CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

The major purpose of reviewing the literature is to determine what has already been done that relates to the topic of study. Previous studies can provide the rationale for the research hypothesis and indications of what needs to be done can help one justify the significance of the study. Review of related literature provides evidence that the researcher is familiar with what is already known and what is still unknown and untested. This chapter is divided into two sections. Section I deals with conceptual review only while section II is concerned with research review of studies done on decision making in schools.

Section I: Conceptual Review.

For this study, the conceptual review was done under the following topical areas:

- Definition of decision-making.
- Characteristics of decision-making.
- Types of decision-making.
- Decision making Process.
- Group decision making.
- The role of the head teacher (principal) in decision-making.
- Students’ Involvement in decision-making.
- Teachers’ involvement in decision-making.
• Management task areas.
• Styles of decision-making.
• Training in decision-making.
• Summary of the reviewed literature.

2.2 Definition of Decision Making

Decision-making can be defined as “a process of selection from a set of alternative courses of action which is thought to fulfill the objectives of the decision problem more satisfactory than others”\(^2\). It could actually be defined as the selection of a course of action from among alternatives. It could further be argued that decision making is a matter of planning organizational objectives and the steps that will be used to achieve them. Therefore in this case decision making could be treated as a matter of choice of picking the most suitable from a set of alternatives.

Other sources view decision making as the process of generating and applying criteria to select from, among seemingly equal alternatives.\(^3\) Thus from the definition, decision making is purposeful and is meant to select from among a set of alternatives in light of a given objective. It is not a separate function of management but is intertwined with other functions such as planning, coordinating and controlling.

A different view is that decision making is the study of identifying and choosing alternatives based on the values and preferences of the decision maker.\(^4\) It thus means that there are many alternative choices to be considered but to choose the one that has
the highest probability of success or effectiveness and that best fits with the goals, desires, lifestyles and values of the organization. Each of the alternatives must be studied in detail, and the pros and cons for each identified before the most suitable is selected. The decision makers must have a clear understanding of the alternative courses by which a goal can be reached under existing circumstances and limitations. Decision making is the means to make the choice from a given set of alternatives. Every decision has an inherent conflict present in it, which may make it difficult to go for the right choice. Therefore from the above definitions, it implies that while making a decision, it is important to weigh the choices that one has and the possible consequences before one comes up with the final choice. Decision making is at the core of planning and a plan cannot be said to exist unless a decision, commitment of resources, and direction or reputation has been made. In a school situation, all the stakeholders must weigh the choices available before they make the most appropriate and suitable decision.

2.3 Characteristics of Decision Making

Singh and Chhabra identify the characteristics of decision making as follows:

a) It is a process of choosing a course of action from the alternatives courses of action.

b) It is human process involving to a great extent the application of intellectual abilities.

c) It is the end process preceded by deliberations and reasoning.
d) It is always related to the environment. Decisions may be made in a particular set of circumstances and another in a different set of circumstances.

e) It involves a time dimension and a time lag.

f) It always has a purpose. Keeping this in view, there may just be a decision not to decide.

g) Involves all actions like defining the problem, probing and analyzing the various alternatives which take place before a final choice is made.

From the above characteristics it is clear that excellent decisions require superior intellectual abilities, comes after reasoning and deliberations, is affected by environment and time and the process is cyclic. A very sound and effective decision must possess the characteristics mentioned above.

2.4 Types of Decision Making

Simon et al\(^8\) identified five main types of decision making. These are:

a) Structured decision making. This is based on direct or tangible factors. In this there are straightforward facts and figures to reach a conclusion.

b) Non-structured decisions. Based on indirect or intangible factors. One may have many solutions of the problem but there is no direct way to reach the best solution. There is always the factor of a risk in this.
c) Hybrid decision. They are made on the basis of tangible as well as intangible factors. These decisions are partly structured and partly non-structured.

d) Recurring decisions. They are frequently or repetitively made.

e) Non-recurring decisions. They are rarely made in life of a human being or company.

Bose\(^9\) classifies decision making into seven types as follows:

a) Irreversible Decisions. They are permanent, once taken cannot be undone. The effects of these decisions can be felt for a long time after they are made. Such decisions are only taken when there are no other options.

b) Reversible decisions. Such decisions are not final and binding. In fact they can be changed entirely at any point of time. This allows one to acknowledge the mistakes and fresh decisions can be taken depending upon the new circumstances.

c) Delayed decisions. Are put on hold until the decision maker thinks that the right time has come. The wait might make one miss the right opportunity that can cause some loss, especially in the case of businesses. However such decisions give one enough time to collect all information required and to organize all the factors in the correct way.
d) Quick decisions. These decisions enable one to make maximum of the opportunity available at hand. However, only a good decision maker can take decisions that are instantaneous as well as correct.

e) Experimental. In this kind of decisions, the final decision cannot be taken until the preliminary results appear and are positive. This approach is used when one is sure of the final destination but not sure of the course to take.

f) Trial and Error. This approach involves trying a certain course of action. If the result is positive it is followed further, if not, then a fresh course is adopted. Such is repeated until the decision maker finally arrives at a course of action that convinces him of success.

g) Conditional. This allows an individual to keep all his options open. He sticks to one condition as long as the circumstances remain the same. Once the competitor makes a new move, conditional decisions allow a person to take up a different course of action.

According to Singh and Chhabra, decisions making may be classified into the following categories:

a) Routine and strategic decisions

Routine decisions are made repetitively following certain established rules, procedures and policies while strategic decisions are generally taken by the top or management in an organization. These decisions relate to policy matters and require a thorough fact finding.
b) Policy and operating decisions

Policy decisions are taken by top management and affect the entire organization while operating decisions are taken by lower management in order to put into action the policy decision.

c) Organizational and personal decisions

Organizational decision are made by the manager in his official capacity and such can be delegated while personal decisions relate to the manager as an individual and not as a member of the organization. Such personal decisions cannot be delegated.

d) Programmed and non-programmed decisions.

Programmed decisions are of routine and repetitive nature which is to be dealt with according to specific procedures. Non-programmed decisions arise because of unstructured problems and there is no standard procedure for handling such.

e) Individual and group decisions.

When a decision is taken by an individual in an organization, it is known as individual decisions. These decisions are normally taken in small organizations and especially where autocratic style of management prevails. Groups or collective decisions refers to the decisions which are taken by a group of organizational members, for instance in a school set up, such decisions can be made by such groups as parents, teachers, students and boards of governors.

Others propose eight types of decision making. These are:
1) Irreversible. In this, once decisions are made cannot be unmade. It commits one irrevocably when there is no other satisfactory option to the chosen course. A manager should never use it as an all or nothing instant escape from general indecision.

2) Reversible. These are decisions that can be changed completely, before, during or after the agreed action begins. This allows one to acknowledge a mistake early in the process rather than perpetuate it. This can be effectively used for changing circumstances where reversal is necessary.

3) Experimental. These kinds of decisions are not final until the first results appear and prove themselves to be satisfactory. This requires a positive feedback before one can decide on a course of action. This is useful and effective when correct move is unclear but there is a clarity regarding general direction of action.

4) Trial and error. In this knowledge is derived out of past mistakes. A certain course of action is selected and is tried out, if the results are positive the action is carried further, if the results appear negative, another course is adopted.

5) Made in stages. The decisions are made in steps until the whole action is completed. This allows for close monitoring of risks as one accumulates the evidence of outcomes and obstacles at every stage. This permits feedback and further discussion before the next stage of decision is made.

6) Cautious. This allows time for contingencies and problems that may crop up later at the time of implementation. The decision makers put their best of
efforts to adopt the right course. This helps to limit the risks that are inherent to decision making.

7) Conditional. Such type of decisions can be altered if certain foreseen circumstances arise. It is a kind of decision with all options kept open.

8) Delayed. Such decisions are put on hold until the decision makers feel that the time is right. A go ahead is given only when the required elements are in place.

Several types of decision making styles are applicable in secondary schools, and the most suitable is determined by factors such as time available, nature of event, urgency, type and number of decision makers. Usually in many cases and especially in modern school management approaches which is democratic and participatory, decision making takes a longer time since it involves many people. This study did not identify any specific type of decision making in secondary schools since most of the styles are applicable depending on the situation.

