in the state sector. In the state sector, decentralization was found in MOEC and in the Department of social Welfare. This approach was used in sending supervision closer to the grassroots. It implied creating powerful centres of power and authority within localities. Essentially, decentralization was a method used to enhance effective control over the services. The approach led to the creation of the centres in the peripheries, accountable to the centres at the headquarters. These centres of the peripheries centralized powers in their hands, and participation continued to be avoided. Hence, decentralization in services was not the means to improving participation of service workers and visually impaired people in policy making, planning and decision-making. It was the way of increasing the control of managers and top administrators on the grassroots.

In MOEC, decentralization was practiced in Primary Education, adult education and the Inspectorate. There was a difference in the way it was being practiced in these departments. The Inspectorate was decentralized to zones. Each zone was led by the zonal chief inspector. There was a special education inspector in every zone, responsible for the inspection of standards in the education of visually impaired people in all Primary Schools, Secondary Schools and Teachers Training Colleges in the zone.

In primary and adult departments, decentralization was to regions and districts. It was this decentralization which led to the existence of the Department of Education at these two levels. The regional and district levels, were responsible for primary and adult education in their geopolitical areas. In the Department of Social Welfare, decentralization meant the creation of regional and district administrative structures. These provided social welfare services to visually impaired and blind people. They helped individuals who wanted to join Vocational Training Centres. However, in some districts, the Department of Social Welfare, did not have structures. For example, Mufindi Dodoma rural and Singida rural districts in the study, did not have the department. Those needing the services of this department in such districts, were automatically being remarkably disadvantaged. Like in the case of MOEC, increasing participation was not the goal. It was the stabilization of the managers and administrators control which was at stake.

In the private sector, TLB alone appeared to practice decentralization. To TLB, decentralization was the means of opening membership to as many visually impaired persons as possible. Although there were regional and district structures in all studied areas, these structures played a role below their levels of operation. They were largely confined in institutions with visually impaired persons.

There were advantages of decentralization in the services. Firstly, supervision was brought closer to the grassroots. This was an important step towards efficiency and effectiveness in services. Secondly, regions and districts were involved in the education of people with visual loss. This made these services a responsibility of all levels of administration, and not just the national level alone. Thirdly, the approach minimized delays in decision-making in simple matters.

There were disadvantages of decentralization too. Firstly, there an imbalanced delegation of authority between regional and district structures. Decentralization had been pushed down to the very bottom of the structure, the district. This had led to the development of independent satellites at the district level, at the expense of the regional administration. Secondly, regional administrative structures had authority delegated to them, but without proper responsibility. They were not responsible for actions by district levels in their geopolitical areas. Such a relationship was leading to organizational chaos at the regional level. Thirdly, the Ministries responsible for the education of visually impaired people could not directly hold districts accountable. The district levels were independent of these Ministries, and they were accountable to the Ministry of Local Governments. This made accountability difficult.

Hierarchical Co-ordination

It was found in this study, that hierarchism was at the heart of co-ordination. At every level of operation, the administrative structure was hierarchized. The arrangement determined the extent of powers and authority. There were two types of managers and administrators in the state sector hierarchy. These were political and technical managers and administrators. At all levels of operation, political managers and administrators formed the highest and the strongest centre of power and authority. Usually, they were political appointees to the positions. For example, all Council Directors, Regional Administrative Secretaries, Heads of Government Departments and Ministries, were all being politically appointed. Technical staff always came second in power and authority. For example, at the Council level, the District Education Officer depended on the Council Director for plans and decisions. Or, at the regional level, the Regional Education Officer had less powers and on matters of education if compared to the Regional Administrative Secretary. This clear definition of power and authority between positions, started at the national level, down to the lowest level in the services, the institutional level.

In the private sector, there was a mixture of types of managers and administrators. They included the appointed, the elected and the technocrats. In the church hierarchy, the appointed managers and administrators included the Secretary of Education and Heads of schools. The elected included the Bishop, his deputy and the Diocesan

Secretary. In TLB, at the top of the hierarchy were the elected leaders. They included the Chairman, the Secretary-general, the Treasurer and their deputies. The Head of the Unit of Education and Employment was an appointee of the Secretary-general. In TSB, the situation was slightly different. The top executives in the hierarchy were not in office at the time of the study. These were the Honorary Chairman, the Honorary Secretary, the Honorary Treasurer and their deputies. All of these were supposed to be elected leaders of the Society. Unfortunately, the Society has not had its congress for the last eighteen years. The appointed managers and administrators of the Society alone were found running the Society. In all cases, the elected managers and administrators formed centres of power and authority in the hierarchy. The absence of such centres in TSB was very likely to have negative implications on the daily co-ordination of activities of the Society.

There were advantages of hierarchical co-ordination. Firstly, this co-ordination approach helped to define positions and individuals responsible for policy, decision-making, planning and organizing the services. People knew exactly who to consult and influence about the education of visually impaired people. Secondly, this type of co-ordination sealed centralization. It added more powers and authority to what managers and administrators already had. Thirdly, it fostered a certain loyalty towards positions. Individuals developed a special fear and respect for positions. Fourthly, hierarchical co-ordination

formalized the system. An elaborate administrative structure developed out of this approach.

There were problems in co-ordinating hierarchically. It was causing delays in problem solving. More time was spent on chasing files up before decisions were made, even on urgent issues. The bureaucratic tendency of emphasizing formal channels developed. Individuals had to go through frustrating formal channels before problems could be solved. There was also the problem of people seeking to avoid the formal channels. Under such circumstances, people designed short-cuts. This led to the development of an informal structure alongside the formal one. It allowed the development of "cheap politics" and strong reactive personal relationships between managers, administrators and workers or visually impaired people. A specialist teacher said: "You must know someone at the top, otherwise you will never have anything

done". The development of the informal structure therefore, gave rise to a certain level of nepotism in the system. At the same time, hierarchical co-ordination excluded workers and visually impaired people from policy making, planning and co-ordination processes in the services even further. As a result of this theoretical orientation, these processes were entrusted in the hands of even fewer individuals. The distance between these individuals, workers and service beneficiaries became increasingly wide. This became the source of

mistrust and tension between managers, administrators, workers and visually impaired and blind people.

Voluntary Co-ordination

The findings also revealed that voluntary co-ordination was used. This was the form of co-ordination based on the willingness to act without or with less reward from the organization. It frequently involved extra duties and longer working hours. In the state sector, voluntary co-ordination was found in schools. In the private sector, it was found in charities. In both cases, its scope and focus differed. However, the purpose was the same, to have better services.

In the top levels of operation in the state sector, voluntary co-ordination was very minimal. Individuals gave monetary motivation a priority before getting involved in extra duties, or before working for extra hours. A Regional Education Officer said: "People are not ready to volunteer. They are either to be given overtime or travel allowances for anything extra to their normal duties." Thus, at top levels, people were to be motivated well if they were to perform. This meant that whenever there were financial constraints, things piled up, people were less enthusiastic and less active.

At the Institutional level, especially in primary schools, the situation was found to be different. People were devoting much of their time on voluntary duties, such as creative activities and mobilizing support from

their communities. At Uhuru Mchanganyiko for instance, teachers were able to overcome the acute shortage of styluses by using used ball-pens to write braille. At Buigiri, the cooperation between teachers and a local carpenter made it possible for the making of styluses for the school. In all primary schools studied, specialist teachers were found involved in fund raising activities and soliciting for donations of equipment for their schools. For example, at Uhuru Mchanganyiko Primary School in Dar Es Salaam, St. Joseph Cathedral donated ten typewriters. The Lions Club donated food, mattresses and utensils. All of these would have otherwise continued to be a problem to the school, if teachers did not voluntarily go round in search of help. At Masasi Primary School in Masasi, Masasi Educational Fund (MEF) funded the water project for the school, and the Anglican Church Diocese of Masasi donated boarding facilities; and Ndanda Hospital offered free medical care to the pupils. All these were the results of teachers volunteer efforts. In Tanga, Pongwe Bweni Primary School had Shia-Ismailia donating food, boarding facilities and meeting the medical costs of the pupils. The Roman Catholic Church Diocese of Iringa donated money and supervised the construction of toilets at Makalala Primary School in Mufindi. The Diocese also constructed a water tank for the school.

In secondary schools, Teachers Training Colleges and Vocational Training Centres, there was less voluntary work by staff. Like in Ministries and Councils, they were to be paid for any extra job or

working hours. An exception was at Korogwe Girls Secondary School. At this school, a business family in the spirit of parenthood, approached the school administration, and requested to help. By the time of the study, this family had become a permanent donor to the school. The family paid for the maintenance of typewriters used by visually impaired students, gave visually impaired students some pocket money while at school; donated some clothes for them, and gave them some travel allowances at the end of school terms.

Where voluntary co-ordination was found, the common feature was that, the Head of the Unit of Visual Impairment was the master-brain. With the exception of Korogwe Girls Secondary School where the headmistress was active, in all schools, mobilizing support was found to be resting on the shoulders of the Head of the Unit. Even where the process was started by another staff, in the long-run, the Head of the Unit took over. On the other hand, heads of schools played a very low role. They were found getting involved in final stages, for example, the stages of officially receiving the donations, and deciding on their best use.

In charities, voluntary co-ordination was a widely used approach. The approach was seen as a way of economically using the few resources available to the organizations. With the exception of the Secretary-general of TLB who was also an employee of the League, leaders of charities were volunteers. Even among employees of these

organizations, the spirit of volunteering was found. As a result of charity work, TLB got donations of boarding facilities, utensils and cash from Human Welfare Trust, Lions Club and Rotary International, which it later donated to schools and individuals.

Charities were also co-ordinating the activities of international non-governmental agencies in the country. They had entered into partnership agreements with these international non-governmental agencies, under which these agencies supported the activities of these charities. As a result of such agreements, TLB was the recipient of the Swedish Organization of Handicapped International Aid Foundation (SHIA) and Christoffel Blinden Mission (CBM) of Germany. The donations of these agencies enabled TLB to donate Perkins Brailers, slates and their styluses, funds and books to individuals, schools and vocational training centres; and to run inservice seminars for visually impaired teachers in the country. On the other hand, TSB received assistance from CBM, Sight Savers of the U.K and Theofan of the Netherlands. This assistance enabled TSB to carry on opening resource rooms, running awareness seminars for educational administrators and Heads of schools, running inservice seminars for specialist teachers, sponsoring the training of itinerant teachers and funding the Integrated Education Programme under which itinerant teaching was vital; and the organization was able to donate equipment like typewriters, Perkins Brailers, white canes, braille kits, books and funds, to both individuals and institutions.

There were advantages of voluntary co-ordination. The system gave service workers a certain level of power to shape events. It gave them a say over issues surrounding their needs. At the same time, the approach made it possible to have different groups of interested individuals getting involved in service provision. It was a change to the tradition in the services, under which only managers, administrators and service workers were responsible. Voluntary co-ordination also, enabled solutions for local problems to be sought in the local community itself. This was a good step towards ensuring effective and efficient services.

There were problems in voluntary co-ordination also. In most cases, the proceeds of voluntary co-ordination replaced government efforts and funding. Voluntary efforts were meant to support the efforts already in place. On the contrary, they were taken to be an alternative in some instances. For instance, Masasi District Council abandoned the plans to buy boarding facilities for Masasi Primary School, immediately after the Anglican Church had donated the facilities to the school. There was also a conflict over who should have control of the donations made. In some areas, councils as owners of schools wanted to control the donations, because they were the legal owners of schools. On the other hand, staff in these schools were resisting that, for the fear of having the donations "creamed-up". Donor individuals preferred dealing with institutions directly, than Councils. For example, in Mufindi, the District Council wanted all donations to Makalala Primary

School to be channeled through its officers. This was strongly opposed by the staff of the school and the Roman Catholic Church Diocese, the main donor to the school. When requested to arbitrate, the Regional Commissioner ruled in favour of the school staff. Principally, voluntary co-ordination was not guaranteeing smooth planning although it permitted better services. The support was not readily available, and donors themselves had their own areas of interest, which were not necessarily of immediate problem to people in the services. All these problems posed considerable difficulties to co-ordination. People had to draw a line between personal convictions and interests and those of others, and between those convictions and interests and the standing rules. This was always difficult to do without damaging some of them.

ISSUES IN STAFFING

Staffing is an important aspect of co-ordination. Managers and administrators in their daily co-ordination activities, are faced with the responsibility of ensuring that all job vacancies in an organization are filled, and that staff have all necessary skills (Armstrong, 1995). The education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania was not an exception. Staffing was as important to it, as it might be to any service. Every organization involved therefore, had to develop a system within which to get enough qualified staff for its programmes.

The findings in this study further revealed that staffing of the services revolved around specific issues. Moreover, There was a difference in the way the state sector and the private sector approached staffing. In the state sector, every organization had a preference of certain professions for staff. For example, City, District, Municipal and Town Councils, Folk Development Colleges, the Department of Higher Education and MOEC, were predominantly employing teachers in the service. The Department of Social Welfare preferred social workers. Co-ordination benefited from this special preference for specific professions among organizations in this sector. Firstly, there was professional unity in organizations as people expressed similar professional opinion and orientation, and as they were bound by similar ethics.

However, this led to professional jealousy, protectionism and conflict. In such situations, it was difficult for different professions to contemplate working together. Professional disunity made co-ordination even more difficult. It was difficult for different professions in the services to work together, or appreciate one another. Empire building and maintenance therefore, became one of the main features of staffing in this service sector.

In the private sector, the issue of preferring certain professions for staff was not there. A mixture of professions was found among staff of the Church, TLB and TSB. This had an advantage to co-ordination. There was a balanced view about the services, resulting from different

professions working together. Due to this balanced view, the Church and Charities had a more wider view of the education of visually impaired and blind people. As a result, they were the ones exerting pressure on the state sector for change in the services. They all perceived the state sector as being resisting change. It was clear from this study however, that differing professional orientations and empire building, had a significant role to play in the state sector's reluctance to accept change. At the same time, the presence of different professions in organizations in the private sector, cleared the antagonistic atmosphere between professions in this sector. It made it possible for the integration and co-ordination of contributions by different professions.

The disadvantage of a professionally mixed staff was a widely ranging mixture of ideas which was not necessarily in line with resources and priorities. This meant constant changes and shifts in policy and management style.

Another issue of staffing was the extent to which visually impaired and blind people themselves could be involved in the provisions. There was a difference between the two sectors in terms of the presence of this group among staff. In all organizations studied, there was a difference in terms of employing visually impaired and blind people as staff.

In the state sector, visually impaired and blind people were employed as teaching staff in various institutions by councils, MOEC and the Department of Social Welfare. There was also a few of them working as administrators in the Regional offices of the Department of Social Welfare.

All this did not mean their full participation. There were operational policies nationally, which limited their participation. For example, in MOEC, visually impaired and blind people were not specialist teachers. They were thus not supposed to participate in the running of the services. One Officer of the Special Education Unit in MOEC said:

We have made it clear to Councils and schools, that visually impaired teachers are ordinary teachers and not specialists in this education. We have instructed them therefore, that they should not involve them in the running of this education units.

In the Department of Social Welfare too, such a policy existed. A Senior Officer in the department said: "It is our policy in the department to have visually impaired workers in some aspects of our activities. We believe, they should not occupy high administrative posts."

With these policies in place, the situation in the lower levels was of mixed realities. In Social Welfare, it was found that visually impaired and blind people were occupying somewhat high administrative posts at regional, district and institutional levels in defiance of the official policy. It was found that there were Assistant Regional Social Welfare

Officers in two regions, a District Social Welfare Officer in one region, and a Deputy Principal of a vocational training centre among visually impaired and blind people employed by the Department of Social Welfare. The lower structures were using powers available to them to disobey the operational policy set by the Department. One Regional Social Welfare Officer put this into perspective: "As a Regional Social Welfare Officer, I am unhappy with this policy. I cannot change it at the Ministry level. In my region where I can make things happen, I give qualified visually impaired people positions".

In education the situation was slightly different. There were no visually impaired staff at zonal, regional and district levels. They were found only at the institutional level. The official position was to employ visually impaired and blind people as mainstream teachers. It was believed that they were also to be placed in schools with resource rooms so that they use for their career, the available equipment. This practice came under attack from visually impaired and blind people themselves who argued for placement even in mainstream schools without resource rooms if they wanted to. This attack made the once rigid practice flexible. Visually impaired and blind teachers were then allowed to choose, if they wanted to, between schools with resource rooms and those without.

Specific patterns of participation of staff with visual impairments in the running of units/sections of services for visually impaired and blind

learners were found in state educational institutions. At Korogwe Girls and Mpwapwa secondary schools, and Mpwapwa Teachers Training College, specialist teachers and their visually impaired and blind colleagues worked together in the daily running of services for learners with visual loss in their institutions. Units/sections responsible for these services in these institutions were all headed by specialist teachers not as a matter of principle or regulation, but by chance. With such cooperation and unity, co-ordination was smooth and strengthened. There were mixed patterns in primary schools. At Uhuru Mchanganyiko in Dar Es Salaam, cooperation between specialist teachers and their visually impaired and blind counterparts was high. There was a committee set to co-ordinate their efforts in running the affairs of the unit/section. On the other hand, during the interview, one retired blind teacher revealed that he was the head of the Unit/section responsible for learners with visual loss in his school for seventeen years of his career. In other primary schools studied, the directive of MOEC that visually impaired and blind teachers should not be involved in the running of the services was adhered to. In these schools, there was no cooperation between specialist teachers and their visually impaired and blind counterparts. They were engaged in permanent conflict, and they were frequently undermining each other. Environments like this undermined co-ordination.

In the private sector, only one pattern existed. At both Buigiri and Irete Primary Schools, teachers worked together regardless of their

disabilities. At Buigiri, the principle was that one of the School-heads must be a teacher with a visual loss. If the Headteacher was sighted, the Assistant headteacher was to be a visually impaired or blind teacher and vice-versa. However, the practice had been that of a sighted Headteacher and a blind assistant for a long time. At Irente, the post of Assistant headteacher did not exist. Even here, the practice was that of a sighted Headteacher. What was clear in both schools, was that the allocation of other responsibilities was regardless of disability. In such environment which was highly integrative, co-ordination appeared to be efficient.

There was one common feature between primary schools in both the state sector and the private sector. In all primary schools studied, only visually impaired and blind teachers taught pupils with visual loss how to read and write braille. This was defying the principle laid down by MOEC that visually impaired and blind teachers should not be allowed to teach these special subjects. In all primary schools, regardless of their differences, both specialist teachers and visually impaired and blind teachers agreed that it was right for visually impaired and blind teachers to teach these subjects. It was not clear why MOEC did not intervene to ensure that the official policy was adhered to.

There was also the issue of training. This was the only way to ensure adequate and competent manpower. In 1990, Kisanji, Kristensen, Kristensen and Nyaga made an evaluation study on teacher training for

special education in Tanzania. Among the areas of teacher training they studied was visual impairment. In this particular study, they found that there was an acute shortage of trained staff, and they even expressed serious doubts on the qualifications of the trainers themselves. In this very study, they identified two types of teachers in the education of visually impaired and blind people. These were specialist and non-specialist teachers. Specialist teachers were defined as those with a training in special educational needs. Non-specialist teachers were defined as visually impaired and blind teachers. Their findings were supported by Miron (1993) who found the same type and groups of teachers in the service. In this new study, one similar finding about the presence of these two groups in the services persisted. On the other hand, the new study has revealed that the non-specialist teachers group extended beyond visually impaired and blind teachers to include other teachers in the field. Thus, in this study, this group was larger if compared to that in previous studies. The large size of this group meant that there were more untrained teachers teaching people with visual impairments in Tanzania than previously acknowledged. The problem of untrained staff did not exist in educational institutions only, but in the sector as a whole. Staff from the non-specialist group were responsible for learners with visual impairments as subject teachers, workers, managers and administrators in the services. The group formed the majority of staff in the service.