2.5 Decision Making Process

The decision making process are the methods that are followed in order to arrive at the most suitable and appropriate alternative. In the school set up, various decision makers may follow various steps or procedures in order to make decisions or even solve problems. The measure of success of a given organization may be directly related to its ability to arrive at sound and effective decisions. This is particularly important in an education system, which has limited funds and is concerned with the welfare of the staff and students.
It has been observed that “the success of the management process is dependent on the quality of decisions that influence its direction. The decisions are not only crucial but they are also the means by which the goals of the organization are reached”\(^\text{12}\). The decision making process in any organization therefore ought to be given a serious consideration and the implications of decisions taken should be made note of always.

An explicit set of procedures for decision making is needed to replace the heuristic, trial and error and accidental success methods by which decisions are sometimes made and changes introduced in educational institutions. Decision making process has also been described as “the process of selecting the most promising of alternatives or choices in order to prepare the way for effective action”\(^\text{13}\). This action cannot be taken without due consideration of organization climate. Decision making process can follow a systematic approach as suggested by Griffith\(^\text{14}\):

1) Defining the problem.

2) Identifying the alternatives relevant to the problem.

3) Predicting the consequences related to each alternative.

4) Exercising a choice from among the alternatives.

5) Evaluating outcomes and taking corrective action if necessary.

The systematic decision making which follows these steps is the rational model because the decision maker deliberates and acts in terms of a careful diagnosis of the situation and through consideration of the means used to achieve a given end. It is a
very useful model for principals, teachers, students and other stakeholders in the school. Through the rational model, the principal can assess the part played by others such as teachers, students, subordinates and even parents in decision making. This is very important since the overall responsibility of the principal is to provide leadership and coordination which encourages the staff, the students and the community to work towards the best school programme that they can together conceive. Managerial decisions are concerned with forecasting, planning and organizing and that implementation involves commanding, coordinating and controlling. However, there are various points of view concerning the decision making process.

Feyereisen and Fiorino summarized some of the views of decision making as:-

1) A product or particular choice.
2) The process leading to the actual choice.
3) The process leading up to and including the actual choice.
4) All the processed through and beyond choice to its implementation.

There are different concepts of the decision making sequences, which range from three to ten steps. It has been pointed out that the most general series of steps in the decision making process comprises of three principal phases. These are:

1) Finding occasions for making a decision.
2) Finding possible courses of action and
3) Choosing among courses of action.

Young on the other hand, conceptualizes the decision making process as comprising of ten steps:-
1. Definition of organizational goals and objectives.
2. Raising the problem of how the goals and objectives can be achieved.
3. Investigating the nature of the problem.
4. Searching for alternative solutions.
5. Evaluating the suitability of the various solutions and choosing the most appropriate.
6. Achieving organizational consensus for the selected alternatives.
8. Instructing non decision makers in the use of the decision.
9. Implementing the solutions.
10. Evaluating the effectiveness of the decision.

Satterwhite\textsuperscript{19} says that decision making follows six steps as follows:

1. Identify the problem or opportunity.
2. Gather relevant information.
3. Develop as many alternatives as possible.
4. Evaluate alternatives to decide which is best.
5. Decide on and implement the best alternative.
6. Follow up on decision.

Singh and Chhabra\textsuperscript{20} also identify eight steps of the decision making process as follows:

1. Diagnosing and define the problem
2. Analyzing the problem
3. Collection of data.
4. Developing alternative courses of action.

5. Review of key factors. Identify all the limiting factors and confine the search to overcoming the limiting factors.

6. Selecting the best alternative. This is choosing a solution that is the best at the time. This is done on the criteria of risk, economy of effort, situation or timing and limitation of resources.

7. Putting the decision into practice. The systematic step of implementing the decision.

8. Follow up. This is after putting the decision into practice

Chapman\textsuperscript{21} proposes a six step by step process as follows:

1. Define and clarify the issue.

2. Gather all facts and understand their causes.

3. Think about or brainstorm possible options and solutions.

4. Consider and compare the pros and cons of each option. If necessary, one should consult.

5. Select the best option. One should try to avoid vagueness.

6. Explain your decision to those involved and affected and follow up to ensure proper and effective implementation.

Koontz and Weihrich\textsuperscript{22} identify the process of decision making to include the following steps:

i) Premising

ii) Identifying alternatives

iii) Evaluating alternatives in terms of the goal sought.
iv) Choosing an alternative, that is making a decision.

UNCHS²³ argues that decision making process can be summarized as ‘three plus one activities’:

i) Assessment and information activities: the situation is assessed continually and relevant information gathered on an on-going basis.

ii) Strategy and action planning: strategies and action plans are drawn up jointly and agreed upon by all stakeholders.

iii) Implementation: strategies and action plans are implemented.

iv) Institutionalization: throughout the process, participatory capacities are built and arrangements for a sustainable decision making process institutionalized.

This can be summarized in a cycle as shown in figure 2.1 below:

![Decision Making Cycle](image-url)

**FIGURE 2.1 Decision Making Cycle**
Each of the three concepts of decision making presented above is viable depending on the organization, its context and decision makers. However, whichever concept is adopted, educational managers cannot afford to make the wrong or poor decisions because these lead to permanent damages and loss to the society.

Business and industry can afford to make occasional poor decisions, but poor decisions in education may deprive the society of the benefits an individual might have contributed if he had been allowed to develop his talents fully. Therefore, poor decisions in educational institutions may produce social or psychological misfits who become social liabilities.

For the sake of this study, the following are the steps of decision making process that are assumed to be the most appropriate for a secondary school situation, especially in a participatory system. These are:

i) Identify the need for a decision

ii) Inform the stakeholders on the need for a decision and where possible give a timeframe for making decisions.

iii) Get feedback from the stakeholders on alternative decisions.

iv) Choose the most appropriate alternative.

v) Implement the decision made.

vi) Evaluate the decision.

This was presented as shown in figure 2.2 below.
FIGURE 2.2 Secondary School Decision Making Cycle

From figure 2.2 above, it is clearly shown that in a secondary school situation, the principal is the coordinator of decision making process. For effective decision making, the communication between the coordinator and all the stakeholders at all the stages is two way. However the link between the stages of decision making is cyclic and one way.

2.6 Group Decision-Making.

It should be noted that individual decision making is faster, but often fails to collect enough information for a broad perspective on a problem. On the other hand, group decision making process takes longer, but often results in better decisions,
especially if everybody in the group has input into the decision. However, not all group decisions enable all group members to have input, and group members can be selected so that together they still provide a narrow or individualized perspective on the problem. Group decision making can be effective or ineffective depending on the approach applied. Effective decision making groups have the following characteristics:

i) **Averaging opinions**: Members’ decisions are asked separately and averaged. In this, there is no group interaction; hence the exercise can be broadened to include an entire unit or organization.

ii) **Authority after discussions**: The decision maker in this case listens to the group members before making the decision.

iii) **Minority**: Incase the whole group forms a sub-committee to investigate an issue or a problem and report back to the whole group, the decision is then discussed and voted for by the whole group.

iv) **Majority Vote**: This group does as the majority wants. Most people like this type of group decision making because everyone at least gets a vote in the final decision. So if the decision a person supports looses, at least the person feels included, and most people consider majority vote decision making as fair as it gets.

v) **Consensus**: This means that the group reaches a decision that everyone supports. It’s extremely time consuming to get consensus, but good decisions usually result when consensus occurs.
Ineffective decision making groups fail to use groups properly. Sometimes the decisions are made by only one person, disguised as a group. This helps that decision maker avoid responsibility for the decision if it produces negative results. Members in ineffective decision making groups often feel used and don’t bring their best to a process that they judge as futile. The characteristics of ineffective decision making groups are as follow:

i) **Authority**: One person makes the decision for the group without even discussing the decision with group members. This type of decision making is fast but doesn’t involve group members. The group is just meant to impress the public but not to make decisions as such.

ii) **Default**: For this type, the group is given the opportunity to make the decision, but inactivity results in either someone else making the decision or the problem going away. The inactivity may result from the failure of members not wanting to take responsibility for the decision or the group members believing that their input will be ignored.

iii) **Self-Authorized**: One or more members assume authority to make a decision. Then they attempt to push that decision through the group. But often other group members won’t support a self-authorized decision.

iv) **Expert**: A person from within the group is selected to make the decision. How that person is selected can create internal disagreements. This is not group decision making, but passing the buck to one member of the group.
California State University\textsuperscript{27} identified the types of group decisions as follows:

i) Unilateral - a decision made by one person, often the nominal leader, without consultation with other group members. At times, it can be appropriate. For example, a minor decision that needs to be made right away. If it is repeated and inappropriate, this type of decision can carry a very low group commitment.

ii) Handclasp - decisions made by two members. One suggests, the other endorses and carries it through without adequate discussion or group consideration. This type has high commitment for the two who made it, but generally not for the others.

iii) Clique - similar to the Handclasp, but with more people involved. This type usually occurs when a close sub-group decides what is good for the rest of the group. Repeated clique decisions cause splintering of the group and low commitment.

iv) Baiting - a technique that reduces discussions around decisions. This usually suppresses obvious dissention and lowers group commitment.

v) Majority Rule - a popular way of making decisions. However, if the outcome of a secret ballot vote would produce any surprises; it is not a good time to make majority rule decisions. A sizeable segment of the group may feel devalued and decrease their commitment to the decisions in which they lose to the majority vote.

vi) Consensus - similar to majority rule, but everyone knows that what they think and value is being considered by all, and there will be no surprises if you vote.
Everyone will agree that, under the circumstances, the decision made is a fair and workable one that they can live with and support.

In a secondary school, stakeholders should be supported so that they can gather the information needed to make a good decision. The groups of stakeholders should be formed and operationalized in a way that they are able to make effective decisions. Members within the various stakeholder groups should assist to gather support from others for implementing the decisions. Stakeholders should be held accountable for their decisions and rewarded when their group decision making process reaps rewards. For any effective decision making, stakeholders must have the information and ability to analyze and evaluate alternatives in light of the goal set.

Different groups differ in the way they make decisions and solve problems. Group decision making process can be classified into four categories: interacting, nominal, Delphi and creative.28

i) Interactive group process: this is the method used in group decision making where information and ideas are obtained from interacting group members in order to make decisions.

ii) Nominal group process: a technique for soliciting ideas from non-interacting group members. The assumption is that non-interacting group members may have valuable ideas relevant to the problem they do not express.

iii) Delphi technique: this is the method of soliciting for opinions from experts without the members being involved in a group discussion.
iv) Creative decision making process: takes place when a group is used to stimulate the creativity of individual members. It involves a non-structured interacting group technique and non-evaluation techniques are stressed to encourage the participants to express their ideas freely.

Group decision making can be classified into four categories: standard agenda, brainstorming, nominal group technique and the final decision.\textsuperscript{29}

i) Standard Agenda. In this, groups use reflective thinking to make their decisions using a six step guide. These steps are; problem identification, problem analysis, criteria selection, solution generation, solution evaluation and selection, and solution implementation.

ii) Brainstorming. In this, members are encouraged to generate as many ideas about a particular topic as possible. Group members are in this case encouraged to say anything that comes to mind when brainstorming. Every idea is written down and judgments about ideas are saved until later, when the group returns to all of the ideas and selects those that are most useful.

iii) Nominal Group Technique. Used when the group must rank order a set of options. In this case, group members work individually to list all alternatives to a problem or issue. Sometimes, this session is used after brainstorming session is held. The facilitator then asks each group member to individually rank all the options from the lowest to the highest priority. Finally the facilitator computes an average score for each idea. The lowest score is the highest priority for the group.
iv) The Final Decision. There are many ways that a group can make a final decision, decide on a solution or come to an agreement. Some of the most popular ways of making decisions include: Consensus, compromise, majority vote, decision by leader and arbitration.

Therefore group decision making can be categorized into four as indicated by the two authors. Thus the different groups in secondary schools of students, teachers, parents, school governors could apply the above procedures to come up with lasting and binding decisions. The most common types of group decision making processes in Kenyan secondary schools are: interactive processes, nominal group ideas, creative decision making process, brainstorming and the final decision.

2.7 The Role of the Principal in Decision Making.

When authoritarian leadership by the principal becomes well pronounced, the teachers and students tend to isolate themselves from the administration of the school. The principal may surround himself with more and more authority but this only contributes to frustrating the teachers and the students more and more. In this case, the teaching-learning objectives of the school are jeopardized and educational achievements become minimal. The effective head teacher knows how to cooperate with the teachers and students and coordinate the efforts of everyone to bring about a proper school atmosphere conducive to learning.

The major task of the principal in a secondary school is to facilitate development of the organization. This task has been emphasized through the argument that
“managers are required to make decisions by virtue of their positions, but how they make those decisions is a matter of choice”.\textsuperscript{31} When the principal chooses to make all decisions by himself and excludes his subordinates and students completely from the process of decision-making, crisis might result, disrupting the smooth running of the organization. The traditional approach to school management are autocratic and bureaucratic in nature hence any changes in educational management are a challenge to principals who might be leaning towards the traditional approaches.\textsuperscript{32} Some leadership theorists do argue that leadership style is a relatively fixed construct for an individual and while that some individuals may have the capacity to lead using more than one style, leadership flexibility is not characteristic of all head teachers.\textsuperscript{33}

Principals require not only a new set of skills but also need to adopt new ‘mind sets’ or ‘ways of being’ that include coping with ambiguity, empowering others, and maintaining change momentum within an enhanced accountability context”.\textsuperscript{34} Running a school well is not like running a company, a business, a farmers' co-operative or a political office. It is a lot more complicated since one has to keep in mind that he/she is dealing with teenage youngsters who are in a very emotionally delicate stage of their development. If they are mishandled, then their life is messed up for life.

In most cases, wherever there is a crisis in any particular institution, administrators have been blamed on failure to encourage all members of the institution to fully participate in the policy formulation, goal setting and decision making for them at work and the institution as a whole. Thus in order to effectively manage a
school, the head teacher is central in setting the tone of the school. He/she should employ a management style which ensures effective teaching and learning by teachers and students respectively. One of the highly recommended management styles is the participatory management. This is a style where the subordinates have a stake in decision making; there is a good communication delegation of authority and responsibility.

The normative model for group decision making developed by Vroom and Yetton shows how leaders should approach group related decisions. According to the model, there is no leadership style which is appropriate for all situations therefore it’s imperative that leaders develop a series of responses which range from autocratic to consultative style and thus apply the leadership style which is most favourable to the decision situation. The Normative model uses decision effectiveness to evaluate the effectiveness of an administrator. This is done on the basis of three factors namely:

**Decision quality**: how important the decisions are for facilitating group performance.

**Decision acceptance**: how group members accept and implement decisions.

**Timeliness**: all decisions must be made in a timely fashion depending on whether they are urgent or not.

The model suggests that administrators should have the skills to apply five decision making styles in a continuum from highly autocratic to highly participative. The first decision making style called the highly autocratic; the administrator can make the decision alone. In the second which is less autocratic, the administrator asks
for information from his or her subordinates but he or she makes the decision alone. The third is the consultative style where the administrator shares the problem with the subordinates and asks for their information and evaluation. However, he or she makes the decision alone. In the fourth decision making style, called the more consultative style, the administrator and the subordinates meet as a group to discuss the problem but he or she makes the decision. The fifth style called the highly consultative style, the administrator and subordinates meet as a group to discuss the problem and the group makes the decision. The model requires administrators to posses’ two very important qualities namely: “the ability to make effective decisions and the ability to apply the continuum of the five decision styles depending on the favourableness of the decision situation”.37

The opposite of participatory style is the centralized system. Centralized machinery which plans, organizes, directs, supervises and evaluates its’ operations is very ineffective.38 Kenya’s educational system is likely to be centralized both at the school and the national level. This could be the cause of the many secondary school unrests within any given school calendar.

Any school head who wants to succeed must avoid falling victim to the ‘sheep syndrome’ in which teachers and to an extend students are seen as faceless herd to be led, directed and instructed without any creativity and knowledge to contribute to the success of the school.39 Effective schools adopt collegial and professional rather that hierarchical steps in making decisions and problem solving where the input of the
expert is sought. Wise head teachers consult teachers and students and even delegate responsibilities. Very often, the effects of such consultation and delegation are seen in terms of fruitful innovations and increased educational productivity.

Teachers know that head teachers have a right to make decisions, which are exclusively in their administrative domain and will not grumble when such decisions are made. They sometimes see the head teachers as people whose responsibilities are more in the administration than in the teaching field and will rarely perceive they are ignored in such decision making process.