In schools, colleges, vocational training centres and adult education classes, visually impaired and blind people were taught to a large extent, by untrained staff. For example, at Irete Special School, only two out of nine teachers were specialists. At another special school, Buigiri, only three teachers out of ten were specialists. At Masasi Primary school, out of fifteen teachers, only two were specialists. At Mpwapwa Secondary School, out of fourteen teachers, only one was a specialist. In the sample group of teachers in this study, only 24.71% were trained in educational special needs. If those trained in different disability areas were deducted from this total, then those trained in visual impairment would be even fewer. Still, the 24.71% total of specialist teachers did not give the exact picture of the situation on the ground. This is because all specialist teachers at every institution studied was selected for the study, while some of their non-specialist colleagues were left out because they did not meet the criteria. When this was put into account, it was felt that specialist teachers were fewer than the sample suggested.

This study revealed that training took a narrow view. It was approached as a matter of training few people, and for very special career. This narrow view led to the detachment of the training of these people from the training in mainstream. The training efforts were directed to these few individuals, leaving the non-specialist group of staff untrained, although its contribution to the provisions was tremendous. Such a

narrow approach to training, tended to increase the already big gap in numbers, between trained and untrained staff in the service.

Specific models of staff training were found to be commonly used. These were on-the-job, pre-service and inservice staff training models. On-the-job training model was being used at Buigiri School for the Blind. Teachers were employed while they continued to undergo training. They were put under an experienced or trained teacher for guidance and supervision for sometime. In this study, 15% of the sample indicated on-the-job training as their highest qualification attained. There were two reasons for this significant result. First, there were those who were trained in other areas different to disability, and or visual impairment, but were working in this service. Some of them believed they were being trained on the job. Second, there were those who had no any training at all, but like in the case of the first group, believed that they were being trained on the job. In both cases, there was no training on the job, because there was no supervision provided. If this important feature of on-the-job training was known to all participants, then the size of this group of people who felt that they were being trained on the job would have been even smaller.

In the pre-service model, people were given a training before taking up jobs in the service. The focused approach of staff training was being used. The minimum requirement for a place in the training was a three-year experience of teaching. The first strategies used in this

model were seminars and workshops. These were later replaced by the institutional strategy. Under this strategy, long courses of between one year and two years were on offer. The pre-service model was being complimented by the in-service model. Under this one, people were trained after acquiring qualifications needed for working in the service, and after they had started serving in it. The model was used for keeping staff up to date. The training strategies of seminars, workshops and institutions were used.

Eventually, there was the permeation model. Under this, people were being trained to meet diverse manpower needs and demand. They were therefore prepared to work in different fields, including disability. For example, the University of Dar Es Salaam was teaching the basics of special education in its education degree courses. The Institute of Adult Education also included issues of special education in its adult education diploma programmes. The institutional strategy was used in this model. Hence, the training was part of long training programmes, carried out in institutionalized settings.

Finally, in staffing, there was the issue of headship. This was important because heads of organizations were the power centres of the services. The availability of appropriate and quality heads was another challenge to service providers. This issue was even more challenging because it meant not just having qualified managers and administrators, but also who were qualified in the education of visually impaired and blind

people. The two aspects were never taken together. The need for people to fill up managerial and administrative posts was divorced from the requirement of such people to be knowledgeable in special needs education.

Dadey and Harber (1991) studied the training and professional support for headship in basic education in Commonwealth Africa. They found that individuals were being appointed to headship not because they had management and administration skills, but because they were long-serving persons and "good" teachers.

The situation in this study did not differ much from that found by Dadey and Harber in 1991. In all studied primary schools, headteachers and their deputies had no any training in management and administration. Headteachers had been appointed to these positions by the District Education Officers (D.E.Os) on the basis of long-service and good conduct in the job. One D.E.O put this into context: "I appoint all headteachers in this district. I consider the length of the service and the behaviour of the individual before deciding". On the other hand, headteachers appointed their deputies as they found fit.

Lack of training among headteachers and deputies in primary schools affected co-ordination. In all primary schools studied, there were clear divisions among staff. Unity of purpose appeared not to exist. Services for visually impaired and blind learners were a one-person show. The

preoccupation of headteachers and their deputies was the ends and not the means. Provided that things were being done, who did what, why and how, were of no importance.

In secondary schools, colleges and vocational training centres, things were slightly different. headmasters, headmistresses and principals, usually had a training in management and administration. This meant that there were two different systems of staff training. Those who attended degree courses had higher chances of having a training in management and administration if compared to those who did not. At all levels of operation in the service, this difference between staff was eminent. Some efforts to get rid of the problem were being made through in-service training. However, the too big number of managers and administrators to be trained meant the problem continuing to exist for a foreseeable future. It is worth noting here, that although trained in management and administration, the training did not count at the time of appointment to headship. Only the length of service, good conduct at work and good behaviour, mattered most. Like other staff, managers and administrators were trained by using the pre-service, in-service and permeation models of training.

MODELS OF STAFFING

The findings in this study revealed eight models of staffing used in the education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. These models featured in both the state sector and the private sector. They

included political, election/leadership, occupation, extended, secondment, attachment, appointment and voluntary staffing models. Their use was not discrete. They were used overlappingly. Each organization seemed to use the model or models that best suited its circumstances.

The Occupation Model

This was the widely used staffing model in both the state sector and the private sector. Under it, organizations entered into a win-win relationship with employees. Employees were given jobs on a permanent or temporary basis, and with high job security. In return, they submitted themselves to domination by the employer. It ensured that the worker had an allegiance just to one employer. However, the common practice under this model was many of the employments being permanent. Temporary ones were only transitory. People were attached to them while relevant positions were being sought.

There were advantages for co-ordination in the occupation model. The model allowed the development of an understanding and skills in the services as a result of stable occupation of positions. Employees stayed longer in jobs. Out of experience therefore, they developed some skills and positive understanding of the services and visually impaired and blind people. This contributed positively to the co-ordination of the services. At the same time, employees were subjected to close control

by employer organizations. This ensured unity of purpose, discipline and rational pursuit of organizational goals and objectives.

There were also co-ordination problems resulting from the occupation model of staffing. The occupying of positions for so long led to the emergence of special informal relationships between individuals. This posed a significant threat to co-ordination. Informal relationships in some cases, led to the development of informal rules and structure. These were surpassing the formal ones. In other cases, it led to the emergence of "coalitions" within the system. These "coalitions" enabled individuals to create informal structures for themselves, be it consciously or unconsciously. The informal structures made the "coalitions" powerful and influential in decision-making. The situation was more serious when a high official was a member of the informal structure. Given the centralized and the hierarchized nature of the system, it was possible to find officials over-ruled by higher positioned officials even in legitimate issues. Afraid of being over-ruled, clashing with higher authorities and fearful of tarnishing their own names, lowly placed officials avoided making decisions, and referred to higher authorities for decision even in small issues. This led to hypocrisy, bureaucracy and bureaupathy in the system; and stabilized the informal rules and structure even more. On the other hand, this model hindered the training of managers and administrators among technocrats on the job. The model made jobs and positions lifelong. Once people were appointed to positions, they were to hold them until they were moved to higher positions, or until when they retired. Such a rigid structure

limited horizontal and vertical social mobility among staff. It led to the emergence of an elite group of managers and administrators. At the same time, it was causing frustration and disappointment to junior staff, who knew and believed that they had the right to rise to managerial and administrative positions in the system, but were witnessing that not taking place in real terms.

The Extended Model

This was another commonly used staffing model in both the state sector and the private sector. Under this model, staff did multiple activities. For example, teachers were also working as counsellors and social workers in schools. Specialist teachers also worked as mainstream teachers, teaching different subjects. Mainstream teachers too, were responsible for learners with visual loss. In vocational training centres, social workers were also working as teachers and counsellors. In charities, executives were also found doing secretarial duties. They also offered guidance and counselling services.

Co-ordination was enhanced by using the extended staffing model. Firstly, there was always someone readily available to tackle whatever problem that arose. With this, people were quickly attended to. Secondly, the model provided the means for an efficient use of limited resources in the service. People were prepared to do anything at any time, thus saving time and money that would have otherwise been used on another personnel.

There were also co-ordination problems resulting from the extended staffing model. The model made an interdisciplinary approach difficult to adopt. It made professional cooperation even more difficult. It stabilized even further, the tendency of professional protectionism, empire building and the "that is not my responsibility" attitudes. The model posed a threat to efficiency and effectiveness. It allowed people to practice the professions in which they were not trained. The possible product of this, was half-baked services. On the other hand, the model led to the outstretching of staff. People had too much expected of them, and it was highly unlikely for them to deliver successfully on all of them.

The Appointment and Political Models

These were exclusively found in the state sector. Under these models, some staff were appointed to various jobs and positions. The common pattern was that chief and senior executives of government ministries, departments and councils were appointed by either the president or the responsible minister. Once appointed, these individuals became the power and authority centres of the services.

There was an advantage in staffing by this model. The model was taking the services into political actors and actresses. This was vital, because national development was a political question. Strategies and directions in the process of national development were always determined by politicians. There was a number of problems to co-

ordination in staffing this way too. Firstly, sometimes, people were being given positions because of their political affiliation and not their qualifications and competence. In such circumstances, efficiency and effectiveness were being compromised. Secondly, staff of this type were above the ordinary control mechanisms of their organizations. Only the authority that appointed them could discipline them. This was being made more serious by the situation that these staff, in most cases, held the top most positions at their levels of operation. Thirdly, appointments were sometimes made as means of paying back favours or buying loyalty or exerting influence. In situations like this, least desirable or qualified individuals got the jobs. Co-ordination was put at risk this way.

The Election/Leadership Model

This was the opposite of the political model. It was the model of staffing exclusively found in the private sector. The model enabled individuals to get positions as both leaders and staff through elections. This was the practice in the Church and Charities. For example in TLB, all the top officials were elected people. They were thus people who held positions and or, employment, just because they were elected.

There was an advantage to co-ordination in staffing this way. Individuals committed to disability and the services, were brought in. The model provided an opportunity for people with visual impairments and blindness, their parents and those interested, to participate in these

provisions and influence co-ordination. The model also opened up the services for the participation of people outside practicing professionals. Coupled with the participation of visually impaired and blind people themselves and parents, it led to the emergence of activism in the private sector. The private sector was very radical, and was mounting a big pressure to the state sector to expand educational opportunities for people with visual loss in the country.

There were also co-ordination problems emanating from this model of staffing. It was not always guaranteed that all the elected would be committed people. As human beings, others had their own hidden agendas to pursue. Such individuals always wrecked the boat whenever they felt that their hidden agendas would be threatened. Also, people were elected because of their popularity with the electorate and not qualifications. Thus, people with less or with no qualifications at all, were sometimes elected.

The Attachment and Secondment Models

Under the attachment model, an individual was employed and continued to be paid all remunerations by the employer, but placed and worked for another organization. The agreement involving two organizations was what usually made this possible. The practice was that of workers in the state sector being attached to organizations in the private sector. Good examples of this, was teachers at Buigiri and Irete special schools for the blind who were employed by District

Councils, but placed and worked for these mission schools. In TLB too, there were two employees of the Department of Social Welfare attached.

The secondment model was the opposite to the attachment model. Under it, organizations lent workers to each other. This meant that a worker of one organization could work for another organization. The receiving organization paid the employee all the remunerations as long as it retained him or her. Usually, an agreement involving a worker and the two organizations was at the centre of every lending. The examples of secondment were found in TLB and TSB, where two employees of MOEC were found seconded.

There were advantages to co-ordination in staffing by these models. The models encouraged and built on the collaboration and cooperation of organizations in the services. They enabled organizations to share the limited resources available. They were an effective collective use of resources. Two, the models provided some organizations with an opportunity to get trained manpower which would have otherwise been difficult to get.

There were co-ordination difficulties in staffing this way too. Firstly, staff obtained this way had their allegiance torn between two organizations. They had to keep a balance between the expectations of the organizations they were working for, and their connections in their employer organizations. Sometimes this balance was difficult to strike.

Secondly, the organizations such staff worked for, could not take any disciplinary action against them in case of any indiscipline. The only alternative available was to return them to their employers. This made these staff to be like volunteers and expatriates. Thirdly, sometimes it was difficult to make these staff committed. Some of them developed the "I am just assisting" behaviours and attitudes, just because they could return to their employer organizations at any time.

The Voluntary Model

Under this model, organizations depended on volunteers for staff. The model was insignificantly applied at the national, zonal, regional and district levels in the state sector. In the private sector however, these levels significantly made use of the model. In both sectors, the institutional level benefited most from this way of staffing. Regardless of the level at which the volunteer workers worked, they were the unpaid work force. They worked on either permanent or temporary basis. In cases where they were temporary, they came in regularly to do works that would have otherwise meant employing people.

There were two advantages in this model. One, it left the door open for anyone interested and willing to make a contribution to the service. Two, it was making it possible for organizations and institutions to make use of the expertise found in the community. This meant organizations and institutions learning from the communities around them.

There were also co-ordination problems in this model. Volunteers were not always readily available. Sometimes they came forward while there was no need. In other times they were not there when they were desperately needed. Volunteers also had their own interests which were to be considered and accommodated if they were to continue to render their services. For example, some of them were professionals eager to raise their own reputations. Others were retired professionals and civil servants who wanted to use this opportunity for meeting people and simply keeping themselves busy. Others were just individuals using this opportunity to raise their qualifications for future employments. At the same time, the volunteer work force was very unstable. They kept on coming and going, mostly within short periods. This made volunteers somewhat unreliable, and virtually making far reaching plans on their basis impossible.

SERVICES

The computer search for entries on education was done to identify priorities among professionals. When Services and Disability were entered as key words, there were more than 36,600 entries. An analysis of these entries revealed that authors showed clear interest in some disability areas than others. As a result some areas appeared to have more entries than others. It appeared that attitudes, classroom practices, provision models, service development, history, vacuum in provisions, prevalence of disability, causes of disability and curriculum formed the major interest areas. These were followed by legislation,

policy review, parental involvement, community-based rehabilitation and identification. Debates on how best disabled people can be integrated in educational settings appeared to revolve around these areas. However, Fish (1989) and Hegarty (1993) appear to call for an end to this debate. They stipulate that what disabled people need is education and not just a physical presence in educational institutions. This rises the question of what should be provided to ensure that they get this education.

The findings about provisions revealed the type of services in the education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. The services were composed of two main aspects: identified educational needs and provisions to meet those needs. The two aspects and the processes involved in them were intertwined. They were interdependent and inseparable.

IDENTIFICATION OF NEEDS

The problem in the literature about services is the actual educational needs of visually impaired and blind people. Authors for instance Labogo (1992) and Holder (1993) do not address this issue. Writers appear to generalize "educational needs" and cover them in the wider concepts of services and schools or institutions. What actually is provided or should be provided as services in those schools, is in most cases left out. Writing about educational needs of visually impaired and blind young people, Chapman (1978) gave a list of what she

believed to be the educational needs of this educational group. Writing out of her long experience as an executive of a charity, a teacher and a lecturer in visual impairment, Chapman listed equipment, teaching materials, vocational and career guidance and counselling, and placement. Chapman expressed a point that these needs were universal to all learners. The exception for learners with visual impairments, she argued, was the adaptation made to all these needs so that they reflect and meet the diverse educational special needs of this group.

All organizations in this study almost indicated Chapman's perceived educational needs as their priorities. There were three reasons for this. Firstly, although each organization had its own interests and policies, they all had to work within the framework set by the government. This led to unity of purpose and strategy among educational providers. Secondly, all organizations used identical delivery systems. It was either a resource room, a residential segregated special school or support in regular classroom. Thirdly, all organizations were serving the same individuals: people with visual impairments and blindness. Thus, it was more likely for these consumer individuals to demonstrate identical educational needs.

In this pattern, there were four types of needs. These were the academic, the emotional, the stability and the hotel needs. The academic needs included specialist teachers, a specially designed curriculum and teaching materials. The emotional needs involved acceptance, positive understanding, love, recognition, vocational and career guidance, and counselling. The hotel needs included

accommodation and food. The stability needs included all measures to facilitate their full participation and inclusion in the services. Such measures were appropriate environment, transport, medical care, conscientization of both visually impaired and blind people, and the general public, funding, administration and placement. Although this was the pattern, there were variations between participants as regards the importance of each type of needs. The type of provisions an organization was providing highly influenced the responses of its staff about the educational needs of visually impaired and blind people. Educational administrators and teachers were more concerned with the academic and hotel needs than other needs.

The identification of these needs was experiential. There were three reasons for this. Firstly, the decades of involvement in these provisions led to the development of a tradition in the service. Out of conviction and the pattern that developed in the service itself, some aspects and provisions became readily acceptable as needs. Secondly, there were inter-organizational links. These links were making it possible for information of provisions by different local and international organizations to be available. This information became used in determining and prioritizing educational needs of people with visual loss in the country. Finally, there was the process of fitting the education of people with visual loss into mainstream education. Policy makers, planners, administrators and teachers, were faced with the problem of how to adapt visually impaired and blind people to the

prevailing educational system. This explained why educational administrators and teachers in this study were more concerned with the academic and hotel needs (which basically concentrated on the individual), while playing down the emotional and stability needs, which were concerned with the system as a whole.

Discussing problems facing the education of visually impaired and blind people in India, Singh (1989) pointed to lack of research in the areas of policy, theory and practice as the source of the persistence of some of the problems. Singh did not tackle the issue of identifying VIBP'S educational needs in India. He explained however, that research was important if well informed theories and practices were to be developed. Like in India, research in educational special needs in Tanzania were lacking. In the private sector, no studies had hitherto been carried out by providers. In the state sector, limited evaluation studies had been made in policy. These studies were always being commissioned by donor agencies eager to establish the viability of the policy areas of their interest. Along with these few policy evaluation studies, were academic-driven studies by academics and students in institutions. These were carried out as requirements for academic qualifications in either local universities and colleges, or the ones abroad. In other instances, these studies were a part of professional activities in these institutions. The problem with these studies, was that they did not necessarily go beyond the gates of the respective institutions. Policy makers, planners and administrators were not

bound to pay attention to them, because they had their own system of collecting and evaluating information.

MEETING THE NEEDS

The co-ordination system so far discussed was put in place to deliver specific services. These services were designed according to identified needs. It was apparently clear, that every service provider designed the

services according to his or her own organizational policies, while at the same time trying to keep up with what appeared to be a standard in the service as a whole. This led to some variations in emphasis between providers. Leaving these slight variations aside, there was a common pattern of provisions between providers and sectors.

In public primary schools, the central government provided technical staff, equipment, teaching materials and funding of the programmes. The Councils made sure that staff, boarding facilities, food, funds and transport to and from schools during vacations were available. In mission schools, the church was responsible for everything, but received limited support from the government, including the attachment of teachers. In secondary schools, colleges, vocational training centres, adult education classes and centres, and universities, transport to and from the institutions was the responsibility of individual learners, their parents/guardians and relatives. There was cost-sharing at every level of education. Learners had to contribute

towards the cost of their education. This was a barrier which kept some visually impaired and blind people out of the institutionalized educational system.

TLB and TSB did not own institutions. They worked in support of government and councils efforts. They were frequently donating boarding facilities, food, equipment, teaching materials and funds. These also had programmes to support those who could not go higher on the ladder of education, and those who could not get employment, to become self employed and self reliant. Both TLB and TSB, had funds established for this purpose. These funds were also used to help those who had problems with fees and other costs of education. Other charities apart from TLB and TSB, worked in this area. Their work was dependent on personal initiative by individuals and institutions.

Possi (1992; 1994), expressed a serious concern on the continued absence of the vocational and career guidance and counselling services for people with educational special needs in Tanzania. She pointed out that there were no people responsible for these matters at all levels of provision in the country. This new study has revealed that provisions for emotional needs were provided as part of the pastoral care duties of staff in institutions and organizations. Staff in schools and colleges were representatives of parents and the public. With regards to the developments of learners in their institutions, they bore the concerns and responsibilities of those they represented. Apart from ensuring that

these learners benefited academically from their being in these institutions, and apart from ensuring that learners had enough food and good accommodation, they were also having the powers and responsibility of fostering their moral development and emotional stability. Teachers in schools, colleges, adult education classes and centres, and social welfare officers in vocational training centres therefore, provided vocational and career guidance, advice and counselling services.