The role of the head teacher therefore carries considerable responsibility. The head teacher is in charge of teachers, pupils and other members of staff and it is to him that they all look for guidance and direction. It is assumed that the head teacher will possess the knowledge required to help with the many and varied educational and personal problems with which he will be confronted. He should know how to obtain the correct answer if he does not already possess it, and should be determined to develop the skills (conceptual, human and technical) that this important office demands of him. He should know when to involve others but still retain authority. Whenever he delegates authority, the head teacher should still monitor what happens in every sector of the school. He /she should also be in a position to analyze and interpret data, decide on the line of action and eventually evaluate the effects of the decision thus taken. The head teacher thus plays a very significant position in the school system. He plays supervisory and leadership roles and each of these involves
decision-making. The consequences of his actions reflect on the type of decision that he makes.42

Today’s educational managers and especially head teachers are expected to display modern management styles which are contrary to traditional approaches. Modern approaches are bottom up, participative, consultative, team and task oriented. The styles also include listening and responding to the real needs rather than telling and prescribing.43 Due to the growing appreciation for the need of valid knowledgeable inputs in management decision making from various organizational levels, the need for involving stakeholders in decision making is paramount.44

In any school where the head teacher has embraced participatory decision making, it is important that decision making teams are developed.45 The importance of such teams include:

a) Better decisions will be made for the students if the school has effective decision making teams in place. On the other hand, where decision making is confused or not well shared, people have a hard time concentrating on teaching and learning.

b) Good school based decision making has a direct effect on students achievement.

c) Time and effort will be used more effectively if carefully chosen teams are working on a well defined project and know how to relate to other decision makers.
d) Pre-established teams assure that all stakeholders have input where appropriate.

From the above arguments, it could clearly be noted that the role of the head teacher is fast changing and that teachers, students, parents and other stakeholders must be involved in making decisions on school management. Head teachers who do not embrace the participatory decision making style are likely to have many challenges in running their schools and likelihood of unrests is very high. It is out of these arguments that the study was conducted with a view to make recommendations for a more modern and participatory decision making process in secondary schools.

2.8 Students’ Involvement in Decision Making

The United Nations Declaration of Human Rights (1948), the Jomtien Declaration of Education for All (1990), the Dakar Declaration of Education for All (2000), the Millenium Development Goals and the Kenya Children’s Act (2001) all state that every child is entitled to basic rights, among which education is key. Kenya is a signatory to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (on January 26, 1990). The United Nations defines a child as a human being below the age of 18 years unless under the law applicable to the child, majority of which is attained earlier. Since most of the students in secondary schools in Kenya are under 18 years, then they are covered by the UN convention on the Rights of the Child. The Convention on the Rights of the Child came into force in 1990. Since then, there has been a great deal of discussion and practical action to give effect to the principle
embodied in Article 12 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) that children have a right to be listened to and taken seriously.

As it has been pointed out, Article 12 clearly states that:

parties shall assure to the child who is capable of forming his or her own views
the right to express those views freely in all matters affecting the child, the
views of the child being given due weight in accordance with the age and
maturity of the child. For this purpose the child shall in particular be provided
the opportunity to be heard in any judicial and administrative proceedings
affecting the child, either directly, or through a representative or appropriate
body, in a manner consistent with the procedural rules of national law. 48

Thus the Article 12 gives children the right to: autonomy, control over all decisions irrespective of their implications either for themselves or others and ride over the rights of their parents. However, this declaration does introduce a radical and profound challenge to traditional attitudes, which assume that children should be seen and not heard.

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC) which has been ratified by the government of Kenya gives young people rights on a wide range of issues including “the right to education, the right to be free from violence, exploitation and abuse, the right to food and shelter, the right to play, and the right to have their voice heard on issues which affect them”. 49 The articles of UNCRC that recognize children as subjects of rights are as follows:
• Article 12: Children’s opinion must be listened seriously in all matters that affect their lives. This includes decisions made by courts.

• Article 13: Children have the right to express themselves freely and access information subject to prevailing laws.

• Article 15: Children have the right to freedom of association, subject to prevailing laws.

• Article 17: Children have the right to information that is beneficial for them, in their own languages.

Therefore, it is clear that children can become successfully involved in research, monitoring and making decisions regarding their health, managing their own institutions such as schools, evaluating services intended for younger people, peer representation and advocacy. They can also be involved in project design, management, monitoring and evaluation, campaigning and lobbying. Others are in analysis and policy development, publicity and use of the media and conference participation. The involvement can take place in any institutional setting with which children have contact including schools, residential homes, and juvenile justice homes. Others are the media, child care agencies, youth services, workplaces, health services, local and national government. The children can participate at all levels from the family, the local community to the international arena.

For the children’s participation to be meaningful, “it is imperative that their engagement is directly linked to their own first-hand experience and is identified by
the children themselves as a key area of concern". In Kenya, before the pre-democracy era, students had no legal basis to participate in school decision making and they only participated at the wish of the principals, teachers and the BOGs. With democratization, the students’ participation in decision making remains an issue for discussion. Students are a major stakeholder and are the consumers of the services in schools hence they should be involved in decision making in their schools. The attempt of decentralization of education in Kenya which is one of the themes of Sessional Paper No 1 of 2005 is among others aimed at promoting democracy in school management.

There are underlying principles to promote children’s (Students’) democratic participation in decision making process. These are:

1) Children must understand what the project or the process is about, what it is for and their role within it. Bringing children in to promote an adult agenda is at best tokenistic and at worst exploitative. Events that have children carrying banners displaying slogans that they have had no part in formulating or conferences that get children to perform without understanding the full agenda do not comply with the principle of participation. Similarly, if children are not provided with appropriate information, they cannot make informed choices or express reasoned views. Information needs to be provided for children in formats that are accessible and age-appropriate.
2) Power relations and decision-making structures must be transparent. It is important that children understand from the beginning what decisions can be made and by whom. If they discover, after a project has started, that they lack the power that they thought they had, they are likely to feel resentful and cynical about the process. For secondary school students, they do feel cheated and this is likely to make them react resulting into strikes.

3) Children should be involved from the earliest possible stage of any initiative. If they are brought in at the last minute, they have no opportunity to shape or influence either the process or the outcomes. Their presence will have little impact on the project as a whole. Evidence shows that children are likely to have strong and creative ideas about how a project needs to develop if it is to be meaningful and relevant to them. It is not always possible to involve children from the very beginning but the earlier they are involved the more likely it is that the project will allow a genuine engagement and contribution from them.

4) All children should be treated with equal respect regardless of their age, situation, ethnicity, abilities or other factors. The participation of all children should be respected, although at different ages and abilities, they will require different levels of support and will contribute in different ways. Furthermore, it is important to ensure that all children for whom an initiative is relevant are enabled to participate and are not excluded as a result of their ‘invisibility’ within local communities – for example, an initiative focusing on improving the local environment should include
children with disabilities, girls, younger children, children from ethnic minority communities and so on. There is also a need to avoid an exclusive focus on activities or projects that address the concerns of more visible groups of children. There is, for example, a great deal of work carried out with children living and working on the street, but very little to empower children in institutions.

5) Ground rules should be established with all the children at the beginning. All projects involving children need to establish ground rules that are negotiated and agreed between the adults and the children. There may be some boundaries that the adults need to impose because of their responsibilities for a project. However, any such boundaries need to be clear and explicit from the beginning. While ground rules can be renegotiated during the course of the project, this needs to be done democratically with the children involved.

6) Participation should be voluntary and children should be allowed to leave at any stage. Children cannot be forced to take part in a project if it is to be genuinely participatory. For example, taking children from a school to attend a conference without their agreement or active involvement is not participation, even if they contribute once there. Furthermore, children should be enabled to leave at any stage.

7) Children are entitled to respect for their views and experience. All projects need to be grounded in recognition that children’s participation is a fundamental human
right. It is not a gift on the part of sympathetic adults and should never be offered or withdrawn as a reward or punishment.

In order to promote effective participation of students in decision making the adults responsible (in case of a secondary school it is the principal, boards of governors, teachers and parents) should observe the following:\(^5^3\)

1) Be prepared to listen to children’s priorities.

The presumption that what adults (rather than students) say and think is necessarily more sensible, relevant and appropriate is deeply rooted in the culture of most societies. If children’s active involvement in decisions that affect their lives is to be respected, it is necessary to recognize the importance of challenging that presumption.\(^5^4\) Children will have their own views on what projects or activities they think are important or what rights are not being respected, and these may well differ from adult priorities. Children’s interest will not be sustained in projects that do not seem relevant to their day-to-day lives.

2) Be clear about what you are trying to achieve. Clarity about your objectives is essential. One needs to be clear about the reasons for undertaking the initiative and the expected outcome. Is it to get improved information to support the development of a service or policy? Is it to empower individual children? Is it to promote a culture of respect for children? Is it to enhance children’s understanding of and competence in exercising democratic decision making? Addressing these questions
will help one determine his/her methodology and approach. For example, if a secondary school principal is seeking the views of students to help decide priorities for expenditure on local play facilities, a one-off time-limited consultation exercise will suffice. However, if one wants children to be involved in developing, designing, monitoring play opportunities in the longer term, he/she will need to work with them to establish structures that enable continuing involvement and allow for children’s views to be built into the decision-making processes.

3) Be clear about the boundaries of the proposed activity. Children who are invited to participate in an initiative or programme need to be informed from the beginning what their role will be, what decisions, if any, are within their control, and what is open to negotiation. It is necessary to address the following:

a) Decision-making structures. It needs to be clear whether the initiative involves a process of consultation, participation, empowerment or self advocacy. In many situations, all decision-making is in the hands of adults. The children need to be told this at the outset if they are not to become quickly disillusioned. In schools, for example, will all proposals made by a school council involving expenditure have to be sanctioned by the governing body or head teacher? Will the children be granted a budget over which they have control? There also needs to be the opportunity to renegotiate the structures as children gain in confidence and competence.
b) Capacity for change. There is little point in consulting children over decisions or proposals over which they can have no influence. If for example the government has no money to fund new facilities for children, then there is little point in finding out what children would like. If principals and by extension the government is not willing to take children’s views seriously, then it is a waste of time to raise children’s expectations by inviting them to be involved unless work is also being done to tackle the attitudes of the principals. If there is a possibility that obstacles could develop that will prevent them from completing their goals, they should be warned about this. It is not always necessary that children succeed but they must be able to understand the reasons for failure so that they do not attribute it to their own ineffectiveness.

c) Time-scale. Students need to be informed about the likely time-scale for achieving change. If they are involved in a campaign for legal reform, for example, to end physical punishment of students or establish rights to education for children with disabilities, then the likelihood is that the work will need to continue at a sustained level for a very long period. If they are working to establish a democratic council in school, then although it may take time, they will be actively involved throughout and will hopefully see change occurring at each stage of the process. On the other hand, if they have been involved in a one-off consultation on a local initiative, there may be a considerable time gap between the
consultation itself and any possible outcome. In this case, it is important to forewarn the children and keep them informed throughout.

d) Competing interests. Children’s proposals for action or for change will frequently encounter competing interests. Part of the process of participation is the need to help them mobilize the necessary arguments with which to present their case and challenge opposing views. However, it is also necessary to acknowledge, in a democratic environment, that other views can have legitimacy and other groups of people also have the right to be heard.

4) Do the necessary research. Once one has decided what needs to be achieved, there is need to do some ground work to develop the most effective and appropriate approach. For example: Identify what other relevant initiatives have been developed in the same field or area. Would it be helpful to collaborate with them? Are there lessons to be learnt from them?

5) Be willing to consult with children on methods of involving them. Children themselves will have views and ideas on how to construct effective methods of involvement that are likely to differ from processes or forums designed for adults. They must be recognized as having expertise in being young and knowing what works for them.
6) Remember that children are not a homogenous group. Their views will undoubtedly reflect a wide range of concerns and opinions as those raised by adults – but they will provide a different perspective. Some projects will rightly target one group of children because of a particular vulnerability to violations of their rights – for example, refugee or asylum seekers. Others will be inclusive initiatives, for example involving all children in a particular school or living in a particular community. What is important is that all the children who have a legitimate interest in a project are encouraged and enabled to participate and that weaker or more isolated children are not marginalized. There is a danger that the only children who get involved are the articulate, better off, able individuals who, while having a valid contribution to make, do not reflect the breadth of children’s experience. It is also important to recognize that many issues affecting children are common to them all and that it is not always appropriate to focus on children in terms of ‘problems’. For example, while it may be valuable to undertake a specific piece of work with children with disabilities to enable them to articulate their experience of the barriers to their active participation in daily life, it is also necessary to include them in work designed to promote child friendly schools. Separating out groups of children will inevitably result in an emphasis on difference rather than common agendas. Children of different ages and abilities can work together effectively but you may need to offer them different levels of support and use a variety of methods of working and expression to enable all children to participate to the maximum. In addition, all projects will have a number of different roles that children can fulfill.
according to their aptitudes, interests and abilities, each of which should be promoted and valued equally.

7) Be prepared to make the necessary time available. Involving children in decision making takes time. There are no shortcuts to effective participation. If one wants to do it properly, it is essential to undertake the necessary planning and preparation. Time may be necessary for: undertaking initial research with children themselves on how to develop the initiative, getting an advisory or planning group of children together to work on the initiative and providing children with training on how to chair meetings, take decisions, keep records, interview prospective staff, undertake research and deal with the media. Time is also necessary for ensuring that children are kept fully informed about what is happening, enabling children to have sufficient time to prepare for participation in meetings and conferences and evaluating progress, and taking stock of what is working and what needs to change.

8) Make available the necessary resources. Consultation will involve the commitment of some resources. One should produce a budget at the outset of the project and ensure that the money needed for its success is available. Costs will obviously vary according to the nature of the initiative, its duration, geographical spread and number of children involved.

9) Remember the importance of working with adults as well as children. Strategies to give children a voice will only work if there are adults willing to listen to them.
There is still considerable resistance to the concept of listening to children and taking them seriously – the view that adults have nothing to learn from children retains a powerful hold. One needs to invest time in working with adults in key positions of power, for example, head teachers, the police, local politicians, to persuade them of the benefits of a more open and democratic relationship with children and young people.

10) Be prepared to be challenged. Once children are involved in an activity, they will have their own ideas on how it could or should evolve. This may differ significantly from how one originally conceived the activity. One will need to be open to their suggestions and prepared to negotiate over the possibility of changing the direction, goals and time-scale of the project. Developing structures for discussion and the development of collaborative solutions with children are important parts of the process of participation and democracy.

11) Don’t underestimate children. Because children are so rarely heard in adult arenas, there is sometimes a tendency, when they do participate, to exaggerate their contribution. To do so is to patronize them. There is also sometimes a view that, when children contribute in an adult forum, it is not acceptable to challenge or disagree with them. Of course it is reasonable to disagree as long as it is done with respect and is not simply a dismissal of the children and their right to speak. Treating children with excessive caution is as bad as ignoring them. It can lead to an underestimation of children’s capacities, the placing of expectations on their
contribution that are too low, and to a reduction in the potential gains from their involvement. While children should be allowed to participate as children—forcing them to behave as ‘mini-adults’ is neither desirable nor appropriate— they are capable of making informed and analytical contributions and should be recognized as such.

12) Develop indicators or goals for effective participation in collaboration with children. It is valuable in setting up a project, research programme or conference to have a clear set of goals or targets hoped to be to be achieved. These need to be agreed with the participating children based on their aspirations and expectations from the programme. These targets might be quantitative— the numbers of children involved, the numbers of meetings organized and the numbers of children in the project now receiving basic education. They might also be related to public evidence of change For example schools introducing democratic structures, local authorities agreeing to act on recommendations by children, improved conditions for working children, more positive representation of children in the media. Or they might relate to the quality of the children’s experience such as growth in self-esteem and confidence, the quality of the inter-personal relationships and the effectiveness of democratic decision-making within the project. These latter targets are obviously more difficult to measure. Setting targets and monitoring progress on a regular basis will provide a focus for reflection and discussion on the strengths and weaknesses of work being done and for developing future programmes.
13) Be prepared to make mistakes and get it wrong. The practice of involving children is still relatively new. Most individuals and organizations in this field are still exploring and experimenting with what works. Everyone at times will make mistakes, miss out vital steps, underestimate the time needed, and fail to involve the right children. It is important to accept that this is a learning curve and that it is through mistakes that practice will improve. There is a common fear among individuals and organizations of being tokenistic. However, if they follow the basic principles and practice outlined above, it will help get the framework right. In case it is wrong then one can learn from the mistakes and do better the next time.