THE COMMUNICATION SYSTEM IN THE SERVICES

The findings in this study revealed that the communication system of the services was comprised of three main component parts. These were the country's general communication network, the communication inside the services (which included the intra and inter-organizational communication) and communication about the services. All component parts were interdependent. For the communication system to be effective, every component part was to be effective.

THE COMMUNICATION NETWORK OF THE COUNTRY

This was the transport, post and telephone system of the country. The system was making co-ordination difficult. The country was a vast one. The transport network was quite unreliable. Many roads were seasonal. Some parts of the country for example the southern regions, were inaccessible in some months of the year. Education in such regions continued with considerable difficulty during those months.

Schools catering for visually impaired and blind people were at least one per region. Some of them were very far from regional headquarters. Some of them were also far from district headquarters. In most parts, transport was very unreliable. Most of these schools had no vehicles. For instance, out of eight primary schools studied, only two (Buigiri and Irete Church Schools) had vehicles. All secondary schools studied had lorries. For the schools without vehicles, problems

were piling up as submissions to relevant authorities, as well as follow-ups, could not be made because of the transport problem.

Transport made it difficult for staff in these schools to go round in villages to search for children to enrol, or even talk to parents. This contributed to low enrolments in some schools. For example, Hombolo-bwawani which was meant to cater for eighty visually impaired and blind children, had only sixteen. In the same region, Buigiri which was reaching the population through parishes had 109 children. The problem of transport was too big that it was adversely affecting co-ordination. One teacher summed it all:

We have no car of the school. No bus is available. If you have a bicycle or you can borrow it, you cycle. We cannot make follow-ups on many issues about our school. We are witnessing our school disintegrating before our eyes.

In such circumstances, the post and the telephone would have been the best option. These were also unreliable. Of eight primary schools studied, only two (Irente and Uhuru Mchanganyiko) were on telephone. At Uhuru Mchanganyiko, the telephone had been disconnected for four months because the City Council had not paid the phone bill. On the other hand, all secondary schools studied, were on telephone, and their telephones were working by the time of this study.

The postal services were also difficult to use. Most of these institutions were far away from post offices. For example, Masasi Primary School

was four miles away, Buigiri four, Irete three, and Ikungi seven. The schools without vehicles had no set days for going to these post offices to pick up mails or send some. This meant that important information could be received while it was already too late, or dispatched after much delays.

COMMUNICATION INSIDE THE SERVICES

There was an identical system of intra-organizational communication throughout organizations. Sections/units, divisions and departments, acted as satellites independent from each other, but attached to the same mother whole. They did not exchange information about what they were doing. What each of them was doing, was a matter for itself. Even at the sector level, whatever any organization was doing, was a matter for itself. For example, in the state sector, whatever the Ministry of Education was doing, it had no channels with which to communicate about it to any other ministry. In the private sector too, there were no any official communication channels between TLB, TSB and the church. Information was highly sensitive and therefore controlled. Its dissemination followed the lines of authority.

Information dissemination within organizations was one-way, upwards. On the other hand, less and less information was filtering downwards. The only information to lower levels was orders and instructions. This meant these levels continuing working without knowing exactly, or with very little knowledge, about the prospects of an organization; or,

what was taking place in the services elsewhere. The experience in information dissemination thus differed between players in organizations. Lowly placed individuals like teachers and other workers in the field disseminated more information if compared to high placed ones like managers and administrators. Whatever little they received, they believed it was the amount of information they were entitled to under the system. This explained the variation between groups in the study, in results about information dissemination.

A number of means was used in the dissemination of information inside the service. Meetings were the major ones. There were three types of meetings. Firstly, there were meetings of executives. In government ministries, such meetings largely drew delegates amongst Heads of departments and other highly positioned individuals. In most cases, these were political appointees. They were basically policy makers. Secondly, there were workshops. These were meant for technical people. They used them for exchanging ideas, experiences and developing strategies. The position of the individual in the hierarchy determined the possibility of participating. Thirdly, there were seminars. In most cases, they were used for training. Like in the case of workshops, the position of the individual in the system influenced the access to these seminars. Meetings benefited few individuals in the system. In most cases, same people were attending them. The information they got became their monopoly. There was no any formal system through which those coming back from such

gatherings could share with others the information and the knowledge gained. Due to this, while there were some people with very much information and knowledge about the services, especially among managers and administrators, there were also many with very little or without any reliable information at all.

COMMUNICATING ABOUT THE SERVICES

Communicating about the services meant informing each other and the public about what was going on in the services. Unfortunately, there were no official lines of communication between organizations and sectors in the services. Hence, organizations did not communicate, or with difficulty, rarely communicated about what they were doing. The information available was limited. Although organizations did not communicate among themselves, they showed some attempts to communicate to the public. The rate of releasing information was low. Information was released into public domain according to circumstances. Organizations gave information which could only improve their public images, rally support for their activities, and improve acceptance of people with visual loss in the society.

The release of information was very occasional. It was during occasions such as meetings and conferences, visits to institutions enrolling learners with visual loss, during public campaigns or when there was a public figure involved. The information was always directed towards visually impaired and blind people themselves, their

parents and families, the government, charities and the public. However, what was provided always lacked information about where individuals could get advice and support.

The means used in information circulation were the same as those used inside the services. Meetings and conferences were mainly used. Still, they had similar problems like the ones within organizations. Newspapers, radio and television, played a certain role. The problem was how to meet the interests of their owners and journalists. Since all newspapers, television and radio were in business, only the news-selling information or headline could be given weight. None of them had education supplement. To them, education was not a news-seller. Hence, the media was not readily available. Unless there was a very important person in the society associated with the occasion or the press release, the attention accorded to the information was light.

The ability of school and college boards, regional and district education offices to circulate information about the services was very limited. They had no strategies for that; and even among officials, knowledge in the services sometimes was limited. One teacher summarized it this way: "Don't expect them to help us in that. They have their own priorities, they sometimes don't know what we do, and even if they did, they have no means".

The use of publications as the means of storing and disseminating information was limited. Organizations were not publishing about their activities. Even which published, controlled the circulation of the information by producing few copies. All organizations had no libraries. Libraries were found in institutions and MOEC. However, they were maintained. Information collecting and record keeping was a problem in all organizations studied. It appeared that efforts to collect and update information were limited. Even the information that was collected could easily disappear because of poor record keeping systems.

Two main ways of information dissemination were the word of mouth and personal relationship. The two were intertwined and interdependent. With them, people avoided the official communication channels and lines of authority. These provided the main means of information circulation at the personal level. They enabled individuals to scrutinize the information provided. Personal relationships and the word of mouth enabled everyone who had knowledge or information to deliver it to anybody at any time. Thus, students, parents of learners with visual loss, professionals, administrators and visually impaired and blind people themselves, relayed information in the public domain.

CO-ORDINATION MECHANISMS

In this study, the findings about co-ordination mechanisms in the education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania revealed that there were three types of co-ordination mechanisms. These were national, sectoral and organizational mechanisms. National mechanisms were those bringing the whole education sector together regardless of levels, sector or organization. The sectoral mechanisms brought together a subsector of the larger sector e.g., the state sector and the private sector, or the sector as a whole. The organizational mechanisms were those at the level of individual organizations. Regardless of their differences, they were all geared towards controlling, monitoring, supervising, optimizing and maximizing the use of resources and the provisions.

ORGANIZATIONAL MECHANISMS

All organizations were providing services as their contribution to the nationally structured whole. As contributors, organizations had their internal mechanisms with which to ensure that they fulfilled their obligations effectively. In terms of intra-organizational co-ordination mechanisms, there was a common pattern between organizations in both the state sector and the private sector. Inter-departmental co-ordination mechanisms were notably weak. Departments and sections/units worked independent of each other, and they did not, or rarely, did consult each other. In their jurisdictions, they were independent satellites attached to the central power and authority.

Neither of them was prepared to appear small or weak in front of its equal number.

The mechanisms available differed between levels of operation in an organization. The lower the operation level was, lesser and lesser mechanisms were. Generally, there was a clear pattern of mechanisms in all organizations and levels. There were mechanisms which directly guided the activities. These included policies, structures like regional and district offices, boards and executive committees depending on an organization. There were also indirect mechanisms which were facilitating co-ordination. These were basically strategies for achieving uniformity in actions. They included workshops, seminars, conferences and advisory meetings.

In the state sector, meetings were not statutory. They were merely voluntary and optional for authorities to convene. As one officer at the Ministry of Education and Culture said: "Meetings here, are merely advisory. Decision-making is by the power holding individual. When you are summoned to a meeting by the boss, you start wondering what wrong you have done; or, what devil is around". Meetings were mainly for giving marching orders, or very rarely, getting advice from line-managers and line-administrators. Because such meetings were at senior levels, workers in the field and visually impaired people were usually left out.

Policies were not explicit about educational special needs and the education of visually impaired and blind people for that matter. In a situation like this, the education of people with visual loss was to be guided by the policies of general education without any additions. While there were guidelines for all educational subsectors, this one had none. It was to be fitted into the existing guidelines.

The failure of policies to be explicit about the education of visually impaired and blind people led to some co-ordination problems. Issues of staff training in different educational subsectors, funding patterns, responsibility, values and practice in the service were left unclarified. Lack of clarity in policy, was more like whistling in the dark in response to a call, with the hope of seeing the caller; or, it was the same as wandering in the wilderness on the way to the promised land.

Structures provided the mechanism for intra-organizational co-ordination. They provided the mechanism with which organizations could deliver on their policies and objectives. These structures gave organizations life and image. They extended organizations from the top to the bottom, and from the centre to the periphery; from the national level to the institutional level.

The structures were given more teeth in co-ordination by organizational charts. By organizational charts, we mean the slots created in organizational structures, known as positions, to be filled with individuals (Koontz and Weihrich, 1990). Positions were centres

of authority and power in organizations. Individuals filling them were highly respected and feared. They occupied a special place in the service and in the lives of workers and visually impaired and blind people. They were branded *Wakubwa/Wazee*, which literary meant "The big/The Elders". Their authority and powers were understood and accepted as unquestionable, sacred and with no limit. This was in line with the Tanzanian culture, or indeed, the African culture, that adults are to be respected by the young. As there were no clear guidelines, the *Wakubwa/Wazee* fitted the education of visually impaired and blind people in to the policies of general education the way they deemed possible and necessary. One specialist teacher put this into perspective: "Because we have no rules specially designed for this education, our success rests in the hands of *Wakubwa/Wazee*. Their instincts will always build or ruin this service."

SECTORAL MECHANISMS

Sectoral co-ordination was at three levels. Firstly, the state sector. Secondly, the private sector, and lastly, between the two sectors. At the third level, it became inter-sectoral. Patterns of co-ordination similar to those of individual organizations were found even at the sectoral level.

In both the state sector and the private sector, a similar pattern of sectoral co-ordination was found. This was implied co-ordination. There were no mechanisms. Instead, there was calculated

collaboration. This always provided an agenda for joint ventures. Collaboration between organizations was reflected in correspondences, visits, seminars, conferences, workshops and joint ventures. Because mechanisms to ensure that collaboration was continuous were lacking, it was always short-lived or always founded on shaky grounds. In some cases, temporary or passing co-ordination mechanisms developed. One officer at the Department of Social Welfare summarized this appropriately: "Inter-organizational co-ordination is dependent on interests. When your interests converge, you forge the means forward. You mind your own businesses when you don't share interests". In forging the way forward, meetings were the main mechanism. As there were no permanent or effective inter-organizational co-ordination mechanisms, meetings as a mechanism were themselves adhoc. They were convened as the circumstances necessitated or allowed.

Although there were weak inter-organizational co-ordination mechanisms within the subsectors, the situation was slightly different at the inter-sectoral level. The state sector and the private sector had better co-ordination mechanisms between them. here were some superior ordinate bodies as mechanisms of co-ordination. There were three types of these mechanisms. They were ministerial, inter-ministerial-voluntary agency committees and the National Advisory Council for the services of Disabled Persons.

Under the ministerial mechanism, specific government ministries were responsible for co-ordination. Co-ordination was done in ministerial structures which extended from the national level to the lowest level of operation depending on the ministry. These provided the education of visually impaired and blind people with needed co-ordination in their respective areas. Ministerial structures had both political and statutory powers and authority to co-ordinate the services. This enabled them to create and impose patterns of service on others. In reality, ministerial mechanisms were overall co-ordination mechanisms. They were permanent mechanisms established as government administrative bodies. Because there were no mechanisms to integrate contributions of different ministerial organizations, ministerial mechanisms were divided on Ministerial lines. This made the inter-sectoral co-ordination to follow similar lines.

The inter-ministerial-voluntary agency committees mechanism was bringing together organizations from the private sector, especially charities, with the government ministry or ministries. It was a mechanism under which there was a joint administration of a project or a campaign. Such committees were task forces or advisory bodies. For example, there was a task force of TSB and the Ministry of Education and Culture to look after the Integrated Education Programme under which there were itinerant services.

There was also an advisory committee of TLB and the same ministry for advising the Minister of Education and Culture on the education of

visually impaired and blind young people and adults. There was also, a joint committee of organizations of people with disabilities and the Department of Social Welfare to look after the Project of Vocational Training of People with Disabilities in Ordinary Vocational Training Centres. Such committees were temporary or transient mechanisms. Once they had accomplished the tasks for which they were formed, they automatically died out.

These mechanisms had no structures beyond the level at which they were originally formed. They also lacked executioners of resolutions, who were directly under the administration of the bodies themselves. As a result, they were just resolution adopting bodies leaving implementation to member organizations. Inside the structures themselves, was the win-win relationship of member organizations. Again, calculated collaboration and cooperation played the dominant role. For example, the task force of TSB and the Ministry of Education and Culture was made possible because TSB funded the entire project. The Ministry needed the money to run the services in schools. Or, the committee of organizations of people with disabilities and the Department of Social Welfare was possible because the former were the source of funding. Hence, these mechanisms were a marriage of convenience.

There was also the National Advisory Council for the Services of Disabled Persons. This was a statutory body established under the Disabled Persons (care and maintenance) Act of 1982, and strengthened by the Disabled Persons (employment) Act of 1982. It had mechanisms at national, regional and district levels. It was charged, among others, with the responsibility of co-ordinating the education, and the training of disabled persons as well as the training of professionals in disability areas. Membership was drawn from various government ministries, charities and distinguished individuals. The council had a secretariat manned by three social welfare officers.

The problem of this co-ordination mechanism was that it was only nominal. It had been significantly inactive from its inauguration in 1982. Member ministries had never accepted their duties as its members, because of the fear of their functions in the disability area being swallowed by the council, which they felt was highly controlled and run by the Department of Social Welfare. Legally, the council was accounting to the Department of Social Welfare. From 1982, the council worked as an extended arm of the Department. Member ministries were not prepared to be led by a mere department.

Meetings were the main mechanism of operation in all superior ordinate co-ordination bodies. However, this mechanism was also unreliable. In some instances, there were no meetings at all. In some cases, meetings were rarely convened. Because of the nature of these

bodies themselves, meetings were adhoc. They had no fixed timetables. They were purely circumstantial. They were just crisis meetings designed to avoid a catastrophe or to prepare explanation for a donor. When they were thus convened, they were image construction meetings. People respected their individual organizations than these bodies. This was human nature. Human beings usually tend to respect and guard where their butter and bread lie.

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE EXISTING MECHANISMS

The mechanisms discussed in the last section were put in place to oversee the task of providing “appropriate” education. The findings on the extent to which the services addressed needs, accessibility, timing and efficiency in the services revealed the level of effectiveness in these mechanisms and the services in general.

THE EXTENT TO WHICH THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS WERE ADDRESSED

It was found that the educational needs of visually impaired and blind people were addressed by the current services at a very low extent. It seems that participants looked at the question of the extent to which the educational needs of visually impaired and blind people were addressed by the current services beyond being designed according to identified needs to include their “adequacy”. To them, the two were inseparable. There was an acute shortage of equipment. Repairs on equipment were not routinely carried out. Teaching materials such as

braille books and other tactile materials were remarkably in shortage. The means with which to access learning materials were limited. For example, only live-reading was used. There were no tape-recorded books. Boarding facilities were also a problem. In most of the primary schools studied, mattresses were fewer than the pupils. Food was also a problem. In all primary schools studied, spices and fruits were not on the menu, and pupils ate beans and *ugali* for the most of the days of the week. Even health care was compromised. There were no first-aid services in almost every primary school studied. At the same time, there were no vehicles to provide transport to and from hospitals. There were no readily available funds with which to pay the costs of medical care. For example at Pongwe Bweni primary school in Tanga, there was no money provided by the Municipal Council with which to take a sick pupil to hospital. Teachers had to mobilize community contributions to save the life of that pupil. Unfortunately, the money came when it was "already too late". No one was made to account. There were no leisure activities for visually impaired and blind learners at every institution studied. Such shortcomings on the ground, called "adequacy" into question. The inadequacy of the services seemed to minimize the extent to which the services addressed educational needs.

ACCESSIBILITY

Statistics on disability issues (special education inclusive) are remarkably lacking in Tanzania (UNESCO, 1995). Statistics about access of visually impaired and blind people to education were not

readily available. Records were either not kept or were completely unreliable. For example, the Section/Unit of Rehabilitation in the Department of Social Welfare admitted to have no reliable records on the population of visually impaired and blind people needing vocational training. At the Special Education Unit in the Ministry of Education and Culture, the official documents made available for this study had too many gaps to be reliable. However, UNESCO (1988) estimated that only 1% of disabled persons in Tanzania had access to education. The official estimations by the Ministry of Education and Culture (in press) put the enrolment rate at 0.8% of all disabled persons needing education. These estimations alone, suggest that visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania had limited access to education. The findings in this study reinforce this position. They showed that only a very small proportion of visually impaired and blind people received education. These findings leaves us with some questions about access to the services.

A number of factors contributed to the services reaching a very small proportion of visually impaired and blind people. First, there was an unequal distribution of services between the urban and the countryside (Institute of Education, 1984; Possi, 1986; 1994). All the institutions were based in the urban centres. The rural population had to travel hundreds if not thousands of miles to make use of them. Communication problems and cost made such journeys difficult. Such circumstances left 90% of the Tanzanian population with limited

access to the services. Second, there was no evidence of “deliberate” efforts to include the rural population in the services. Staff had no visit programmes for awareness in the rural areas. There were no arrangements which enabled them to identify children with visual impairments or blindness in rural areas. Lastly, there was cost-sharing. This was the model of financing under which pupils/students paid fees. The rate of cost-sharing varied between levels of education. At primary education, the fees were a contribution to the running costs. The rest were met by the state. In secondary schools, the cost-sharing meant the state abdicating from travel costs of learners, and learners making contributions to the running and examinations costs. Like the majority of disabled persons, visually impaired and blind people came from poor families, the majority of which were rural based. For such families, cost-sharing denied them access to education.

TIMING

Timing was the extent to which the services were quickly available to those needing them. This was the reflection of the capability of the co-ordination mechanisms in place to immediately respond to a demand, uphold standards and provide acceptable services. This study revealed that timing in the education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania was quite poor. The services appeared to reach those needing them at a very low extent. They were either coming late, or were not coming at all.

Enrolment appeared to have no age-limit. Classes were evidently mixtures of older and young pupils/students. Teachers confirmed that they were receiving children of up to adolescent age for standard one. May be, this was the way of giving everyone a chance. Schools were just known to professionals. Publicity about them was on a limited scale. There were no records of at-risk children or children affected with visual impairment or blindness; and the institutions themselves had no mechanisms linking them with their surrounding communities.

Education for visually impaired and blind people was an continuous. It was more of an event. Post-school programmes were lacking. Those who did not succeed in education relapsed easily into illiteracy. There were no reading materials for them. There were no equipment for them to use at home. There were no follow-up by service providers to establish the way they faired after their schooling. Although all organizations and professionals in the services were working towards efficient and effective educational institutions, life after school was left to charities alone.

In vocational training, prospects were even more uncertain. Some of the vocations on offer were outside those laid down by the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA). Even in such vocations laid down by VETA, the programmes paralleled mainstream programmes (Lynd, 1986). Job prospects for majority of the graduates of the Vocational Training Centres were bleak. A few trained in

carpentry secured employment. Those trained in other vocations, the labour market was too difficult for them to penetrate. Like in the case of post-school life, service providers and professionals in the services gave little attention to life after vocational training.

The state of equipment and infrastructures like buildings was another matter causing a concern. They were either not being repaired or they were being repaired when it was already too late. Some of the buildings had licking roofs. Others had their roofs almost falling. Councils which had the responsibility of implementing repairs, appeared not to be acting. On the other hand, the Central Government which was supposed to provide equipment necessary for the repairs, was not providing them neither. Equipment like perkins brailers, thermoforms and typewriters, were not being serviced. As a result of this, schools and colleges had artificial acute shortage of equipment. What was surprising about this, was the confusion that surrounded it. Councils believed that it was the responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Culture to repair equipment. The Ministry itself believed that it was the responsibility of Councils. Every school had one specialist teacher trained in repairing equipment. However, they had no tools and spareparts with which to carry out the repairs. At the same time, schools had received new equipment as early as 1987. For example the last time Masasi Primary School received perkins brailers and typewriters from the government was 1986. Buigiri 1987, Irente 1987, Pongwe-bweni 1987, and Mpwapwa Secondary School 1986.

EFFICIENCY

Looking at the problems so far discussed, one might be tempted to judge the co-ordination mechanisms in place as failing, and therefore inefficient. The findings about level of efficiency showed that there was a certain level of efficiency. For example, the services were there thriving. Visually impaired and blind people were enrolled in schools, colleges and universities. They were also serving in different capacities in both the state sector and the private sector. The public was increasingly becoming aware of the contribution visually impaired and blind people could make in the "modern" money economy. The existing mechanisms were somehow efficient to keep the services going.

FORCES SHAPING CO-ORDINATION

The findings in this study revealed that two types of forces helped to shape the co-ordination system of the education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. They were the positive and the negative factors. Both of them were an extension of already discussed factors and issues. They were a part of the system. They should therefore not be seen as a separate entity. The positive factors acted as a catalyst for success, while negative factors hindered the provision of better services. Despite their differences, each of them gave co-ordination an image. It was this image which gave the co-ordination system a pattern exclusive to it. In developing policies, planning and providing provisions, a balance was to be kept between the two types of factors.

Sometimes the balance was too difficult to make. In other cases, concessions which were too difficult to keep were made. Whatever the case was, the issue at stake was to make the best out of the services, but within the existing system.

POSITIVE FACTORS

These were social, political and technical factors. The public attitudes were in favour of the services. Culturally, people sympathized with visually impaired and blind people. They accepted responsibility of providing for them, and having them integrated into the mainstream of society (Idara ya Ustawi wa Jamii, 1981; Kisanji, 1995). Such attitudes meant the public supporting the development and provision of education for this particular group. There was always a popular demand from the public for these services. This was expressed through organizations such as TSB, TLB and the church; and interested individuals exerting pressure on the government to establish and maintain these services.

Charities perceived educational provisions for visually impaired and blind people as a duty. They devoted resources in designing, supporting and providing them. For example, the church opened resource rooms which were later handed to the government. Also it continued to provide these services in segregated special residential schools. TSB on the other hand, up to as late as 1996, opened resource rooms and segregated vocational training centres and handed them to

the government. It also continued to support the services with equipment, teaching materials and staff training. Other charities like TLB, Rotary International, Lions Club, Lioness Club, Dar Es Salaam Round-tables and Islamic groups such as Shia-ismailia, though did not directly run educational institutions, they donated equipment, money, food and facilities to these institutions or organizations involved in the provisions.

The actions by charities were a gentle pressure on both the government and the public to provide education for visually impaired and blind people. Educational managers and administrators had to either consider how to respond to this pressure by fitting the education of visually impaired and blind people in policy development, planning and co-ordination processes, or risk condemnation by not just charities, but also the public. They could have ignored the words if they wanted to; but how could have they on earth, ignored the work which was taking place on the ground? Surely, they had to do something positive. This caused co-ordination problems. The government accepted and inherited schools and programmes while not well prepared. In such circumstances, the quality of the services was compromised. For instance, a unit/section for children with severe learning difficulties was established by Tanzania Association for Cerebral Palsy and Mental Retardation at Migongo Primary School in Masasi. After the Unit/Section was handed over to the District Council, the Council could not maintain it. In another instance, referring to the school for

the blind, one District Education Officer said: "We were not well prepared for this school when it was given to us. We needed more time to prepare ourselves. Our donors completed their duty. I honestly feel, we are letting them down."

There were also professionals. They included specialist teachers, social welfare officers, and their allies like education administrators. These were eager to prove their professional potentials and preserve their status in the education system of the country. As individuals and a group, they contributed to the expansion of the education of visually impaired and blind people in the country. Some of them negotiated with the church or the government to open resource rooms. The practice of many individuals was that of opening these resource rooms in their home areas. They were capitalizing well on the wind of expanding mainstream education to expand the education of visually impaired and blind people, achieve professional recognition and personal goals. In co-ordination, professionals were vital. They were the main advisers and ultimate co-ordinators. There was evidence of their presence in all spheres of this type of education. The problem which was apparently clear, was how to integrate the ideas of this wide ranging group. They did not agree on a common approach. Each of them wanted to preserve his/her "territory" in the services. The type of training and orientation increased the distance between different professions. Wanting to make this education acceptable, professionals

always worked towards fitting it to the existing structures. One social welfare officer said:

When you are negotiating to establish a programme or a school, the priority is to have it endorsed. You must make it appear non-threatening in every aspect to the other party. Failure to that, it will remain on paper.

Visually impaired and blind people themselves were another force in co-ordination. As teachers in schools, their contribution was commendable. At Masasi and Makalala primary schools and Korogwe Girls Secondary School, they were volunteering for extra tuitions to learners with visual loss. In segregated primary schools of Buigiri and Irente, and in schools like Uhuru Mchanganyiko Primary School and Korogwe Girls Secondary School where they were participating in the running of the resource rooms, their influence was great. The kind of activism found in the disability movement was found paying off in these schools. Unlike in other schools, visually impaired and blind learners in these schools were full participants in school extra-curricula activities. They represented their schools in various academic competitions alongside their sighted peers. They also sat in student leadership committees.

Visually impaired and blind people were also exerting pressure on co-ordination. The pressure was in two ways. One, their successes in various fields called upon managers and administrators to look for the ways they could use such successes as a role-model to the public and to

the advantage of the services. Two, services providers were being pressurized to increase educational opportunities for visually impaired and blind people. The pressure from visually impaired and blind people led to the ambitious expansion of the provisions. The expansion increased demands on the already meagre resources available, and stretched the co-ordination system even further.

Politicians were another force in the invention and stabilization of the co-ordination system in the education of visually impaired and blind people. This was in two ways. Firstly, politicians were decision-makers in policy, planning and co-ordination of education in the country (Omari, 1994; Samoff and Sumra, 1994). Hence, they had to support the services and endorse the co-ordination system if anything at all was to take place. At the same time, some of them held executive positions in government ministries, departments and councils. This increased their influence in the co-ordination of the services. Lastly, they came out and spoke openly about the need to include not only visually impaired and blind people in education, but all disabled people. For instance, in 1974, Ex-President Nyerere made a speech in which he stressed the importance of involving disabled people in national processes and services. Statements of politicians of high regard like the President, the Vice-president and other distinguished politicians, meant educational managers and administrators incorporating the expressed sentiments and convictions in the system. According to Omari (1994), such politically motivated objectives and

goals encountered no opposition, and careful planning or delays. They were immediately fitted into the existing system. The interest of politicians in these provisions made the government to include them in education mainstream. It issued circulars and directives which implied that visually impaired and blind people should get education (Possi, 1994; Eklindh, Kurwa and Mkaali, 1995).

With these factors which were mainly internal, was the external factor. This was the international situation and community. The situation internationally has been that of supporting educational provisions for all disabled persons in the world. Being part of this international community, Tanzania had to respond to the international situation accordingly. The existing structures had to take into account the international scene. They therefore made providing education for visually impaired and blind people and co-ordinating it one of the duties of mainstream education. At the same time, the U.N's resolutions on disability and disabled persons influenced co-ordination. Resolutions like the World Programme of Action Concerning Disabled Persons (1982) and the Standard Rules on the Equalization of Opportunities for People with Disabilities (1994), called upon member states to provide education for disabled persons from within regular systems. As a member of the U.N, Tanzania had to give such resolutions some consideration.

Donor agencies were another influencing factor. Their role in the management and administration of education in Tanzania had long

been played down (Omari, 1994); and the theory and practice in education in Tanzania had always reflected characteristics of interests of donor agencies (Samoff and Sumra, 1994). This remained unknown until in the mid 1980's when the economic strength of the country weakened. Even before this time, donor agencies were highly influential in the way different subsectors of education were designed and or run. In special education for instance, RCSB, SIDA and DANIDA were influential. The co-ordination mechanisms in place had to respond favourably to the advice and interests of these donor agencies in their respective subsector areas, or they would pull out.

NEGATIVE FACTORS

A number of factors hindered co-ordination. They therefore necessitated some adjustments in the co-ordination system to overcome the setbacks they inflicted on it. There was the problem of a policy about special education. It has already been said in the previous sections that though special education was one of the subsectors of education in the country, educational policies were not explicit about it. This made planning for the provisions a difficult task. They were always forgotten in educational development plans, and government financing was quite limited. The absence of an explicit policy statement about the services made participants doubt the government attitudes and commitment to the education of people with visual loss in the country.

Closely linked to lack of policy, was the absence of guidelines in the service. There were no codes of practice. There were two possible explanations for this. First, there was no policy, on which these guidelines or codes of practice could be based. Secondly, managers and administrators did not see their importance. In reality, their absence was evidently obvious. Roles and responsibilities of various professions, employees, positions and bodies in the services were either ambiguous or unestablished. For example, the duties of specialist teachers were unclear to headteachers and other educational administrators. The role of social welfare officers in vocational training was unclarified. The place of the mainstream teacher was not clear. Who was to ensure the availability of equipment and other teaching materials to institutions was unestablished. The rights and responsibilities of visually impaired and blind people themselves were unheard of; and the merger point between councils and ministries was unstipulated. Such unclarity made co-ordination difficult and dependent on luck. It fitted well in an African proverb that: *The corpse travels because it is in the hands of the living*. The education of visually impaired and blind people survived and bared fruits because it was fitted to mainstream education. By itself, it was a game without rules.

Lack of guidelines was leading to confusion among managers and administrators. Information about the services was limited in the public domain as no one in particular felt responsible for information

circulation. Equipment and teaching materials were in acute shortage in all institutions studied, because it was not clear who was responsible for delivering them. Communication between the lower and the national levels of operation was quite poor, because there were no coordinators specially appointed for the services at regional and district levels. At all levels except for the national and the institutional levels, the education for visually impaired and blind people (and special education in general), was the "matter of help me." People reluctantly made decisions about the services. In some cases, there were backlogs as people were not sure of what to do. In the eyes of those being served, this was interpreted into government bureaucracy.

Individuals and groups developed "coalitions" to express and defend their interests because it was a game without rules. There were clear conflicts and struggles in the provisions for visually impaired and blind people. Such conflicts and struggles go unreported, because many writers tend to present special education as conflicts free (Tomlinson, 1982). In studying conflicts management and organisational health in Universities in Tanzania, Mosha (1994) found that personal and group interests, poor communication, unequal distribution of the benefits of organisational products and general mismanagement led to conflicts in Universities. Special education was not an exception. There was a misunderstanding between specialist teachers and mainstream teachers. Mainstream teachers thought that specialist teachers unjustifiably had small workloads. Specialists teachers were dissatisfied with managers

and administrators who were not specialists in the service. They believed that they had negative attitudes towards disabled people, and that they stood in the way of equalization of opportunities for visually impaired and blind people. On the other hand, these managers and administrators viewed the activism of specialists as stubbornness and unnecessary. They frequently responded by disciplining them. They either removed them from the services altogether, relieved them of their posts or punished them by transferring them to even more remote areas. There were also struggles between specialists and visually impaired and blind people. Visually impaired and blind people felt that specialists were alienating them from the administration of the services, and were exercising extreme power over them. To force recognition, they adopted the non-cooperation approach.

In all institutions studied, there were widespread claims that there were financial constraints to the services. It was not immediately clear, whether the services were really being underfunded or there was financial mismanagement. What was clearly evident, was the fact that schools, colleges, vocational training centres, adult education classes and centres, were desperately short of cash. They have had their services cut so as to make savings. This was regardless of the education budget rising up to 20% of the national budget in 1993-1994, and was set to rise steadily up to 30% by 1998 (Samoff and Sumra, 1994). This leaves us with the question on whether the rise was "real" or was just "on papers".

The difficulty in explaining the financial constraints in the services was due to the secrecy surrounding financing. All institutions did not have fund-holders of their own. Finances were centralized at the immediate top level of operation. For primary schools, District Councils held funds. For secondary schools, the Department of Secondary Education controlled them. Teacher Education Department controlled funds for teachers training colleges. Vocational training centres had their funds in the hands of the Unit/Section of Rehabilitation; and folk development colleges funds were controlled by the Department of Folk Development Colleges. Institutions did not even know how much was budgeted for them. They did not know if there was a special account for each of them in the books of the controller body. They did not budget nor were they consulted about their spending, although there were tough spending limits set for them. Due to this arrangement, there was no planning at the institutional level. This level was "made" to have no priorities of its own. Planning was made at the top. What was evidently clear was that the higher one went in the system, more funds were available. Hence, there was extra money available in bureaucracy and paper work. It was not clear how this was possible. There was much evidence however, that the lower levels suspected higher levels of spending more at their expense.

At the same time, there was no evidence of how funds given to councils to be used in education were monitored. What was apparently clear was that all the money under the respective councils were usually

put in a pool, and allocated according to council spending priorities. Thus, it was possible for education funds to be switched to other priority areas. Such practices were frequently leading to using money allocated for teachers salaries for other purposes. Widespread news about financial irregularities and mismanagement in many councils increased the suspicion of service providers that the service was a soft touch for managers and administrators in search of extra money to spend.

SUMMARY

This chapter was a discussion of findings presented in chapter six. It was a discussion about the administration and organization of the educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania; the theory underlying their co-ordination, staffing and issues surrounding it, the nature of the services, communication in the services, co-ordination mechanisms in place, the effectiveness of these mechanisms and the forces shaping the co-ordination.

The services were administered by government ministries and departments, councils and charities. They were organized into a national system with national, zonal, regional, district and institutional levels of operation. Departmentation was by functions, territory, geographical location and products or services provided. All of these had both negative and positive effects to co-ordination. Centralized,

decentralized, hierarchical, mechanistic and voluntary co-ordination theories were underlying practice. Like in the case of departmentation, all of them had both strengths and weaknesses in co-ordination.

There were specific staffing models in these services. These were occupation, attachment, secondment, extended, election/leadership, political, voluntary and appointment models. None of these was perfect. They all contained advantages and disadvantages in co-ordination. Issues of specification of professionals to employ, the extent to which visually impaired and blind people participated in these services, staff training and headship, surrounded the staffing of the services, and had far reaching implications to co-ordination.

The services were designed to meet specifically identified needs. The identification of these needs was experiential. Communication about the services was hampered by country's poor communication network and lack of communication channels. The co-ordination of the services was done by organizational and sectoral mechanisms. Organizational mechanisms were centralized, and included all nationally designed structures. These included government ministries and departments, councils and national charities. Sectoral mechanisms were at both the subsector and inter-sectoral levels. At the subsectors level, there were no co-ordination mechanisms. Co-ordination was replaced by calculated cooperation and collaboration. At the inter-sectoral level,

the state sector provided co-ordination. The co-ordination mechanisms at every level did not solve all co-ordination problems.

The effectiveness of these co-ordination mechanisms was measured by their capability to provide appropriate services. The services provided were less accurate and less adequate. Their accessibility was limited. Services were either coming late, or they were not coming at all. Efficiency in the services was generally perceived to be low. The co-ordination system in place was shaped by internal and external factors. These were social, political, economic and technical factors.

CHAPTER EIGHT

LIMITATIONS, SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

This chapter presents the limitations to the study, the study summary, the conclusions drawn out of it, and the recommendations made to redress the situation. After you have read it, you should understand:

1. The limitations to the study;
2. The gist of the study;
3. Issues raised in the study;
4. Conclusions that were drawn from the study;
5. The possible future actions.

THE LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

A number of limitations affected this study. No doubt, these limitations possibly affected the quality of the findings. The limitations included the following:

(a) the influences of blindness on the researcher. The researcher was blind. This influence of blindness limited the development of a coherent perception and an understanding of the physical and social environment in which the co-ordination of the educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania was taking place. According to Scholl (1986), one of the key influences of visual impairment and blindness on visually impaired and blind people is that

it disrupts communication between them and the environment, and between them and those around them. Because of limited sight or its total absence, the process of fitting the environment into personal consciousness is slowed down. Due to this, visually impaired and blind people are slow in perceiving the environment. This has some limiting effects on them. First, they take longer to develop concepts and an understanding of the environment. Second, they take longer to accommodate themselves into the environment, and let alone the fact that they take longer to respond to it accordingly. Third, they take longer to be active in the new environment. Or, even when the "ordinary" environment changes, it takes them another extra time to get acquainted to it again. Fourth, their performance in social, academic and production affairs are affected. Generally, the researcher had difficulties of getting around on the study sites and in developing a coherent understanding of their physical environment. It is possible, that, this affected the quality of findings about physical environment.

Communication between visually impaired and blind people and those around them is in most cases limited by the environment (Scholl, 1986; Heinze, 1986) and the type of communication in use (Heinze, 1986; Wirz and Winyard, 1993). The communication environment for visually impaired and blind people includes the physical environment, technology and the prevailing relationships. The physical environment encompasses the physical world. Technology refers to the

communication media. Relationships denote the social psychological content of the environment.

The physical environment limits communication between visually impaired and blind people and those around them through its texture, shape and organization. It is when these act as barriers against visually impaired and blind people, that the physical environment becomes a limiting factor to the communication between visually impaired and blind people with those around them. Visually impaired and blind people are disadvantaged when they enter a new environment. In such environments their mobility becomes hindered. That was the case in this study. The researcher suffered from ltd freedom in getting around on study sites because they were all new areas. Thus, he had to depend very much on the "good-will" of the guide and the Research Assistant in getting around on study sites. This minimized his freedom to decide what to do, when and where. He had always to fit himself into the feelings and time-tables of the helpers. It is possible, that the findings would have been better if it had not been for this limitation.

Under usual circumstances, technology quickens communication. The problem with technology is that in most cases it does not put into account, the immediate needs of all the sections of the human population. As a result of this, it tends to discriminate against some sections of (U.N., 1982; 1983; Heinze, 1986). For example, while

technology has made it possible for some sections of human population to get information through slides, visual tapes, photographs and films, visually impaired and blind people cannot benefit from such a technology however precious might that information be. The failure of relating technology with the needs of all the sections of human population has led to the following features in technological innovations. First, there are imbalances in technological development between different human societies. The world has been divided into technologically advanced and technologically developing countries. Second, there is an unequal sharing of the benefits of the technological innovations among different human social groups and sections within the same human communities. Third, some of the technological innovations purposely discriminate against some sections and some social groups. For instance, the researcher had difficulties in using official documents and files on sites because they were in print. In some cases, the access to the materials was on condition that other authorities were not involved, or any other person apart from the researcher, was not allowed to use them. In such circumstances, it is possible that, an information that would have made a difference to the findings was missed.