The present study recognizes the importance of students’ participation in the decision-making process. The principal and teachers in a secondary school ought to recognize and develop strategies for students’ involvement in decision making; otherwise their ideas and decisions may not be implemented properly. Students’ participation entails students playing an active role in their education and schooling. It is advisable that “schools become more attentive and responsive in sustained and routine ways to students’ views”. In situations where schools promote students in more systematic and purposeful ways, it is possible to place this in a ‘continuum’ where at one end; students’ participation is largely passive while at the other end, the student is the initiating force. “Manipulation, decoration and tokenism are non-participatory and students are used to carry adult messages or where they have the appearance of participation but have been selected to promote a particular view or idea”. This is majorly meant for the purposes of quality control, and even to build
greater compliance and control among pupils. The other end of the continuum is the more consultative and student initiated activities where young people are involved in order to make a contribution. This argument on student’s participation in decision making has been summarized as presented in table 1.0 below:

**TABLE 1.0**

**Children’s Participation: from Tokenism to Citizenship.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of Participation</th>
<th>Student initiated, shared decisions with adults</th>
<th>Student initiated and directed</th>
<th>Teachers initiated, shared decisions with children</th>
<th>Consulted and informed</th>
<th>Assigned but informed</th>
<th>Non-participation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students have the ideas, set up the project and invite teachers to join with them in making decisions</td>
<td>Students have initial idea and decide how the project is to be carried out.</td>
<td>Teachers have the initial idea but students are involved in every step of planning and implementation.</td>
<td>Project is initiated by teachers but students are consulted.</td>
<td>Teachers decide on the project and students volunteer for it.</td>
<td>Tokenism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students have the ideas, set up the project and invite teachers to join with them in making decisions</td>
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<td>Teachers have the initial idea but students are involved in every step of planning and implementation.</td>
<td>Project is initiated by teachers but students are consulted.</td>
<td>Teachers decide on the project and students volunteer for it.</td>
<td>Tokenism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students are asked to say what they think about an issue but have little or no choice about the way they express those views or the scope of the ideas they can express.</td>
<td>Students take part in an event e.g. by dancing but they do not really understand the issues.</td>
<td>Students do or say what adults suggest they do, but have no real understanding of the issues, or students are asked what they think adults use some of their ideas but do not tell them what influence they have had on the final decision.</td>
<td>Students are asked to say what they think about an issue but have little or no choice about the way they express those views or the scope of the ideas they can express.</td>
<td>Students take part in an event e.g. by dancing but they do not really understand the issues.</td>
<td>Tokenism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students’ involvement in decision making has many benefits to the school. In schools where students are involved in decision making, they usually become more responsible when it comes to the use of school property and are likely to be more committed to school activities such as co-curricular activities, also may provide
information which could help in the promotion of good practices in school administration.\textsuperscript{57} The students’ and teachers’ participation in decision making has positive effects on the general well being of the school, improved behaviour and values, better academic performance and a source of motivation for teachers and other stakeholders. Other advantages are it strengthens the commitment to and understanding of democracy; it leads to better decisions and protects students better. Participation is also a fundamental Human Right; therefore conformity is of paramount importance.

Dewey wrote extensively about the need of engaging students’ experience and perspectives in the curriculum of schools by saying that:

the essence of the demand of freedom is the need of conditions which will enable an individual to make his own special contribution to a group interest and to partake of its’ activities in such ways that social guidance shall be a matter of his own mental attitude and not a mere authoritative dictation of his acts.\textsuperscript{58}

A school is made up of teachers, students, subordinates and the community served by the school. Therefore, it is only right for the school administration to involve the students and others in the decision-making process. This should be done through participation of students and other parties in making decisions through a cross section of the various operational task areas of the administrative process.
A study by the United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF) and the ministry of education in Kenya in 2006 revealed that student participation in the daily running of the school was directly linked to academic performance and school strikes.\textsuperscript{59} Involving students as educational decision makers is the practice of actively teaching young people responsibility for their education by systematically engaging them in making choices about learning, schooling and the education system in areas ranging from what affects them personally to what affects the entire school system. Worldwide examples as enumerated by Hart\textsuperscript{60} include:

**Australia**- there is an umbrella peak body of student councils which is supported by funding from educational department and is run by secondary school students. In **Canada** students are included in the district school boards through a ‘student representative’ commonly called the students’ trustee and are meant to represent the needs and concerns of students in discussions with the school board administration. In **Chile**, after student protests from across the country, government officials started to work to support reforms as demanded by the students. In **Britain**, there is a national students’ association which supports them in expressing their views about education by providing workshops and a network of support with other secondary school students. In the **United States of America**, the national youth rights association advocates for increased recognition for student rights in schools, including the right to privacy, students access to records and students representation through the education system. In **Australia**, a vigorous student representative council encourages students to be part of the schools’ decision making procedures and develop leadership skills. Students also have two elected representatives on the school council which provides
advice to the principal on school policies and procedures. In Ethiopia, there are students’ councils in schools although students had very little knowledge or awareness about the councils.

In Kenya, there is no clear policy on students’ representation; therefore most of the schools are likely to have the colonial prefects system where the members are appointed by teachers. Most African countries inherited authoritarian school structures, through systems that encouraged unquestioning loyalty to authority. It had been observed that “the colonial state in Africa did not only want an ‘educated native’ but a ‘loyal’ educated native”.61 One aspect of the inherited school structure and organization that has been criticized heavily as contravening democratic values is the existence of the prefect system. Most schools in English speaking African countries “have some form of prefect system where the duty of the prefects normally is to act as general agents of social control, checking lateness, reporting misbehavior to teachers, organizing the tidiness of the school compound and generally acting as messengers of the staff”.62 In most cases, prefects are appointed by the school administration, usually a small group comprising the principal, his assistant, the dean, the discipline master and few other teachers. Thus the prefect system is aimed at satisfying the authorities rather than the student population.

During the second national secondary students’ leaders’ conference in 2010, it was reported that students would be consulted when important school decisions were being made in schools. Commenting on this proposed change, the vice president of
Kenya then, Hon. Kalonzo Musyoka applauded the bold move to engage students in school governance. He further said that “when student leaders in particular, and students in general, participate in decision-making, they feel valued”. The introduction of the students’ council might help Kenyan democracy in the long run by teaching the students a few things about civic duty and peaceful competition for elected office. This is also likely to inculcate into the students the virtues of political competition at an early age which might help reduce cases of violence in elections for students’ body representative at Kenyan universities. In a democratic and participatory school management, there should be in a school a student’s council consisting of representatives from all classes, who should be elected by students themselves. “The council should have an executive committee with an elected president and vice president and its function should be to organize co-curricular, cultural and social activities within the school”.

There are areas where students should participate in decisions making process before the implementation. One of these areas is the task of provision of student management and welfare services. In these, the student is the one who is supposed to utilize the services hence the need for him / her to have some input on the quality, quantity, type and time elements of these services for full utilization. The student requires a forum for expressing his ideas and if the school administration is authoritarian, the student’s freedom of expression is curtailed and the result is that the student becomes reserved, which may lead to strikes. The school should therefore
practice participatory leadership, which includes encouraging students to air their views in matters concerning their welfare.

2.9 Teachers’ Participation in Decision Making Process

Among the stakeholders to involve in decision making process in schools are teachers who are the custodians of instructions, implementers of social policies and co-organizers of school activities along with the principals. Further, the decisions made in schools do affect them and as specialists in different subject areas and as professionals, they are better suited to make the correct decisions having in mind of what is required of them as teachers. It is important that teachers are involvement in decision making in schools. This is supported by the argument that:

If we accept the principle that is in democracy those who are affected by decisions should participate in making decisions. The demands of the professional staff form a significant part in the decision making in school system. The days of head teachers’ paternalism are fast coming to an end and in a democracy; the school like the government is of the people, by the people and for the people.65

Raising the falling morale and motivation of teachers in most sub-Saharan African countries is a major challenge because many teachers lack self-esteem and commitment to their profession.66 This is partly attributed to lack of participatory management styles, which are poorly understood or applied in Africa. Kenyan
teachers seem to be mostly recipients of instructions to be implemented at school level of decisions made at National, Provincial or District levels.

In the paper ‘Head of Department Involvement in Decisions’ the advantages of the involvement of heads of department in decision making was highlighted as:

a) Improved communication is likely to ensue from the very process of participation in decision making.

b) Better quality decisions; ideas from different sources make a better decision.

c) Improved staff motivation; ownership of the decisions acts as a motivator.

Involvement of teachers in decision making has many benefits to the school. These include teachers taking more responsibility in the use of school property and commitment to school activities such as co-curricular activities. It may also provide information which could help in promotion of good practices in school administration. A key argument by the proponents of transfer of decision making authority to the people at the school level is that when those closest to where decisions are implemented are empowered to make decisions and given ownership of the results, better decisions are made and thus the quality of education will be improved.