According to the U.N. (1982; 1983), the uneven technological development between human societies has increased the gap in the services for disabled people (and for visually impaired and blind people for that matter) between the technologically advanced countries

and the technologically developing ones. While visually impaired and blind people in the technologically developed countries have better conventional services and more technical aids, their counterparts in technologically developing countries have lesser conventional services and lesser technical aids. Such a status in the services and technical aids for visually impaired and blind people in technologically developing countries limits the efforts of visually impaired and blind people in these countries to adjust themselves to their environment as well as their efforts to participate in their communities' functions and activities. For example, because the study was basically planned to take place around organizations with services for visually impaired and blind people, the researcher expected to have access to equipment owned by these organizations. To his surprise, most of the organizations sampled, had the acute problem of equipment. This forced him to make much use of tape-recording. This had a big effect on the time spent on analysis and report writing. Because much time was spent on transcribing the tape-recorded materials, when the time for analysis and writing came, the pressure of a dead-line was already on the researcher. This disrupted concentration and concern. The main issue was to have the study finished and closed on time. In the process, it is possible, that, the quality of the findings was affected.

The influences of visual impairment and blindness limit visually impaired and blind people in accessing and using information (Owino and Muya, 1985; Heinze, 1986; Wirz and Winyard, 1993). Most of the

information sources are in print, video tapes, films, photographs and other audio-visual materials. Lack of sight denies visually impaired and blind people an access to any information presented or stored in such forms. The inaccess to information may have the following limiting effects to visually impaired and blind people. One, they become uninformed about the processes and issues in society. Two, their individuation and self actualization processes are fettered, as they lack the basis on which to base their decisions and judgments. Three, they have to depend very much on verbal communication to get information. However, verbal communication is not the best medium of communication for them. This is because, according to Wirz and Winyard (1993), verbal communication is always being supported by gestures, waving, body movements, nodding, eye contacts and signs (which are the media of non-verbal communication), to insist, stress, elaborate or even present information. Visually impaired and blind people cannot cope with such information presenting techniques due to the sight problems they have. In this study, the researcher was unable to participate in non-verbal communication due to lack of sight. However, the non-verbal expressions were explained to him by the guide and the Research Assistant. This had another implication to the study. In this case, the researcher was dealing with second-hand information. Four, their performance in various life aspects is affected. Inaccessibility to information because most of the information sources were discriminating against the researcher, had far-reaching effects to the study. Its effects were made even more

limiting by the absence of other means of accessing information than live-reading available to the researcher. This factor affected this study in various ways. First, there was much dependence on the "good-will" of other people such as readers, to have access to information available in prints and other audio-visual materials. This limited the freedom of the researcher in terms of when to work on the study, how and on what aspect. All the time, the work schedule was to be adjusted to the availability of the readers. Second, it dictated the mode in which the information was digested and used for the study. the materials were being transcribed into braille from their original print form. Then compiled into relevant essays or passages in braille; then refined in braille before they were typed in print for the peer debriefers to read. The comments of whomsoever read the work were also to be brailled before they could be worked on. This mode of working had three implications to the study: one, it took more time to prepare a small essay or passage. Two, it took more time to access more sources on one aspect. Three, it meant multiplication of work on the same piece. This way, the factor ltd the number of sources the researcher could use in shaping and refining the study given the time-limit factor which surrounded it throughout.

(b) the nature of the study itself was a limiting factor to the study. The whole study was about co-ordination. As an administrative task, co-ordination deals with behaviours, interests, performance, responsibility and interactions between individuals in an organization, and between

organizations, with the view of making them to correspond well with the organizational goals and objectives (Thompson, 1967; Child, 1984). Some of these aspects might be sensitive at personal and organizational levels. Still, for the purpose of this study, these aspects were studied. Given the sensitivity surrounding co-ordination, some managers, administrators and organizations in these services played a defensive role, and thereby affecting the study findings.

(c) Lack of literature about special educational services in Tanzania, and the co-ordination of the educational services for visually impaired and blind people in particular, limited the theoretical and the methodological foundations of this study.

(d) Finances were another limitation to this study. There were limited funds with which to conduct this study.

(e) time-limit was another limitation to this study. More time would be needed than scheduled if this study was to be conducted fairly in its totality.

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This study was an exploration of co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. It aimed at contributing to the study and understanding of the co-ordination system in this service sector. It sought to explain the nature, the issues, the

kind of relationships in these services, and the forces underlying their co-ordination. The study also explored the effectiveness of this co-ordination system, and the way the relationships in it, affected the set goals and objectives. This way, it was expected, the study would contribute to the knowledge and theory about co-ordination of educational services for disabled people.

The study was designed to answer five questions as follows:

1. What is the co-ordination system in the state sector of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania?
2. What is the co-ordination system in the private sector of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania?
3. What is the co-ordination system between the state sector and the private sector of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania?
4. How effective is the co-ordination system in the educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania?
5. What are the forces underlying this co-ordination system?

This was a qualitative study. As a qualitative study, it had the

following features:

First, it descriptively explained situations and conditions in the co-ordination of these services, with the view of exploring its prevailing patterns. To be able to do so, phenomena were studied from within their social contexts. Secondly, the study tapped information about peoples' experiences and opinions regarding educational service provision to visually impaired and blind people. The social relationship between these experiences, opinions of people and actual practice, yielded the needed data in this study. Also, the study was inductive. This made it more focused. Finally, the study was holistic. This means, co-ordination in the education of visually impaired and blind people was studied not as an isolated entity, but as part of a larger system of education, services for disabled people, and a socio-political system of the country.

The population in this study included teachers, social welfare officers, educational administrators, staff and executives of charities, and visually impaired and blind people themselves. The criteria for selection was the experience individuals had in the education of people with visual loss. The purposive, snowballing and opportunistic sampling techniques, were used. Under purposive sampling, the researcher was the main instrument in deciding the probability of the individual or the unit being included in the study. The extreme or deviant purposive sampling strategy, was adopted to get the needed information-rich cases. Under snowballing, the researcher traced

potential informants. Personal relationship with the study population was used to identify other potential sources of information. The opportunistic sampling technique enabled the researcher to take the on-the-spot decisions about sampling, while already in the field, to take advantage of unforeseen opportunities. It allowed the researcher to follow the direction to which the data led.

A number of data collection methods was also used. These included triangulation, questionnaires, interview, and observations. Triangulation allowed the use of more than one approach to data collection. In this study, only methodological and investigator triangulation were used. Investigator triangulation meant increasing the number of investigators, so as to have better findings. Due to this, the Guide was also made an Assistant Researcher. On the other hand, methodological triangulation meant using more than one technique in collecting data. It meant using questionnaires, interviews, observations and documentary reviews.

The sample size was 320. It was composed of interviewees and those who completed questionnaires. Of 282 questionnaires distributed in six regions of Tanzania, 196 (69.5%) were completed and returned. A total of 124 individuals were interviewed. In ensuring high questionnaire returns, the face to face and the chain-of-command techniques of follow-up were used. Visually impaired and blind people

had their questionnaires read aloud to them by the Assistant Researcher, who also recorded their responses accordingly.

Two types of interviews were used. These were the non-directive and the focused interviews. The researcher used the non-directive interviews to familiarize with the co-ordination system. Interviewees were given more general questions to talk about. In this type of interviews, the researcher was more like a pupil in the class learning from the interviewee, asking questions for clarification.

Under the focused type of interviews, the researcher sought information about specific issues. Some interviewees were given questions in advance, and some not. Focused interviews were used to clear doubts sustained in the non-directive interviews. Both individual and group interviewing were used in both types of interviews.

Observational data were collected from the perspective of the researcher and the perspective of the neutral person. Though blind, the researcher was active in observing. Other senses were used in observing. The moderate type of participation observation was used in natural settings. The passive non-participation observation was used in artificial settings. Throughout field work, the researcher developed and maintained a research diary. Tape-recording was also used in recording events in the field.

Controls were set in the study, to ensure desirable results and the trustworthiness of the whole study. A quality qualitative study, is the one with high credibility, transferability, dependability, confirmability and authenticity.

Credibility is the level of correspondence between the respondents' perception of the social constructs, and the way the researcher presents these perceptions. The following measures were taken to enhance credibility in this study:

1. Prolonged and substantial engagement in the field, until themes and examples were repeating instead of extending;
2. Premature closure of an investigation of any issue was avoided, as it would have led to premature conclusions;
3. The peer debriefer group composed of both professionals in the services for disabled people, and visually impaired and blind people themselves, challenged the field impressions of the researcher;
4. The negative case analysis was used to test the viability of the research questions and the working hypotheses;
5. Progressive subjectivism;
6. Member checks, both formal and informal; and
7. Triangulation: investigator and methodological triangulation were used.

Transferability is the degree of similarity between the study site and the other sites on which the study results may be tempting to be tested or

replicated. This is the personal judgment of the reader. The researcher facilitated the reader's process of judgment, by providing a detailed account of every process.

To enhance dependability, changes in the study were thoroughly traced, inspected and well documented. The precise nature of every inquiry step for every issue, claim and concern, was tested. Adjustments made were clearly documented. On the other hand, confirmability was determined by the level to which the data and their interpretation were not a presentation of the researcher's own imaginations and value judgments. Member checks, peer debriefing and triangulation, enabled the researcher to strike a balance between personal feelings and the perceptions of respondents. The analysis procedures were well documented, so that they could be open for verification.

Authenticity was the final aspect of trustworthiness in this study. This meant the researcher presenting a balanced view of all perspectives, values and beliefs surrounding the study. The issue of whether or not the researcher was fair to both respondents and the study, comes in here.

Finally, on methodology, the study was guided by the sociological paradigm. This is the paradigm grounded in sociology. The paradigm is analytical and critical. It focuses on recurring relationships between human beings in their social groups and institutions. It also focuses on

practices as they are, and not the way they were intended to be. The sociological paradigm also uses the relationship between the formal or legal authority and individuals, to explain phenomena. In this study, two more aspects were added to the paradigm. The first addition, was the informal authority and its relationship with individuals and phenomena under study. Another addition, was the relationship between authorities. All these factors at the centre of this paradigm, made it possible to explore the co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania in its totality.

Data were analyzed using qualitative procedures. There were two stages in the analysis. These were the initial and the final analysis stages. The initial stage included the study planning stage, and analysis during field work. The final analysis stage started immediately after leaving the field. Throughout both stages, impressions were made on empirical materials, and meanings and descriptions attached on them. The materials were analytically and critically analyzed, to establish their correspondence with perceptions and experiences of respondents. During analysis in the field and after it, data were categorised and coded. The deductive and inductive methods were used in developing categories and codes.

There was more than one organization involved in the provisions. It was found, that some of these organizations had sections/units specifically designed to co-ordinate the services. It was further found,

that some, like MOEC, had more than one unit/section; and others like Folk Development Colleges Department, had none. It was established, that there was no any difference between a section and a unit. Their powers were limited within the umbrella structure within the larger one.

The services were organized under departments within mainstream education. The number of departments differed between organizations, depending on the size of organizations themselves. Some organizations like MOEC, had more than one department responsible for the education of visually impaired and blind people. Others had just one department, while others did not have any at all.

There were different levels of operation in the services. These were the national, zonal, regional, district and institutional levels. The number of levels of operation differed between service subsectors. At regional and district levels, education was a department. The regional and district levels were independent of each other, and districts were highly independent of the national level. Like the national level, the regional level was always being overtaken by the district.

It was also found that the services had five theories of management and administration underlying co-ordination. These were the centralized, decentralized, hierarchical, mechanistic and voluntary co-ordination theories. Secondary and teacher education services were centralized to

the Ministry of Education and Culture. Vocational training was centralized in the Department of Social Welfare. The inspectorate was decentralized to zones. Primary education was decentralized to Districts, towns, municipalities and cities, where respective Councils were responsible. Charities like TLB and TSB, were very weak at regional and district levels, although they appeared strong at the national and institutional levels. Managers and administrators were very secretive. Workers in the field and visually impaired and blind people were alienated from policy development and planning the services. Institutions did not know anything about their budgets. Qualifications and procedures for appointments to headship were kept secret by managers and administrators. An informal structure was vividly paralleling the formal one. This had led to the emergence in the system, of coalitions and an elite group of managers and administrators. Voluntary co-ordination was exclusively found in charities and the institutional level.

It was further found that although special education was perceived as an integral part of general education, its administration was detached from mainstream management and administration. Officers responsible for certain duties in mainstream education, were not necessarily responsible for the same duties in the services. The Special Education Unit at MOEC was cut off from lower levels of operation. There was no liaison between this Unit and the lower structures in the services. The Unit was just an advisory body to the Commissioner of

Education, without or with quite limited powers in deciding. There was a high level of ambiguity of roles and duties between different authorities and positions, because there were no guidelines for the services. Specific staffing models of occupation, political, election/leadership, extended, secondment, attachment appointment and voluntary, were found to be widely used. There was an acute shortage of trained staff. Managers, administrators and teachers were found to be remarkably in shortage. Even few trained managers and administrators available, their qualifications were not necessarily considered when appointing them for managerial and administrative posts.

The provisions were found to be designed according to identified needs. However, it was further found, that experience among organizations and professionals, was used in endorsing these needs. Traditional services of institutionalized residential services, were found to be widely accepted as needs. No efforts had been made to establish their validity. There was a difference between service providers, as to what provisions to emphasize or de-emphasize.

It was also found that information about the services was being disseminated. Different social groups and the public at large, were identified by service organizations, as potential consumers of this information. Various information dissemination instruments were used. They ranged from the mass media, to letters and word of mouth.

The level to which information about the provisions was circulated, was quite low. Information dissemination was occasional or casual, totally influenced by the flavour of the day and circumstances.

It was further found that information dissemination was only one-way traffic. Only lower levels, informed higher ones. Higher levels and authorities either gave lower levels very little information, or did not give them any at all. Organizations did not inform each other, of what either of them was doing. The release of information was highly controlled, because information was perceived as sensitive. Thus, information dissemination followed the lines of authority. Information collection and record keeping, was also another problem. Majority of organizations had no a clear system of collecting information and keeping it. However, the information that entered the public domain, was found to be well focused.

Different types of co-ordination mechanisms were also found in the services. However, meetings and directives were widely used. Meetings were the major inter-organizational co-ordination mechanism. However, they were found to be convened as a matter of convenience. They lacked time-tables, and were always poorly attended.

It was also found that there were different national co-ordination mechanisms. These included a council and committees. However,

although permanent, the Council was just a nominal mechanism, thus every organization acted its own way. All committees that existed, were passing mechanisms. They were designed for specific short-term ventures. It was further found, that the number of co-ordination mechanisms differed between levels of operation. There were lesser mechanisms at lower levels. Positions in organizational structures were the main mechanism of co-ordination. People were found to be highly respecting positions. At all levels, people were contented with calculated collaboration and cooperation, both of which were very high.

It was further found that the current services did not accurately or adequately address the educational needs of visually impaired and blind people in the country. There was an acute shortage of equipment. Basic and supplementary braille materials were remarkably lacking. Schools had no white canes and braille papers. Environments were not modified to suit the mobility needs of visually impaired and blind people. Equipment and physical plants were not being repaired, although they were noticeably in bad state. There were no specially designed curricula. Visually impaired and blind learners were a responsibility of subject teachers. Specialist teachers limited their work to resourcing these learners, and did not provide them with extra tuitions to bridge the gaps in their learning.

However, visually impaired and blind teachers provided extra tuitions to visually impaired and blind students. Live-reading was the only way

of accessing information. There were no tape-recorded materials. However, there was a clear difference between church run schools and those run by the government. Church run schools had more equipment, their equipment were in good condition, and the environment was adapted to the getting-around needs of visually impaired and blind people. Private secondary schools were in the worst state. They had no any equipment, papers or a specialist teacher.

It was further found that health care was under low consideration. There were no first-aid services in institutions. Majority of schools, colleges and vocational training centres, had no employed nurses. Food was also a problem. Fruits, vegetables and meat, were either removed from the menus, or were quite rarely made available to students.

It was further found that only a very small proportion of visually impaired and blind population, actually received the services. Service organizations and their institutions were urban-based, leaving the countryside unattended. Bad communication system and costs, limited the access of the rural population to the services. Service workers were not travelling to the countryside to assess needs their. The requirement that students should pay fees, denied some of them access to the services. Even those who were in their receipt, the services reached them at a very low extent. Timing was poor. Visually impaired and blind people started schooling very late, and post-school programmes were very limited. The rate of efficiency was found to be quite low.

The services were either coming late, and sometimes were not coming at all. It was also found, that economic, social and political factors, were both positively and negatively affecting the services. All these influenced co-ordination either way.

It was further found that conflicts and struggles were rampant in the services. There were struggles between specialists and non-specialists. There were struggles between workers in the field and managers and administrators. In some cases, there were struggles between specialists themselves too. Also, there were quite sharp struggles between visually impaired and blind teachers and specialists teachers.

CONCLUSIONS

Looking at the findings presented in chapter six and the subsequent discussion in chapter seven, the following conclusions were drawn with respect to the five initial research questions:

1. There was a limited national type of co-ordination in the state sector of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. This was a loose co-ordination system, based on ministerial organization. Although the system was put in place as a national system, it was operating as a fragmented whole made of independent satellites within every single organization, and at the overall sector level. Instead of an integrated national co-ordination system, there was ministerial co-ordination. Every government ministry and department clung to what it was responsible for.

Interdepartmental co-ordination was minimal. It only manifested itself in various departments converging around one authority when it came to each of them reporting. Teamwork was replaced by bargaining between departments in organizations, with higher authorities finally taking sides. Inter-organizational co-ordination was almost non-existent in the state sector. Each organization involved in the provisions went its way in its respective field, but very mindful of what was needed in the mainstream system. They were readily contented with calculated cooperation and collaboration which characterized the sector. Consultations between organizations were either on a very small scale or they were completely unusual. The combinations of professional jealousy and protectionism on the one hand, and organizational desires and content for building and keeping empires in the services on the other, were always underlying inter-organizational joint ventures. Thus, marriages of convenience provided a weak rope from which inter-organizational provisions hung.

There was a failure to plan properly about the services. There were no explicit policies (both major and minor) about the services. The services were run on the basis of mainstream education policies, of which none ever made any reference to them. It was impossible to plan on the basis of such policies. As a result, relationships in the services remained unclarified. There were no guidelines or codes of practice. In such situations, it was difficult to make people responsible. Evaluating the services was more difficult, and adaptations were

difficult to imagine and develop. At the same time, it gave room for the thriving of an informal structure and authority in the services. Co-ordination therefore, was being compromised.

In some areas (for example primary education), there was a failure to balance delegation. In the zeal for decentralization, decision-making was pushed far down in organization, up to the very bottom of the structure: councils. A system of independent satellites developed. This was making supervision and monitoring by higher authorities difficult.

There was over-organization in the services. This resulted from a failure to adjust the management and administration of the services to the philosophy of "Special Education is an integral part of general education". The structure was complicated by creating too many levels of operation: between two and five depending on the subsector. Some of these, like the regional level, were maintained even though they were of insignificant necessity. This situation reflected on the narrow spans of management and control that existed. Furthermore, the narrow spans reflected well on a misunderstanding of the spans of the management principle, managerial inability to minimize the time requirements and overriding human relationships or lack of time to manage. Conflict and struggles between levels was inevitable. Co-ordination as such, was being weakened.

Likewise, there was multiplication of staff and service activities or structures, caused by inadequate delegation to line-subordinates and line-departments. For instance, the Special Education Unit was almost replacing line-departments in matters regarding respective subsectors. At the same time, specialists in this unit were being assigned duties which would have otherwise been assigned to line-departments and line-subordinates. For example, the Special Education Unit evaluating teacher training even without consulting or involving the Department of Teacher Education. Like in the case of too many levels, conflicts were inevitable. In such circumstances too, co-ordination was being undermined.

There was too much centralization in this sector. Management and administration was top-down heavy. Managers and administrators hoarded powers in policy making, planning and decision-making. As a result, there was excessive referral of even small problems to upper echelons. Top executives were overburdened with details which were sometimes unnecessary, continued "fire fighting" approach to problems, and "meetings of crises". In such circumstances, the development of managerial and administrative skills among lower cadre authorities was retarded, and delays, red tape and informal relationships thrived in the system. These were a serious threat to efficiency and effectiveness in co-ordination.

Furthermore, workers in the field like teachers and social welfare officers, and the consumers of the services, were alienated from developing policies and plans about the services. The services were pushed down to them to implement or receive. This caused grudges at the grassroots, and managers and administrators were suspected of planning the services for a fortune for themselves.

The whole system seemed not to be transparent. Institutions and workers in the field were not informed even about issues that affected their daily duties and life. They were neither being consulted about their institutions budgets, nor were they informed about their recurrent expenditures. People were being given positions while the processes through which they got those positions remained undisclosed. In such circumstances, the whole system was viewed as undemocratic. Some appointees failed to command the trust and support of those they were to lead. Feelings that only "good boys" and "good girls" to top managers and administrators could be appointed, developed in the grassroots. Such grudges to the system were detrimental to co-ordination.

2. An identical loose co-ordination system existed in the private sector too. There was no national integrated co-ordination in this sector either. Unlike in the state sector, intra-organizational co-ordination was more sound due to the smallness of the organizations found in this

particular sector. Departments were relatively small, and therefore easy to monitor and control.

Like in the state sector, inter-organizational co-ordination was eroded by calculated collaboration and cooperation. Every organization was working alone, busy to establish itself as the giant of the sector. Single organizations therefore, provided co-ordination in their own areas of operation. In fact, suspicions between organizations, empire building and protection, dominated the private sector of educational services for visually impaired and blind people. Like in the state sector too, marriages of convenience manifested in calculated cooperation and collaboration, left the sector to be characterized by competing and principally opposed organizations.

3. Co-ordination between the state sector and the private sector was by legal suppression. The state sector through government ministries and departments, had a legal right and monopoly to policy making, planning, supervising and monitoring the services. This gave the state sector an unquestionable right and responsibility of providing leadership and ultimate national co-ordination of the services. Situations in the state sector therefore, had a direct bearing on the private sector also. Armed with law, the state sector was neglecting the private sector as a partner in the provisions. With limited consultation, or without any at all, it was always imposing prescriptions of policies on the private sector. There were no mechanisms with which the

private sector could influence policy making, planning and decisions made in the state sector about the services. Like in the case of individual sectors, calculated collaboration and cooperation for survival, replaced co-ordination. However, they were organizations in the private sector which had an immense pressure to collaborate and cooperate, because they needed licensing before operating in any field. Just because co-ordination in the state sector was divided along ministerial lines, the intended "national system" of co-ordination in the education of visually impaired and blind people was narrowed down to the "ministerial systems" too. This weakened co-ordination between the state sector and the private sector even further.

The mechanisms used in integrating together the activities in the two sectors were considerably weak. For example, there were passing mechanisms involving individual charities and respective ministries. These were joint committees. However, they were very weak. They hardly met, and neither were their decisions binding. They had no actual powers. They were mere marriages of convenience.

The national Advisory Council for the Services of Disabled Persons too, was profoundly nominal. Its meetings were never convened. Other government ministries had refused to cooperate with it, and it was an extension of the Department of Social Welfare.

There was an acute shortage of trained staff. People trained in visual impairment were quite few. Also those trained in management and administration were in shortage. Thus, individuals working by trial and error were largely manning the services.

There was little information available about the services. Information collecting and record keeping were a problem. Information channels followed lines of authority. This enabled censorship to take place. Only information about intentions in the services rather than what they were practically, was put into the public domain. There was no an information exchange system between organizations and sectors. This made it more difficult for any organization to measure its standards with those of another organization.

4. The type of co-ordination found in the educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania was very weak, and therefore ineffective in providing services. Control and monitoring in lower levels was very poor, because there were no educational officers responsible for the services. As a result, services were coming very late. There was a high shortage of materials. There was an acute shortage of equipment. Even the few equipment available, were not being serviced. Within the services, there was differentiation between the state sector and the private sector, with the latter having quality services than the former. As far as effectiveness was concerned, it went well with an African saying

that: "There were too many noise makers on the compound, but no one was coming inside."

5. A diverse set of forces was underlying the co-ordination system found in the education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. A combination of economic, political and social forces, shaped the system of co-ordination. Politicians and the political system, were under immense internal pressure from the public to do something tangible for people with disabilities, those with visual loss inclusive. Surely, something had to be done in response. On the international stage, like all nations, Tanzania was under pressure to develop viable programmes for its disabled population. At the same time, the economic strength of the country was always outstretched. Thus, all the services were to be provided under the pressure of scarcity in resources. This made planning, monitoring and integrating the services even more difficult. On the other hand, within the services, disagreements between organizations, groups and individuals were aggravating the situation. The current system was an effort in trying to strike a balance between all these forces.

The engagement in the field produced surprises beyond the answers to the five research questions that guided the study. So, in addition to what I have covered in relation to the five research questions, there were seven other issues and themes that emerged from this study, and which were not necessarily anticipated. These were equally important

in themselves and the conclusions that were arrived at. Conclusions based on these issues were drawn as follows:

(i) Research activities in the services were remarkably limited.

Theory, knowledge and practices, were based on experience, professional training, orientation and conviction instead of scientific revelations. As a result, information about how actually the services were, was limited. Instead, information about intentions was replacing that about actual practice.

(ii) There was no an interdisciplinary approach to the services.

Organizations, especially those in the state sector, had preferences in specific professions for staff. For example, schools and other educational establishments were the monopoly of teachers. Social welfare, vocational education and vocational training centres were the monopoly of social welfare officers. A system like this encouraged and sealed professional jealousy, protectionism and war, even in matters where the other party could rightly be considered competent or the obvious ally.

(iii) Trust between different groups and within groups in the

services was noticeably lacking. Teachers were deeply suspicious of managers and administrators. Mainstream teachers were uncomfortable with specialist teachers and vice-versa. Visually impaired and blind people too, were unhappy with specialists and managers and administrators. Within all groups involved in the services too, those lowly placed did not trust higher authorities. Aware

of this, those in higher positions were intolerant and jealously guarding their positions.

(iv) **The theory which was underlying co-ordination in the education of visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania perpetuated alienation of some groups from shaping the services.**

A more inclusive theory was needed.

(v) **This study provides one typical example of a national system of co-ordination.** There may be other unknown similar or different national systems. Bringing such systems to light will help more our understanding of national co-ordination systems.

(vi) **The study left a number of questions about co-ordination systems below the national system unanswered.** School/college, district and regional systems, were studied in terms of how they were perceived and related to by the larger national system. How they were actually coping with the pressures of the national system and the way they were organizing themselves to ensure their survival and their services within the larger system, were neglected.

RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of this study, recommendations for future action are as follows:

1. Co-ordination in the state sector should be strengthened.

Measures should be taken to enhance co-ordination in this sector. The following measures should be taken:

(a), A permanent inter-departmental committee responsible for policy development and evaluation, should be formed in each ministry to co-ordinate efforts by different departments;

(b) An inter-ministerial permanent committee should be put in place as a mechanism of co-ordinating actions by different government ministries;

(c) There should be proper planning of the services. An explicit policy on educational services for visually impaired and blind people, should be developed. On the basis of this policy, codes of practice laying down formal relationships between individuals, groups, authorities and organizations in the services, their rights and responsibilities, should be developed. This will curb the influence and the power of the informal structure and relationships in the services, and will clear confusion over who does what;

(d) A mechanism should be put in place, to enable respective ministries to retain some authority over Councils in matters of policy. They should have powers and authority to review plans and performance of Councils. Such powers and authority should enable them to ensure that the powers and authority delegated to Councils are used in the way and the purposes intended. This will enhance accountability and responsibility on the part of Councils;

(e) Over-organization of the services should be minimized. This will make line-departments, line-managers and line-administrators directly responsible and accountable. It will also cut down the size of the bureaucracy and authorities in the services. Of course, this will eventually minimize costs in paper work and bureaucracy.

The regional level of operation should be scrapped. It was neither crucial nor was it necessary to the services. Its role and position were invisible, and it was a burden to the services. Although it was meant to co-ordinate activities in districts, the districts were independent from it, and therefore remained inactive and isolated.

The Special Education Unit in the Ministry of Education and Culture too, should be disbanded. There was no any legal foundation for this Unit to cut across departments. Hence, it was not cutting across departments, contrary to what it was meant for. It did not have a territory of its own. Thus, it was always venturing into the territories of other departments, and thereby causing controversy and confusion. Conscious of the position of this unit, its staff were keeping a low profile in the ministry. Its existence was making special education so special, and at the same time contravening the philosophy that special education should be an integral part of general education. Its presence was no better than its being disbanded.

The Unit should be replaced by a Special Education Desk in every department in the ministry. This will remove the accessory character of the services and make them part of general education. It will include the services in policies and plans of every department;

(f) The participation of workers in the field and visually impaired and blind people should be improved. The dominance of managers over policy making, planning and decision-making should be minimized to allow field workers and visually impaired and blind people to influence the processes involved. This will build and cement trust between executives, field workers and service consumers. It will establish a new type of ownership of services, under which all groups involved will claim to have a share. It will enhance collaboration, cooperation and co-ordination.

At the same time, the participation of lower levels like institutions should also be improved. More authority and decision-making powers should be granted to these levels so that they plan and shape their daily activities. This will make them responsible for their standards, actions and activities. It will curb further informal authority and structure, red tape and unnecessary referrals;

(g) Openness in the system should replace secretiveness. Managers and administrators should be more open to service workers and consumers, so as to command their trust and confidence. They should regularly

give information to lower levels, and all reports should be available to all organizational men and women. Institutions should be consulted about their budgetary needs, as this is one form of planning. They should be informed about the available funds. They should be kept aware of the budgetary developments. This will alleviate suspicion that top managers and administrators are planning and budgeting for personal gains.

Appointment procedures should also be made open. Instead of managers and administrators appointing people by the method of "distributing from the briefcase", panels of experts should be used. Positions should be advertised, candidates interviewed by the panel, which then nominates a suitable candidate from the interviewed applicants. This will restore peoples' confidence in appointments; and

(h) Co-ordination at the Councils level should be strengthened. There was no a clearly defined structure responsible for the services at this level. People were very busy with mainstream issues, pushing aside similar issues in the services. Hence, the position of Education Officer (Special Education) should be put in place to co-ordinate these services at this level.

2. Like in the state sector, co-ordination in the private sector needs strengthening too. An inter-organizational body should be formed to co-ordinate efforts by different organizations in the sector.

3. Co-ordination between the private sector and the state sector

should be strengthened. Measures should be as follows:

(a) Permanent inter-organizational committees involving voluntary agencies and government ministries in respective subsectors of the provisions should be formed to co-ordinate efforts by these ministries and the private sector, and to give the private sector an opportunity to influence policy making, planning and decisions about the services, made in the government circles; and

(b) The National Advisory Council for the Services of Disabled Persons should also be strengthened. The influence and the control of the Department of Social Welfare on this body, should be removed. The Council should be moved to the Prime-minister's Office from the Department of Social Welfare, so as to avoid ministerial wars over its status. The body should be given more teeth over issues concerning policy, planning and co-ordination of educational services for people with disabilities, visually impaired and blind people inclusive.

4. Effectiveness in the system should be strengthened. Measures to raise effectiveness should be taken as follows:

(a) Information availability and dissemination should be improved. Information channels should be separated from lines of authority. Organizations should improve their record keeping systems. A training intended to impart skills in gathering information and record keeping should be designed and run alongside other courses. A

newsletter or a journal should be established to allow people and organizations to share studies and information. Newspapers and other mass media instruments should be encouraged to devote special pages or programmes for the services; and

(b) Staff training should also be expanded so as to meet the manpower demand in the services. The permeation model of training should be expanded into all staff training courses. This will not only increase the number of people skilled in the education of people with visual loss, but it will also make even mainstream staff experts in the field. Intakes in focused programmes of training should be expanded. Short courses in the form of seminars should also be increased, and should cover all types of staff in the field.

5. Individuals and organizations in the services should double their efforts to get the public, politicians and the whole political establishment on board of the services. This will act as a catalyst for the services being included in national priorities during policy making and planning.

6. Research in the services should be strengthened. The following measures should be taken in this objective:

(a) organizations should establish research units to co-ordinate research in the provisions;

(b) Organizations should make funds available for research activities;

(c) Staff in the services should be trained in basic skills of conducting research; and

(d) Organizations should search for, recognize and make use of research findings by researchers in different organizations or fields.

7. An interdisciplinary approach to the services should be adopted and developed. The following steps should be taken in this respect:

(a) Organizations should do away with preferring certain professions against others for employees. This will stamp out professional jealousy and protectionism; and

(b) It should clearly be established in which areas different professions should work together in the services. They should be encouraged to work together in those areas, and foster utmost cooperation in other areas too.

8. Efforts to build trust between different players in the services should be doubled. To foster trust, the following measures should be taken:

(a) The whole system should be made more transparent; and

(b) The partnership system between groups in the services should be developed.

9. **The new partnership theory should underly the whole co-ordination system.** This theory should be based on the following:

(a) An active participation of every individual person and group in matters related to the services. All people should be given an opportunity to influence policies, plans and decisions;

(b) **Consulting.** Managers and administrators should consult widely before making far reaching decisions. Decisions should be made on the basis of the consultations and the consensus developed;

(c) **Genuineness.** The relationship should be based on trust, frankness and equalitarianism. All players should be perceived as being of equal weight and importance; and

(d) **Feedback.** All players should have the right to information about what went wrong or right, contributing factors, difficulties and prospects. This will help them in their re-examination of the services.

10. **This study should be replicated in other areas as follows:**

(a) **Other national co-ordination systems.** This study was about the Tanzanian national system of co-ordination. Studying systems of other

countries will refine our knowledge and understanding of national co-ordination systems even more;

(b) *Other areas of educational management and administration.* This study was about co-ordination. Similar studies in policy making and planning educational services in specific disability areas or in educational special needs in general, will refine more the knowledge, understanding and practice in the management and administration of these services; and

(c) *Smaller systems.* This study was about the national system. It leaves many questions about school, college, regional and all systems well below the national system unanswered. Studying such systems will help us to understand not only the way they operate as well as the environments in which they operate, but will also better our knowledge and understanding of national systems even further .

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

THE INTRODUCTION OF EVERY QUESTIONNAIRE

We are conducting a study on the co-ordination of educational services for visually impaired and blind people in Tanzania. The study is concerned with how different service providers run their services. It seeks to identify areas of co-ordination that may need improvement to ensure effective and responsive services.

You have been identified as a key person in providing information for this study, because of your experience and expertise in the education of visually impaired and blind persons in Tanzania. We therefore greatly value your participation in this study. All the information provided, will be taken as strictly confidential.

EDWARD T.T. BAGANDANSHWA, AND
HASSAN MAKIH
Researchers.

This introductory statement introduced every questionnaire schedule to respondents. This was like the title page to all questionnaire versions in English.

APPENDIX 2

UTANGULIZI KWA MADODOSO YOTE

Tunafanya uchunguzi juu ya uratibu wa huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona nchini Tanzania. Uchunguzi huu utahusika haswa na namna watoa huduma mbalimbali wanavyoendesha huduma zao. Uchunguzi utajaribu kuainisha maeneo ya uratibu wa huduma hizo, yanayohitaji kuimarishwa, ili kuweza kutoa huduma bora zaidi.

Umechaguliwa kuwa mtu muhimu wa kutoa habari katika uchunguzi huu, kutokana na uzoefu na ujuzi wako katika elimu ya wasioona nchini Tanzania. Kwa hiyo, tunathamini mno kushiriki kwako katika uchunguzi huu. Habari yo yote ile utakayoitoa, itachukuliwa kuwa ni siri kubwa.

EDWARD T. T. BAGANDANSHWA, NA

HASSAN MAKIH

Wachunguzi.

This introductory statement, introduced every Kiswahili version of every questionnaire to respondents.

APPENDIX 3

THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

SECTION A: PERSONAL PARTICULARS

1. Your employer(write the name of the
Ministry/organization/authority) -----
2. The department in which you work -----
3. Section/unit if any -----
4. Level of operation (tick the most appropriate)
 - (a) national (---)
 - (b) zonal (---)
 - (c) regional (---)
 - (d) district (---)
 - (e) institutional (---)
 - (f) other (---) (please elaborate)

5. Give a brief explanation about your duties at your work

6. Your position at work (write the highest rank you currently occupy) -

7. The highest qualifications held (tick the most appropriate)
 - (a) no any training at all (---)
 - (b) on-the-job training (---)
 - (c) grade "a" teachers certificate (---)
 - (d) a certificate in special education (---)
 - (e) a certificate in social work (---)
 - (f) a certificate in adult education (---)
 - (g) diploma in education (---)
 - (h) diploma in special education (---)

- (i) diploma in social work (---)
 - (j) diploma in adult education (---)
 - (k) First degree in education (---)
 - (l) First degree (general) (---)
 - (m) other (---) (please elaborate)
-
-

SECTION B: SERVICES

8. What are the educational services for visually impaired and blind people provided by your ministry/department?

9. Does your ministry/department disseminate information about the educational services it provides to visually impaired and blind people? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) yes (---)
- (b) no (---)

10. Who are the regular consumers of the information about educational services for visually impaired and blind people, disseminated by your ministry/department?

11. How does your ministry/department disseminate this information? (Please list the means used)

12. How regularly is the information about the educational services for visually impaired and blind people circulated by your ministry/department? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) always circulated (---)
- (b) sometimes circulated (---)

(c) never circulated (---)

13. How are the structures and bodies under your ministry/department involved in these services, integrating their activities? (Please list the means they use)

14. How does your ministry/department integrate the services it provides, with those provided by other ministries and organizations? (Please list the means used)

15. If meetings are one of the means used in achieving that integration, how regularly are they convened? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) monthly (---)
- (b) quarterly (---)
- (c) half yearly (---)
- (d) yearly (---)
- (e) adhoc (---)
- (f) no meetings at all (---)
- (g) other (--) (please elaborate)

SECTION C: EFFECTIVENESS IN THE PROVISIONS

16. What are educational needs of visually impaired and blind people, identified by your ministry/department?

17. To what extent are the educational needs of visually impaired and blind people addressed by the available provisions? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) very high extent (---)
- (b) a little above average (---)

- (c) average (---)
- (d) a little below average (---)
- (e) very low extent (---)

18. What proportion of the visually impaired and blind population needing the services actually receive them?

19. To what extent are educational services provided, reaching visually impaired and blind people? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) very high extent (---)
- (b) a little above average (---)
- (c) average (---)
- (d) a little below average (---)
- (e) very low extent (---)

20. How do you rate efficiency in the services? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) very efficient (---)
- (b) moderately efficient (---)
- (c) somehow efficient (---)
- (d) not efficient at all (---)

21. What are the contributing factors to success in the provisions?

22. What factors affect success in the provisions?

Thank you. We very much appreciate your participation and cooperation. We will appreciate more, if you will ensure that no question is left unanswered. We will be even more grateful, if you will ensure that this completed schedule is handed in.