Behavioural science theorists such as Douglas McGregor and Fredrick Herzberg argue that participation in decision making would lead to more effective organizations and higher staff morale. McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y focused on management assumption about employees. Theory X managers view subordinates as people who
are lazy and dislike work, avoid responsibilities and seek formal directives whenever possible, must be coerced, controlled or threatened to work and place security above all. They therefore treat employees differently from theory Y managers, who take subordinates as willing, cooperative and responsible. Thus according to McCregor, theory Y head teachers would allow teachers and non-teaching staff to take more responsibility and allow them to participate in making decisions on crucial issues. Herzberg’s motivation hygiene theory postulates that workers are not motivated by extrinsic factors such as salary, working conditions and job security but by intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition and responsibility. Thus involving teachers and students in school decision making is a motivator itself.

Human relation theorists hypothesized that, institutions might be more successful if managers would consider the employees individual and social needs. Abraham Maslow’s theory of motivation pointed out to the human needs of self-actualization. In an educational institution, allowing teachers a voice in decision making “is perhaps the most logical method for allowing them to self-actualize”. The six underlying dimensions of teachers’ empowerment are involvement in decision making, teacher impact, teacher status, autonomy, opportunities for professional development and teacher self efficacy. Providing teachers, students and other stakeholders an opportunity to make decisions in critical areas is a key element in empowerment in that they gain the opportunity to increase control over their schools and work environments.
Since a school is made up of teachers, students, subordinates and the feeder community, it ought to recognize and develop strategies for involvement of all stakeholders and especially students and teachers in decision making; otherwise ideas and decisions may not be implemented properly. Therefore the involvement of all in decision making helps in smooth and effective implementation of school policies because the parties own the decisions and programmes. The best discriminator between high and low participation groups of teachers is the principals’ leadership followed by job satisfaction. It has also been reported that the variable most likely to discriminate among teachers as to their desire to participate in decision making was a teachers’ sense of efficacy (confidence in teaching). The success of teachers in influencing decisions and the substance of these decisions may be crucial in actually becoming leaders in schools. Teachers experiencing a high degree of powerlessness often develop a high degree of alienation which predisposes them to locate the source of student learning difficulties in the student themselves, or their home background rather than school methodology. Therefore it is right for the schools to involve teachers and other stakeholders in decision making process through a cross section of the various management task areas. This study was therefore finding out whether teachers are involved in the decision making process across the management tasks.

2.10 Management Task Areas

The various functions of any management can be broken into specific tasks. The nature of authority and responsibility granted each position, the degree of autonomy to take action and the amount of discretion allowed in making decisions deviating from
standard operating procedures, all figure in a consideration of role. Professional institutions in education require standardization of processes such as to know certain types of decisions across functions. A function of specific task inherent in a function may be delegated to specialists if it is simple enough. If the tasks for a given function are sufficiently complex, numerous divisions may be created with a staff of specialists and technical support. The task areas in a learning institution can be classified into “business affairs, buildings and grounds, pupil personnel, staff personnel, curriculum and community relations with the institution” 74.

Milklos75 classified the tasks into student personnel, staff personnel, curriculum and instructional programmes, resources and facilities, financial affairs, community–institution relations and overall managerial which runs through all the other tasks. Others define tasks as the specific activities identified by those within the organization as the necessary means to accomplish the assigned purposes. They further point out that “Tasks can also be identified as the organizational interpretation of purposes at a particular time”.76 McCleary and Hencley’s classification of various management tasks include priority areas, allocation of staff and resources to accomplish the tasks, process to be employed, modes of relating compatible tasks and separating conflict ones.77 In accordance with studies done by Halpin, Cartwright and Zander “it seems reasonably clear that defining tasks as developing patterns of organization in themselves are not sufficient aspects of management and include involvement of staff in policy and decision making, mutual trust, good human relations, respect and recognition”. 78
Bell defines management tasks as the responsibilities that face managers and can be summarized as:

1) Technical: Those tasks which are specific to the main purpose of the school. These will be concerned with the process of teaching and learning.

2) Conceptual: Those tasks concerning the control and administration of the school such as the deployment of staff and the management of resources.

3) Human relations: Tasks which are related to the structuring of participation in decision making, policy making and staff development.

4) External relations; Those tasks which enable managers to control the flow of information into and out of school and to manage legitimate interventions in the life of the school from parents, governors and others within the community.

O’connor classifies management tasks into the following:

1) Leadership and strategy implementation: This includes curriculum and instruction and students’ welfare.

2) Personnel management and professional leadership.

3) Quality assurance: Includes monitoring and evaluation of learning, and school development plans.

4) Performance management: Development of the teaching and support staff, and continuing professional development.

5) Communication and consultation: Links with the external community, students’ councils, staff professional associations and partnership with parents and guardians.
Njoka cited some of these task areas under different categories.

1. Under curriculum and instructional program fall the following task areas:-
   
a) Selection of textbooks for subjects.
   
b) Planning the curriculum at school level.
   
c) Evaluating the curriculum at the school level.
   
d) Determining subject areas for individual students (electives)
   
e) Evaluating students’ progress.

2. Under student management and school-community relations

   a) Determining the size of classes.
   
b) Determining the non-formal curriculum (e.g. clubs and societies) which the school should undertake.
   
c) Determining entertainment and recreational activities for students.
   
d) Determining rules and regulations for students.
   
e) Determining disciplinary action against students’ misconduct (e.g. to suspend or expel a student).
   
f) Organizing boarding facilities for students.
   
g) Determining the school-community relations.

From the review of management tasks, it is clear some do not include all the day to day activities in secondary schools. For example, finance management has not been identified by some, yet it is an activity that takes place daily in schools. It can also be noted from the review that there are certain areas which are very important in learning institutions’ management which include the curriculum and programme of instruction,
the student personnel, the staff personnel, institutional relations with the community it serves, finance and physical resources and overall management of the institution. Thus for the purpose of this study, some of the cited task areas by various people were selected and modified to suit the Kenyan situation. Also the sections under each of the management task area were included as follows:

1) Curriculum and instructional programme.
   a. Planning the curriculum at school level (e.g. getting students’ suggestions and forwarding them to be in-cooperated in curriculum by higher authorities.
   b. Evaluating the curriculum in general at the school level (e.g. assessing how far the school has achieved its goals and objectives in a term or a year)
   c. Determining subject areas for individual students (e.g. choice of elective subjects).
   d. Determining methods of evaluating students progress (e.g. when and how to give continuous assessment to students and end of term examinations)

2) Student management and welfare.
   a) Determining the size of classes
   b) Determining the non-formal curriculum (e.g. clubs and societies) which the students should undertake
   c) Determining entertainment and recreational activities for the students.
   d) Determining school rules and regulations.
e) Determining how responsibilities should be delegated to students.

f) Determining disciplinary action against students misconduct (e.g. to suspend or to expel a student)

g) Organizing boarding facilities for students.

h) Determining the type of food provided for lunch and supper.

3) School – community relations.

   a) Determining the school community relations (e.g. deciding on the co-operate social activity that the school should be involved in).

4) Financial management.

   a) Deciding how the money from the ministry of education is spent.

   b) Deciding what to buy and who to buy from.

   c) Making estimates of income and expenditure.

   d) Recruitment of non-teaching personnel.

   e) Deciding any income generating activities that the school should be engaged in.

Since the study was limited to these four task areas staff management welfare and physical resources were not included in the study.

2.11 Styles of Decision Making

Human beings are guided by four functions when solving problems which include sensing, thinking, understanding and intuition. Thus according to Jung, there are two ways in which we can perceive problems, namely by use of sensing and intuition, and that there are two ways through which the problem can be solved, that is
by use of thinking and feeling functions. The combination of the thinking and feeling functions are called the decision making style. This theory gives an insight into the question as to why individuals succeed or fail in decision making.

There are broadly two types of decision making style: the consultative and the autocratic decision making styles which in a way determine the kind of a leader, either democratic or dictatorial. The importance of consultative leadership in school management has been stressed in many literary works. This approach is suitable where the principal practices good human relationships with his staff and students. The process involves amassing suggestions on the issue under discussion, analyzing the views expressed, and leaving the head principal to decide on the basis of the suggestions from the teachers and students. This process may be time consuming, but it eases the atmosphere in which the discussion takes place. The teachers and students build confidence in the head teacher and if he does not adversely deviate from their suggestions, they become more responsible and innovative. Whenever decisions are made, they are aimed at achieving the goals of an organization. They may be made on the basis of past experience or intuition, or simply to try and see if they help solve organizational problems.

Organizations desire to achieve specific goals, and respond to events in the environment in order to achieve these goals. It is difficulty, therefore to achieve the desired goals if the head teacher does not respond positively to the views expressed by his teachers and students. This view is supported through the argument that
“educational innovations tend to flow upward in the organization from students and teachers to administrators”. Most new ideas most probably originate with organization members who span the boundary between the organization and the technological environment and teachers and students are the major boundary-spanning components of the educational environment.