APPENDIX 4

MADODOSO KWA AJILI YA WATAWALA WA ELIMU

SEHEMU A: MAELEZO BINAFSI

1. Mwajiri wako (andika jina la mamlaka iliyokuajiri)

2. Idara unayofanya kazi

3. Sehemu/kitengo kama kipo

4. Ngazi ya utendaji (weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

(a) ngazi ya taifa (---)

(b) ngazi ya kanda (---)

(c) ngazi ya mkoa (---)

(d) ngazi ya wilaya (---)

(e) ngazi ya taasisi (---)

(f) ngazi yninginezo (---) (tafadhali fafaua)

5. Toa maelezo mafupi kuhusu majukumu yako kazini

6. Cheo chako kazini (tafadhali andika cheo chako cha juu kabisa unachokishikilia hivi sasa)

7. Mafunzo ya juu kabisa uliyo nayo (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

(a) hakuna mafunzo kabisa (---)

(b) mafunzo kwa uzoefu kazini (---)

(c) astashahada ya ualimu daraja la "a" (---)

(d) astashahada katika elimu maalum (---)

(e) astashahada katika ustawi wa jamii (---)

- (f) astashahada katika elimu ya watu wazima (---)
- (g) stashahada katika elimu (---)
- (h) stashahada katika elimu maalum (---)
- (i) stashahada katika ustawi wa jamii (---)
- (j) stashahada katika elimu ya watu wazima (---)
- (k) shahada ya kwanza katika elimu (---)
- (l) shahada ya kwanza (ya jumla) (---)
- (m) mafunzo mengineyo (---) (tafadhali fafanua)

SEHEMU B: HUDUMA

8. Ni huduma gani za kielimu zinatolewa na wizara/idara yako kwa wasioona?

9. Je, wizara/idara yako husambaza habari za huduma za kielimu inazozitoa kwa wasioona? (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) ndiyo (---)
- (b) hapana (---)

10. Ni akina nani walengwa wa habari hizo za huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona, zinazotolewa na wizara/idara yako?

11. Je, wizara/idara yako inatumia njia gani katika kusambaza habari za huduma za kielimu inazotoa kwa wasioona?

12. Ni kwa kiasi gani habari za huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona zinazotolewa na wizara/idara yako, hutolewa? (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

(a) hutolewa kila mara (---)

(b) hutolewa kwa nyakati fulanifulani (---)

(c) hazitolewi kabisa (---)

13. Je, vyombo chini ya wizara/idara yako vinavyotoa huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona vinaunganishaje nguvu na kazi zao? (Tafadhali orodhesha njia zinazotumika)

14. Je, wizara/idara yako inaunganishaje huduma za kielimu inazozitoa kwa wasioona, na huduma kama hizo zinazotolewa na vyombo vingine? (Tafadhali orodhesha njia zinazotumika)

15. Kama vikao ni moja ya njia zinazotumiwa kuunganisha huduma za kielimu zinazotolewa na wizara/idara yako pamoja na zile zinazotolewa na vyombo vingine, vikao hivyo huitishwa katika muda gani? (Tafadhali weka vema kyenye kipengele sahihi)

(a) kila mwezi (---)

(b) kila robo mwaka (---)

(c) kila nusu mwaka (---)

(d) kila baada ya mwaka (---)

(e) dharura (---)

(f) hakuna vikao vyo vyote (---)

(g) vinginevyo (---) (tafadhali fafanua)

SEHEMU C: UFANISI KATIKA HUDUMA

16. Ni yepi mahitaji ya kielimu ya wasioona yaliyoainishwa na wizara/idara yako?

17. Ni kwa kiasi gani mahitaji ya kielimu ya wasioona yanakidhiwa na huduma zilizopo? (Tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) kiasi cha juu kabisa (---)
- (b) juu kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (c) wastani (---)
- (d) chini kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (e) kiwango cha chini sana (---)

18. Kiasi gani cha wasioona wanaozihitaji huduma za kielimu, haswa kinazipata?

19. Ni kwa kiasi gani huduma za kielimu zinazotolewa zinawafikia wasioona? (Tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) kiasi cha juu kabisa (---)
- (b) juu kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (c) wastani (---)
- (d) chini kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (e) kiasi cha chini sana (---)

20. Unauonaje ufanisi katika huduma zenyewe? (Tafadhali weka vema katika kipengele sahihi)

- (a) mkubwa sana (---)
- (b) wa kiasi cha kati (---)
- (c) wa kiasi fulani (---)
- (d) hakuna ufanisi wo wote (---)

21. Mambo gani yanachangia katika kuleta mafanikio kwenye huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona?

22. Matatizo gani yanazikabili huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona?

ASANTE SANA KWA USHIRIKIANO WAKO NA KUSHIRIKI KWAKO KATIKA ZOEZI HILI. TUTASHUKURU ZAIDI, ENDAPO UTAHAKIKISHA KWAMBA HAKUNA SWALI LO LOTE LILIOACHWA BILA KUJIBIWA. TUTAFURAHU MNO, ENDAPO

UTAHAKIKISHA KUWA KABRASHA HILI LITAWASILISHWA
LIKIWA
LIMEKAMILIKA LOTE.

APPENDIX 5

THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EXECUTIVES AND STAFF OF CHARITIES

SECTION A: PERSONAL PARTICULARS

1. Your employer (write the name of the charity) -----

2. The department in which you work -----

3. Section/unit if any -----

4. Level of operation (tick the most appropriate)

(a) national (---)

(b) zonal (---)

(c) regional (---)

(d) district (---)

(e) institutional (---)

(f) other (---) (please elaborate)

5. Give a brief explanation about your duties at your work

6. Your position at work (write the highest rank you currently occupy) -----

7. The highest qualifications held (tick the most appropriate)

((a) no any training at all (---)

(b) on-the-job training (---)

(c) grade "a" teachers certificate (---)

(d) a certificate in special education (---)

(e) a certificate in social work (---)

(f) a certificate in adult education (---)

(g) diploma in education (---)

(h) diploma in special education (---)

(i) diploma in social work (---)

(j) diploma in adult education (---)

(k) First degree in education (---)

(l) First degree (general) (---)

(m) other (---) (please elaborate)

SECTION B: SERVICES

8. What are the educational services for visually impaired and blind people provided by your charity/organization?

9. Does your charity/organization disseminate information about the educational services it provides to visually impaired and blind people?

(Please tick the most appropriate)

(a) yes (---)

(b) no (---)

10. Who are the regular consumers of the information about educational services for visually impaired and blind people, disseminated by your charity/organization?

11. How does your ministry/department disseminate this information?

(Please list the means used)

12. How regularly is the information about the educational services for visually impaired and blind people circulated by your charity/organization? (Please tick the most appropriate)

(a) always circulated (---)

(b) sometimes circulated (---)

(c) never circulated (---)

13. How are the structures and bodies under your charity/organization involved in these services, integrating their activities? (Please list the means they use)

14. How does your charity/organization integrate the services it provides, with those provided by ministries and other organizations? (Please list the means used)

15. If meetings are one of the means used in achieving that integration, how regularly are they convened? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) monthly (---)
- (b) quarterly (---)
- (c) half yearly (---)
- (d) yearly (---)
- (e) adhoc (---)
- (f) no meetings at all (---)
- (g) other (--) (please elaborate)

SECTION C: EFFECTIVENESS IN THE PROVISIONS

16. What are educational needs of visually impaired and blind people, identified by your charity/organization?

17. To what extent are the educational needs of visually impaired and blind people addressed by the available provisions? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) very high extent (---)
- (b) a little above average (---)
- (c) average (---)

(d) a little below average (---)

(e) very low extent (---)

18. What proportion of the visually impaired and blind population needing the services actually receive them?

19. To what extent are educational services provided, reaching visually impaired and blind people? (Please tick the most appropriate)

(a) very high extent (---)

(b) a little above average (---)

(c) average (---)

(d) a little below average (---)

(e) very low extent (---)

20. How do you rate efficiency in the services? (Please tick the most appropriate)

(a) very efficient (---)

(b) moderately efficient (---)

(c) somehow efficient (---)

(d) not efficient at all (---)

21. What are the contributing factors to success in the provisions?

22. What factors affect success in the provisions?

Thank you. We very much appreciate your participation and cooperation. We will appreciate more, if you will ensure that no question is left unanswered. We will be even more grateful, if you will ensure that this completed schedule is handed in.

APPENDIX 6

MADODOSO KWA AJILI YA WAKUU NA WAFANYAKAZI WA WAKALA ZA HIARI

SEHEMU A: MAELEZO BINAFSI

1. Mwajiri wako (andika jina la wakala iliyokuajiri)

2. Idara unayofanya kazi

3. Sehemu/kitengo kama kipo

4. Ngazi ya utendaji (weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

(a) ngazi ya taifa (---)

(b) ngazi ya kanda (---)

(c) ngazi ya mkoa (---)

(d) ngazi ya wilaya (---)

(e) ngazi ya taasisi (---)

(f) ngazi yninginezo (---) (tafadhali fafanua)

5. Toa maelezo mafupi kuhusu majukumu yako kazini

6. Cheo chako kazini (tafadhali andika cheo chako cha juu kabisa
unachokishikilia hivi sasa)

7. Mafunzo ya juu kabisa uliyo nayo (tafadhali weka vema kwenye
kipengele sahihi)

(a) hakuna mafunzo kabisa (---)

(b) mafunzo kwa uzoefu kazini (---)

(c) astashahada ya ualimu daraja la "a" (---)

(d) astashahada katika elimu maalum (---)

- (e) astashahada katika ustawi wa jamii (---)
 - (f) astashahada katika elimu ya watu wazima (---)
 - (ong) stashahada katika elimu (---)
 - (h) stashahada katika elimu maalum (---)
 - (i) stashahada katika ustawi wa jamii (---)
 - (j) stashahada katika elimu ya watu wazima (---)
 - (k) shahada ya kwanza katika elimu (---)
 - (l) shahada ya kwanza (ya jumla) (---)
 - (m) mafunzo mengineyo (---) (tafadhali fafanua)
-
-

SEHEMU B: HUDUMA

8. Ni huduma gani za kielimu zinatolewa na wakala/idara yako kwa wasioona?

9. Je, wakala/idara yako husambaza habari za huduma za kielimu inazotoa kwa wasioona? (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) ndiyo (---)
- (b) hapana (---)

10. Ni akina nani walengwa wa habari hizo za huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona, zinazotolewa na wakala/idara yako?

11. Je, wakala/idara yako inatumia njia gani katika kusambaza habari za huduma za kielimu inazotoa kwa wasioona?

12. Ni kwa kiasi gani habari za huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona zinazotolewa na wakala-idara yako, hutolewa? (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

(a) hutolewa kila mara (---)

(b) hutolewa kwa nyakati fulanifulani (---)

(c) hazitolewi kabisa (---)

13. Je, vyombo chini ya wakala/idara yako vinavyotoa huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona vinaunganishaje nguvu na kazi zao? (Tafadhali orodhesha njia zinazotumika)

14. Je, wakala/idara yako inaunganishaje huduma za kielimu inazozitoa kwa wasioona, na huduma kama hizo zinazotolewa na vyombo vingine? (Tafadhali orodhesha njia zinazotumika)

15. Kama vikao ni moja ya njia zinazotumiwa kuunganisha huduma za kielimu zinazotolewa na wakala/idara yako pamoja na zile zinazotolewa na vyombo vingine, vikao hivyo huitishwa katika muda gani? (Tafadhali weka vema kyenye kipengele sahihi)

(a) kila mwezi (---)

(b) kila robo mwaka (---)

(c) kila nusu mwaka (---)

(d) kila baada ya mwaka (---)

(e) dharura (---)

(f) hakuna vikao vyo vyote (---)

(g) vinginevyo (---) (tafadhali fafania)

SEHEMU C: UFANISI KATIKA HUDUMA

16. Ni yepi mahitaji ya kielimu ya wasioona yaliyoainishwa na wakala/idara yako?

17. Ni kwa kiasi gani mahitaji ya kielimu ya wasioona yanakidhiwa na huduma zilizopo? (Tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) kiasi cha juu kabisa (---)
- (b) juu kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (c) wastani (---)
- (d) chini kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (e) kiwango cha chini sana (---)

18. Kiasi gani cha wasioona wanaozihitaji huduma za kielimu, haswa kinazipata?

19. Ni kwa kiasi gani huduma za kielimu zinazotolewa zinawafikia wasioona? (Tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) kiasi cha juu kabisa (---)
- (b) juu kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (c) wastani (---)
- (d) chini kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (e) kiasi cha chini sana (---)

20. Unauonaje ufanisi katika huduma zenyewe? (Tafadhali weka vema katika kipengele sahihi)

- (a) mkubwa sana (---)
- (b) wa kiasi cha kati (---)
- (c) wa kiasi fulani (---)
- (d) hakuna ufanisi wo wote (---)

21. Mambo gani yanachangia katika kuleta mafanikio kwenye huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona?

22. Matatizo gani yanazikabili huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona?

ASANTE SANA KWA USHIRIKIANO WAKO NA KUSHIRIKI
KWAKO KATIKA ZOEZI HILI. TUTASHUKURU ZAIDI, ENDAPO
UTAHAKIKISHA KWAMBA HAKUNA SWALI LO LOTE
LILIOACHWA BILA KUJIBIWA. TUTAFURAHU MNO, ENDAPO
UTAHAKIKISHA KUWA KABRASHA HILI LITAWASILISHWA
LIKIWA LIMEKAMILIKA LOTE.

APPENDIX 7

THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SOCIAL WELFARE OFFICERS

SECTION A: PERSONAL PARTICULARS

1. Your employer (write the name of the ministry/organization/authority) -----
2. The department in which you work -----
3. Section/unit if any -----
4. Level of operation (tick the most appropriate)
 - (a) national (---)
 - (b) zonal (---)
 - (c) regional (---)
 - (d) district (---)
 - (e) institutional (---)
 - (f) other (---) (please elaborate)

5. Give a brief explanation about your duties at your work

6. Your position at work (write the highest rank you currently occupy) -

7. The highest qualifications held (tick the most appropriate)
 - (a) no any training at all (---)
 - (b) on-the-job training (---)
 - (c) grade "a" teachers certificate (---)
 - (d) a certificate in special education (---)
 - (e) a certificate in social work (---)
 - (f) a certificate in adult education (---)
 - (g) diploma in education (---)
 - (h) diploma in special education (---)
 - (i) diploma in social work (---)

- (j) diploma in adult education (---)
- (k) First degree in education (---)
- (l) First degree (general) (---)
- (m) other (---) (please elaborate)

SECTION B: SERVICES

8. What are the educational services for visually impaired and blind people provided by your ministry/department?

9. Does your ministry/department disseminate information about the educational services it provides to visually impaired and blind people?
(Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) yes (---)
- (b) no (---)

10. Who are the regular consumers of the information about educational services for visually impaired and blind people, disseminated by your ministry/department?

11. How does your ministry/department disseminate this information?
(Please list the means used)

12. How regularly is the information about the educational services for visually impaired and blind people circulated by your ministry/department? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) always circulated (---)
- (b) sometimes circulated (---)
- (c) never circulated (---)

13. How are the structures and bodies under your ministry/department involved in these services, integrating their activities? (Please list the means they use)

14. How does your ministry/department integrate the services it provides, with those provided by other ministries and organizations? (Please list the means used)

15. If meetings are one of the means used in achieving that integration, how regularly are they convened? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) monthly (---)
- (b) quarterly (---)
- (c) half yearly (---)
- (d) yearly (---)
- (e) adhoc (---)
- (f) no meetings at all (---)
- (g) other (--) (please elaborate)

SECTION C: EFFECTIVENESS IN THE PROVISIONS

16. What are educational needs of visually impaired and blind people, identified by your ministry/department?

17. To what extent are the educational needs of visually impaired and blind people addressed by available provisions? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) very high extent (---)
- (b) a little above average (---)
- (c) average (---)

(d) a little below average (---)

(e) very low extent (---)

18. What proportion of the visually impaired and blind population needing the services actually receive them?

19. To what extent are educational services provided, reaching visually impaired and blind people? (Please tick the most appropriate)

(a) very high extent (---)

(b) a little above average (---)

(c) average (---)

(d) a little below average (---)

(e) very low extent (---)

20. How do you rate efficiency in the services? (Please tick the most appropriate)

(a) very efficient (---)

(b) moderately efficient (---)

(c) somehow efficient (---)

(d) not efficient at all (---)

21. What are the contributing factors to success in the provisions?

22. What factors affect success in the provisions?

Thank you. We very much appreciate your participation and cooperation. We will appreciate more, if you will ensure that no question is left unanswered. We will be even more grateful, if you will ensure that this completed schedule is handed in.

APPENDIX 8

MADODOSO KWA AJILI YA MAAFISAUSTAWI WA JAMII

SEHEMU A: MAELEZO BINAFSI

1. Mwajiri wako (andika jina la mamlaka iliyokuajiri)

2. Idara unayofanya kazi

3. Sehemu/kitengo kama kipo

4. Ngazi ya utendaji (weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

(a) ngazi ya taifa (---)

(b) ngazi ya kanda (---)

(c) ngazi ya mkoa (---)

(d) ngazi ya wilaya (---)

(e) ngazi ya taasisi (---)

(f) ngazi yninginezo (---) (tafadhali fafaua)

5. Toa maelezo mafupi kuhusu majukumu yako kazini

6. Cheo chako kazini (tafadhali andika cheo chako cha juu kabisa unachokishikilia hivi sasa)

7. Mafunzo ya juu kabisa uliyo nayo (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

(a) hakuna mafunzo kabisa (---)

(b) mafunzo kwa uzoefu kazini (---)

(c) astashahada ya ualimu daraja la "a" (---)

(d) astashahada katika elimu maalum (---)

(e) astashahada katika ustawi wa jamii (---)

- (f) astashahada katika elimu ya watu wazima (---)
 - (ong) stashahada katika elimu (---)
 - (h) stashahada katika elimu maalum (---)
 - (i) stashahada katika ustawi wa jamii (---)
 - (j) stashahada katika elimu ya watu wazima (---)
 - (k) shahada ya kwanza katika elimu (---)
 - (l) shahada ya kwanza (ya jumla) (---)
 - (m) other (---) (tafadhali fafanua)
-
-

SEHEMU B: HUDUMA

8. Ni huduma gani za kielimu zinatolewa na wizara/idara yako kwa wasioona?

9. Je, wizara/idara yako husambaza habari za huduma za kielimu inazozitoa kwa wasioona? (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) ndiyo (---)
- (b) hapana (---)

10. Ni akina nani walengwa wa habari hizo za huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona, zinazotolewa na wizara/idara yako?

11. Je, wizara/idara yako inatumia njia gani katika kusambaza habari za huduma za kielimu inazotoa kwa wasioona?

12. Ni kwa kiasi gani habari za huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona zinazotolewa na wizara/idara yako, hutolewa? (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) hutolewa kila mara (---)
- (b) hutolewa kwa nyakati fulanifulani (---)
- (c) hazitolewi kabisa (---)

13. Je, vyombo chini ya wizara/idara yako vinavyotoa huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona vinaunganishaje nguvu na kazi zao? (Tafadhali orodhesha njia zinazotumika)

14. Je, wizara/idara yako inaunganishaje huduma za kielimu inazozitoa kwa wasioona, na huduma kama hizo zinazotolewa na vyombo vingine? (Tafadhali orodhesha njia zinazotumika)

15. Kama vikao ni moja ya njia zinazotumiwa kuunganisha huduma za kielimu zinazotolewa na wizara/idara yako pamoja na zile zinazotolewa na vyombo vingine, vikao hivyo huitishwa katika muda gani? (Tafadhali weka vema kyenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) kila mwezi (---)
- (b) kila robo mwaka (---)
- (c) kila nusu mwaka (---)
- (d) kila baada ya mwaka (---)
- (e) dharura (---)
- (f) hakuna vikao vyo vyote (---)
- (g) vinginevyo (---) (tafadhali fafanua)

SEHEMU C: UFANISI KATIKA HUDUMA

16. Ni yepi mahitaji ya kielimu ya wasioona yaliyoainishwa na wizara/idara yako?

17. Ni kwa kiasi gani mahitaji ya kielimu ya wasioona yanakidhiwa na huduma zilizopo? (Tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) kiasi cha juu kabisa (---)
- (b) juu kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (c) wastani (---)
- (d) chini kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (e) kiwango cha chini sana (---)

18. Kiasi gani cha wasioona wanaozihitaji huduma za kielimu, haswa kinazipata?

19. Ni kwa kiasi gani huduma za kielimu zinazotolewa zinawafikia wasioona? (Tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) kiasi cha juu kabisa (---)
- (b) juu kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (c) wastani (---)
- (d) chini kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (e) kiasi cha chini sana (---)

20. Unauonaje ufanisi katika huduma zenyewe? (Tafadhali weka vema katika kipengele sahihi)

- (a) mkubwa sana (---)
- (b) wa kiasi cha kati (---)
- (c) wa kiasi fulani (---)
- (d) hakuna ufanisi wo wote (---)

21. Mambo gani yanachangia katika kuleta mafanikio kwenye huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona?

22. Matatizo gani yanazikabili huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona?

ASANTE SANA KWA USHIRIKIANO WAKO NA KUSHIRIKI
KWAKO KATIKA ZOEZI HILI. TUTASHUKURU ZAIDI, ENDAPO
UTAHAKIKISHA KWAMBA HAKUNA SWALI LO LOTE

LILIOACHWA BILA KUJIBIWA. TUTAFURAH! MNO, ENDAPO
UTAHAKIKISHA KUWA KABRASHA HILI LITAWASILISHWA
LIKIWA LIMEKAMILIKA LOTE.

APPENDIX 9

THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

SECTION A: PERSONAL PARTICULARS

1. Your employer (write the name of the ministry/organization/authority) -----
2. The department in which you work -----
3. Section/unit if any -----
4. Level of operation (tick the most appropriate)
 - (a) national (---)
 - (b) zonal (---)
 - (c) regional (---)
 - (d) district (---)
 - (e) institutional (---)
 - (f) other (---) (please elaborate)

5. Give a brief explanation about your duties at your work

6. Your position at work (write the highest rank you currently occupy) -

7. The highest qualifications held (tick the most appropriate)
 - (a) no any training at all (---)
 - (b) on-the-job training (---)
 - (c) grade "a" teachers certificate (---)
 - (d) a certificate in special education (---)
 - (e) a certificate in social work (---)
 - (f) a certificate in adult education (---)
 - (g) diploma in education (---)
 - (h) diploma in special education (---)
 - (i) diploma in social work (---)

- (j) diploma in adult education (---)
- (k) First degree in education (---)
- (l) First degree (general) (---)
- (m) other (---) (please elaborate)

SECTION B: SERVICES

8. What are the educational services for visually impaired and blind people provided by your institution/department?

9. Does your institution/department disseminate information about the educational services it provides to visually impaired and blind people? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) yes (---)
- (b) no (---)

10. Who are the regular consumers of the information about educational services for visually impaired and blind people, disseminated by your institution/department?

11. How does your ministry/department disseminate this information? (Please list the means used)

12. How regularly is the information about the educational services for visually impaired and blind people circulated by your institution/department? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) always circulated (---)
- (b) sometimes circulated (---)
- (c) never circulated (---)

13. How are the structures and bodies under your institution/department involved in these services, integrating their activities? (Please list the means they use)

14. How does your institution/department integrate the services it provides, with those provided by other institutions and organizations? (Please list the means used)

15. If meetings are one of the means used in achieving that integration, how regularly are they convened? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) monthly (---)
- (b) quarterly (---)
- (c) half yearly (---)
- (d) yearly (---)
- (e) adhoc (---)
- (f) no meetings at all (---)
- (g) other (--) (please elaborate)

SECTION C: EFFECTIVENESS IN THE PROVISIONS

16. What are educational needs of visually impaired and blind people, identified by your institution/department?

17. To what extent are the educational needs of visually impaired and blind people addressed by the available provisions? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) very high extent (---)
- (b) a little above average (---)
- (c) average (---)

(d) a little below average (---)

(e) very low extent (---)

18. What proportion of the visually impaired and blind population needing the services actually receive them?

19. To what extent are educational services provided, reaching visually impaired and blind people? (Please tick the most appropriate)

(a) very high extent (---)

(b) a little above average (---)

(c) average (---)

(d) a little below average (---)

(e) very low extent (---)

20. How do you rate efficiency in the services? (Please tick the most appropriate)

(a) very efficient (---)

(b) moderately efficient (---)

(c) somehow efficient (---)

(d) not efficient at all (---)

21. What are the contributing factors to success in the provisions?

22. What factors affect success in the provisions?

Thank you. We very much appreciate your participation and cooperation. We will appreciate more, if you will ensure that no question is left unanswered. We will be even more grateful, if you will ensure that this completed schedule is handed in.

APPENDIX 10

MADODOSO KWA AJILI YA WAALIMU

SEHEMU A: MAELEZO BINAFSI

1. Mwajiri wako (andika jina la mamlaka iliyokuajiri)

2. Idara unayofanya kazi

3. Sehemu/kitengo kama kipo

4. Ngazi ya utendaji (weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

(a) ngazi ya taifa (---)

(b) ngazi ya kanda (---)

(c) ngazi ya mkoa (---)

(d) ngazi ya wilaya (---)

(e) ngazi ya taasisi (---)

(f) ngazi yninginezo (---) (tafadhali fafanua)

5. Toa maelezo mafupi kuhusu majukumu yako kazini

6. Cheo chako kazini (tafadhali andika cheo chako cha juu kabisa unachokishikilia hivi sasa)

7. Mafunzo ya juu kabisa uliyo nayo (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

(a) hakuna mafunzo kabisa (---)

(b) mafunzo kwa uzoefu kazini (---)

(c) astashahada ya ualimu daraja la "a" (---)

(d) astashahada katika elimu maalum (---)

(e) astashahada katika ustawi wa jamii (---)

- (f) astashahada katika elimu ya watu wazima (---)
- (g) stashahada katika elimu (---)
- (h) stashahada katika elimu maalum (---)
- (i) stashahada katika ustawi wa jamii (---)
- (j) stashahada katika elimu ya watu wazima (---)
- (k) shahada ya kwanza katika elimu (---)
- (l) shahada ya kwanza (ya jumla) (---)
- (m) mafunzo mengineyo (---) (tafadhali fafania)

SEHEMU B: HUDUMA

8. Ni huduma gani za kielimu zinatolewa na taasisi/idara yako kwa wasioona?

9. Je, taasisi/idara yako husambaza habari za huduma za kielimu inazozitoa kwa wasioona? (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) ndiyo (---)
- (b) hapana (---)

10. Ni akina nani walengwa wa habari hizo za huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona, zinazotolewa na taasisi/idara yako?

11. Je, taasisi/idara yako inatumia njia gani katika kusambaza habari za huduma za kielimu inazotoa kwa wasioona?

12. Ni kwa kiasi gani habari za huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona zinazotolewa na taasisi/idara yako, hutolewa? (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) hutolewa kila mara (---)
- (b) hutolewa kwa nyakati fulanifulani (---)
- (c) hazitolewi kabisa (---)

13. Je, vyombo chini ya taasisi/idara yako vinavyotoa huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona vinaunganishaje nguvu na kazi zao? (Tafadhali orodhesha njia zinazotumika)

14. Je, taasisi/idara yako inaunganishaje huduma za kielimu inazozitoa kwa wasioona, na huduma kama hizo zinazotolewa na vyombo vingine? (Tafadhali orodhesha njia zinazotumika)

15. Kama vikao ni moja ya njia zinazotumiwa kuunganisha huduma za kielimu zinazotolewa na taasisi/idara yako pamoja na zile zinazotolewa na vyombo vingine, vikao hivyo huitishwa katika muda gani? (Tafadhali weka vema kyenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) kila mwezi (---)
 - (b) kila robo mwaka (---)
 - (c) kila nusu mwaka (---)
 - (d) kila baada ya mwaka (---)
 - (e) dharura (---)
 - (f) hakuna vikao vyo vyote (---)
 - (g) vinginevyo (---) (tafadhali fafaua)
-

SEHEMU C: UFANISI KATIKA HUDUMA

16. Ni yepi mahitaji ya kielimu ya wasioona yaliyoainishwa na taasisi/idara yako?

17. Ni kwa kiasi gani mahitaji ya kielimu ya wasioona yanakidhiwa na huduma zilizopo? (Tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) kiasi cha juu kabisa (---)
- (b) juu kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (c) wastani (---)
- (d) chini kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (e) kiwango cha chini sana (---)

18. Kiasi gani cha wasioona wanaozihitaji huduma za kielimu, haswa kinazipata?

19. Ni kwa kiasi gani huduma za kielimu zinazotolewa zinawafikia wasioona? (Tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) kiasi cha juu kabisa (---)
- (b) juu kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (c) wastani (---)
- (d) chini kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (e) kiasi cha chini sana (---)

20. Unauonaje ufanisi katika huduma zenyewe? (Tafadhali weka vema katika kipengele sahihi)

- (a) mkubwa sana (---)
- (b) wa kiasi cha kati (---)
- (c) wa kiasi fulani (---)
- (d) hakuna ufanisi wo wote (---)

21. Mambo gani yanachangia katika kuleta mafanikio kwenye huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona?

22. Matatizo gani yanazikabili huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona?

ASANTE SANA KWA USHIRIKIANO WAKO NA KUSHIRIKI
KWAKO KATIKA ZOEZI HILI. TUTASHUKURU ZAIDI, ENDAPO
UTAHAKIKISHA KWAMBA HAKUNA SWALI LO LOTE
LILIOACHWA BILA KUJIBIWA. TUTAFURAHU MNO, ENDAPO

UTAHAKIKISHA KUWA KABRASHA HILI LITAWASILISHWA
LIKIWA LIMEKAMILIKA LOTE.

APPENDIX 11

THE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR VISUALLY IMPAIRED AND BLIND PEOPLE

SECTION A: PERSONAL PARTICULARS

1. Your employer (write the name of the
ministry/organization/authority) -----

2. The department in which you work -----

3. Section/unit if any -----

4. Level of operation (tick the most appropriate)

(a) national (---)

(b) zonal (---)

(c) regional (---)

(d) district (---)

(e) institutional (---)

(f) other (---) (please elaborate)

5. Give a brief explanation about your duties at your work

6. Your position at work (write the highest rank you currently occupy) -

7. The highest qualifications held (tick the most appropriate)

(a) no any training at all (---)

(b) on-the-job training (---)

(c) grade "a" teachers certificate (---)

(d) a certificate in special education (---)

(e) a certificate in social work (---)

(f) a certificate in adult education (---)

(g) diploma in education (---)

(h) diploma in special education (---)

- (i).diploma in social work (---)
- (j) diploma in adult education (---)
- (k) First degree in education (---)
- (l) First degree (general) (---)
- (m) other (---) (please elaborate)

SECTION B: SERVICES

8. What are the educational services for visually impaired and blind people provided?

9. Do organizations disseminate information about the educational services they provide to visually impaired and blind people? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) yes (---)
- (b) no (---)

10. Who are the regular consumers of the information about educational services for visually impaired and blind people, disseminated by these organizations?

11. How do they disseminate this information? (Please list the means used)

12. How regularly is the information about the educational services for visually impaired and blind people circulated by the organizations involved? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) always circulated (---)
- (b) sometimes circulated (---)

(c) never circulated (---)

13. How are the various structures and bodies involved in these services integrating their activities? (Please list the means they use)

14. How do organizations integrate the services they provide, with those provided by other organizations? (Please list the means used)

15. If meetings are one of the means used in achieving that integration, how regularly are they convened? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) monthly (---)
- (b) quarterly (---)
- (c) half yearly (---)
- (d) yearly (---)
- (e) adhoc (---)
- (f) no meetings at all (---)
- (g) other (--) (please elaborate)

SECTION C: EFFECTIVENESS IN THE PROVISIONS

16. What are educational needs of visually impaired and blind people, identified by providing organizations?

17. To what extent are the educational needs of visually impaired and blind people addressed by the available provisions? (Please tick the most appropriate)

- (a) very high extent (---)
- (b) a little above average (---)
- (c) average (---)
- (d) a little below average (---)

(e) very low extent (---)

18. What proportion of the visually impaired and blind population needing the services actually receive them?

19. To what extent are educational services provided, reaching visually impaired and blind people? (Please tick the most appropriate)

(a) very high extent (---)

(b) a little above average (---)

(c) average (---)

(d) a little below average (---)

(e) very low extent (---)

20. How do you rate efficiency in the services? (Please tick the most appropriate)

(a) very efficient (---)

(b) moderately efficient (---)

(c) somehow efficient (---)

(d) not efficient at all (---)

21. What are the contributing factors to success in the provisions?

22. What factors affect success in the provisions?

Thank you. We very much appreciate your participation and cooperation. We will appreciate more, if you will ensure that no question is left unanswered. We will be even more grateful, if you will ensure that this completed schedule is handed in.

APPENDIX 12
MADODOSO KWA AJILI YA WASIOONA

SEHEMU A: MAELEZO BINAFSI

1. Mwajiri wako (andika jina la mamlaka iliyokuajiri)

2. Idara unayofanya kazi

3. Sehemu/kitengo kama kipo

4. Ngazi ya utendaji (weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

(a) ngazi ya taifa (---)

(b) ngazi ya kanda (---)

(c) ngazi ya mkoa (---)

(d) ngazi ya wilaya (---)

(e) ngazi ya taasisi (---)

(f) ngazi yininginezo (---) (tafadhali fafanua)

5. Toa maelezo mafupi kuhusu majukumu yako kazini

6. Cheo chako kazini (tafadhali andika cheo chako cha juu kabisa unachokishikilia hivi sasa)

7. Mafunzo ya juu kabisa uliyo nayo (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

(a) hakuna mafunzo kabisa (---)

(b) mafunzo kwa uzoefu kazini (---)

(c) astashahada ya ualimu daraja la "a" (---)

(d) astashahada katika elimu maalum (---)

(e) astashahada katika ustawi wa jamii (---)

(f) astashahada katika elimu ya watu wazima (---)

- (g) stashahada katika elimu (---)
- (h) stashahada katika elimu maalum (---)
- (i) stashahada katika ustawi wa jamii (---)
- (j) stashahada katika elimu ya watu wazima (---)
- (k) shahada ya kwanza katika elimu (---)
- (l) shahada ya kwanza (ya jumla) (---)
- (m) mafunzo mengineyo (---) (tafadhali fafanua)

SEHEMU B: HUDUMA

8. Ni huduma gani za kielimu zinatolewa kwa wasioona?

9. Je, vyombo vinavyohusika, husambaza habari za huduma za kielimu vinazozitoa kwa wasioona? (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) ndiyo (---)
- (b) hapana (---)

10. Ni akina nani walengwa wa habari hizo za huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona, zinazotolewa na vyombo hivyo?

11. Je, vyombo hivyo vinatumia njia gani katika kusambaza habari za huduma za kielimu inazotoa kwa wasioona?

12. Ni kwa kiasi gani habari za huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona zinazotolewa na vyombo hivyo vya huduma, hutolewa? (tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) hutolewa kila mara (---)
- (b) hutolewa kwa nyakati fulanifulani (---)

(c) hazitolewi kabisa (---)

13. Je, vyombo mbalimbali vinavyotoa huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona vinaunganishaje nguvu na kazi zao? (Tafadhali orodhesha njia zinazotumika)

14. Je, vyombo vya huduma vinaunganishaje huduma za kielimu vinazozitoa kwa wasioona, na huduma kama hizo zinazotolewa na vyombo vingine? (Tafadhali orodhesha njia zinazotumika)

15. Kama vikao ni moja ya njia zinazotumiwa kuunganisha huduma za kielimu zinazotolewa na vyombo mbalimbali, vikao hivyo huitishwa katika muda gani? (Tafadhali weka vema kyenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) kila mwezi (---)
- (b) kila robo mwaka (---)
- (c) kila nusu mwaka (---)
- (d) kila baada ya mwaka (---)
- (e) dharura (---)
- (f) hakuna vikao vyo vyote (---)
- (g) vinginevyo (---) (tafadhali fafaua)

SEHEMU C: UFANISI KATIKA HUDUMA

16. Ni yepi mahitaji ya kielimu ya wasioona yaliyoainishwa na vyombo vinavyotoa huduma?

17. Ni kwa kiasi gani mahitaji ya kielimu ya wasioona yanakidhiwa na huduma zilizopo? (Tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) kiasi cha juu kabisa (---)
- (b) juu kidogo ya wastani (---)

- (c) wastani (---)
- (d) chini kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (e) kiwango cha chini sana (---)

18. Kiasi gani cha wasioona wanaozihitaji huduma za kielimu, haswa kinazipata?

19. Ni kwa kiasi gani huduma za kielimu zinazotolewa zinawafikia wasioona? (Tafadhali weka vema kwenye kipengele sahihi)

- (a) kiasi cha juu kabisa (---)
- (b) juu kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (c) wastani (---)
- (d) chini kidogo ya wastani (---)
- (e) kiasi cha chini sana (---)

20. Unauonaje ufanisi katika huduma zenyewe? (Tafadhali weka vema katika kipengele sahihi)

- (a) mkubwa sana (---)
- (b) wa kiasi cha kati (---)
- (c) wa kiasi fulani (---)
- (d) hakuna ufanisi wo wote (---)

21. Mambo gani yanachangia katika kuleta mafanikio kwenye huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona?

22. Matatizo gani yanazikabili huduma za kielimu kwa wasioona?

ASANTE SANA KWA USHIRIKIANO WAKO NA KUSHIRIKI
KWAKO KATIKA ZOEZI HILI. TUTASHUKURU ZAIDI, ENDAPO
UTAHAKIKISHA KWAMBA HAKUNA SWALI
LO LOTE LILIOACHWA BILA KUJIBIWA. TUTAFURAHU MNO,
ENDAPO UTAHAKIKISHA KUWA KABRASHA HILI
LITAWASILISHWA LIKIWA LIMEKAMILIKA LOTE.

APPENDIX 13

THE TOPICS WHICH GUIDED INTERVIEWS

1. Administrative structure;
2. Nature and type of provisions;
3. Guidelines and codes of practice in the services;
4. Mechanisms of integrating activities in the services;
5. Effectiveness in the provisions;
6. Positive factors for the provisions;
7. Negative factors for the services; and
8. Possible solution to the problems.

The Kiswahili version of these topics was as follows:

1. 1. Muundo wa utawala katika huduma zenyewe;
2. Aina na muundo wa huduma zinazotolewa;
3. Miongozo na kanuni za utendaji katika huduma zenyewe;
4. Vyombo vinavyounganisha huduma mbalimbali zinazotolewa;
5. Ufanisi katika huduma zenyewe;
6. Mambo yanayochangia mafanikio;
7. Matatizo; na
8. Ufumbuzi wa hali iliyopo.

APPENDIX 14
RESEARCH CLEARANCE LETTER FROM THE
UNIVERSITY OF
MANCHESTER

School of Education

Centre for Educational Needs
Incorporating Special Needs Education, Counselling, and Educational Psychology

The University of Manchester, Oxford Road, Manchester M13 9PL
Telephone 0161 275 3541 Fax 0161 275 3548



Head of Centre: Dr Glynis Cross-Harwood, email: Glynis.Cross-Harwood@man.ac.uk

JK

7 December 1995

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Request for Permission to Conduct Research in Tanzania:
Mr Edward T.T. Bagandanshwa

This is to certify that Mr Edward Bagandanshwa is a bona fide PhD student at the University of Manchester in the School of Education. He is conducting research on the "Coordination of Educational Services for Visually Impaired and Blind Children and Adults in Tanzania". We hope that his study will assist in the consolidation and further development of education of persons with special needs.

We would, therefore, be very grateful if you could grant him permission to carry out his study and provide him with any assistance he may require in the course of his work.

We thank you in anticipation.

Yours sincerely,

Joseph Kisanji
Lecturer in Special Education (International)

cc. Professor Mel Ainscow, Head of Centre

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