From the students, the head teacher and teachers can get original ideas that can be used to bring improvements to the school. However, to get the students and teachers to contribute generously to the welfare of the school, the head teacher must understand them, be well disposed towards them, and exercise rapport and restraint towards them. He should never allow himself to be guided by emotion in anything he undertakes. He should always realize that as well as being a decision maker, he is also a group leader. Apart from the formal organization that the school is, there exist the informal organizations which must be catered for. If the latter is ignored, it can cause untold damage to the total structure of education in the school. A school has been described as a “living, breathing, growing thing, drawing life and feeling from human (teachers and students) living, working and growing together. More than any other person, the principal sets the tone of this living, growing, feeling thing which is the school”. To be able to succeed in his work, the head teacher needs to support values such as respect for personality, willingness to use cooperate means, reliance upon reason and faith in people. From the above argument, in a broad perspective, there are two main streams of leadership styles which have been proposed and supported by
research, the autocratic defensive leader and the democratic leader, who believes in cooperative and participative leadership.

2.12 Summary of the Conceptual Review

The role of the principals as decision makers is widely recognized in educational administration. Traditionally, the secondary school principal was expected to make all the decisions and implement all policies within the school. This was the practice in Kenya, and the principals’ word was law. However with democratization of the country, this was expected to change, with the powers to make decision being spread among all the stakeholders, with the principal being the organizer, planner, coordinator, controller and director of the various groups and the chief executive in the implementation of the decisions.

Stakeholders in secondary schools are supposed to work together and participate in decision making, either personally or by representation. School administrators are encouraged to keep on consulting their teachers, subordinates and students. Effective administrators in secondary schools are those who consult their subordinates and students and who work with and through them. It is impossible for principals and the management to do everything completely on their own thus it is therefore suggested from the literature that they should work with and through teachers and students.
Section II

2.13 Research Review

The review of related studies helps the researcher familiarize himself with worker done by other researchers. The researcher reviewed Masters and Ph D Thesis and also studies already published in educational journals.


Objectives:

a) To evaluate the micro-politics of secondary schools against a contextual macro politics.

b) Explore the two main school-subcultures.

Methodology: Five secondary schools were sampled; the data collection tools were observation on general teacher-pupil relationships, explored cartoons and articles on national media so as to understand the possible impact of macro-politics and interviewing the headmaster and the teachers to establish their perceptions on student participation and responsible citizenship. Transcriptions were decontextualized and frozen. Interviews done were replayed on tape while themes and categories on child participation were sought. During tape playing, account was
taken of tone of voice, its inflection, pauses, mood and way of speaking.

**Major Findings:** Interesting links were discovered that suggest a strong interrelatedness between the school micro-politics and macro-politics. Non-participation in decision making by the students was still prevalent and that they were not guided by adults as it should be so that they participate. The students commented that they should be taught civil rights and schools should endure to promote democratic lifestyles. For Zimbabwe schools, the path towards responsible citizenship will continue to elude educators unless child participation is taken seriously. Democratic education seeks to liberate thought, promote tolerance, build meaningful relationships and empower. The learning and work processes in schools seem not to favour such ethos. Many schools still operate like factories of which the end products are children. In view of the existing levels of intolerance, authoritarianism, non-caring attitude, student voicelessness should force teachers to re-think school culture.


**Objectives:** To find out:

a) Requirements/ appropriate roles of school councils

b) Students’ experience in functioning of school councils
c) Attitudes of school administrators and communities towards school councils.

**Methodology:** Survey design was used, a sample of 72 students, focus group discussions and key informants were used for data collection.

**Major Findings:** The findings were that students had very little knowledge or awareness about the student councils in their schools and did not have very good opinion of the councils and were not very supportive of it. Training was considered to be an important factor in preparing the council to function, and this should happen before the ground rules are established.


**Objectives:**

a) To examine the current Zimbabwean school system

b) Establish the extent to which it is conducive to making decisions about the selection of subjects they learn at school.

c) Examine the nature of children’s rights and the extent to which these rights are practiced in schools.

**Methodology:** Survey design was applied, a sample of 100 pupils, 24 teachers and five school heads were used. Both qualitative and quantitative data
was collected using a questionnaire, an interview schedule and observing both teachers and students.

**Major Findings:** The study found out that teachers and students were aware of pupils’ rights to participate in deciding the subjects they studied and most teachers and school heads felt it was more of their duty to decide for pupils because of their immaturity. In their opinion, determining the school curriculum content should involve school heads, teachers and pupils instead of choices being made and the content dictated to pupils.

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**Objective:** To find out the nature and extent of the involvement of learners in democratization in education through social governing bodies in South Africa.

**Methodology:** Used a case study design, a Sample of 32 governors from four secondary schools. An enquiry using a qualitative approach was undertaken to ascertain the opinions and experiences of various governors. Data was collected through observation, in-depth interviews and documented analysis. Data analysis procedures typical of qualitative research were used. Interviews were transcribed and coded, and responses grouped according to the questions asked.
Major Findings:

a) The study found out that the majority of the governors suggested that learners participated by representing the learner body by communicating their views and opinions in school governing boards. Representation of learners is aimed at ensuring that learners are not deprived of their interest and rights. However, even this limited view of learners has proved problematic in the past, particularly in rural and township schools where adult members have been reluctant to enter into discussion with minors.

b) The extent of participation by various stakeholders is influenced by several factors such as the type of school (rural, urban or township school), the stakeholders themselves (adult or non-adult school governing board members), the regularity of attendance of meetings, gender and the leadership style of the school principals.

c) Majority of the governors in all the four schools indicated that learners should be involved in making decisions on curriculum issues. They felt that learners are the direct beneficiaries of the curriculum and therefore need to take part in what affects their education. Other governors were of the feeling that involvement of the students in curriculum issues might increase their interest in education and improve achievement, which in turn would make the school more marketable.

**Objectives:**

a) To find out the status of children in decision making in class  
b) To find out the status of children in program implementation  
c) To find out the status of children in program monitoring and evaluation  
d) To find out the hindrances of children participation.

**Methodology:** Case study of two secondary schools, 40 students, 10 teachers, two chairpersons of school management committees and two head teachers from the two secondary schools.

**Major Findings:**

a) It was found out that there was no meaningful involvement of children. The children did not participate in decision making and the process in children’ clubs was led by teachers.  
b) The status of children participation in program implementation was satisfactory.  
c) There was no participation of children in monitoring and evaluation process of school activities  
d) The highly rich family’s students dominated the minority and marginalized groups of students in participation.

**Objectives:**

a) To identify structures within the school which facilitate or hinder students participation in the decision making process.

b) Identify the type of decisions which students participate in.

c) Find out the degree to which students participate in the specific decision making issues.

**Methodology:** A survey design was applied, a sample of 168 students. Data was collected through semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions.

**Major findings:** The findings were that prefects system and the students’ council were the main structures used in students’ participation in decision making, the degree of participation is mainly consultative and that teachers include students in decision making mainly to encourage compliance.


**Objectives:**

a) Nature and extent of students’ participation in decision-making in secondary schools in Kenya.
b) Structures within the school which facilitate or hinder students’ participation in the decision making issue.

**Methodology:** This was a case study research conducted in a secondary school in Kenya. Semi-structured interview and focus group discussions were the tools for data collection. Thematic approaches were used in data analysis.

**Major Findings:** The prefect system and students council are the main structures used in students’ participation in decision making. The findings suggest that students participate in operational type of decisions, degree of participation appeared to be basically consultative and teachers include students in decision making mainly to encourage compliance and not to genuinely get students concerns about their education. It was also found out that students who participate in most decision making processes (Prefects) were selected by teachers based on students’ performance and good conduct. Culture was found to greatly influence the nature of students’ participative in decision making in the schools.


**Objectives:**

a) To find out the most prevalent state of teachers participation in decision making in secondary schools.
b) To find out the state of decisional participation where teachers feel more motivated, more satisfied and have a high morale in their workplace.

c) To find the state of decisional deprivation where teachers feel least motivated, least satisfied and have low morale.

**Methodology:** A sample of 400 teachers in the ten secondary schools within Wari south local government area. The data was collected through an instrument called decisional participation and teachers’ motivation, job satisfaction and morale questionnaire (DPTMSMQ). The data was analysed through qualitative and quantitative statistics.

**Major Findings:** Most of the principals do not involve their teachers in decision making as the teachers would have desired. The principals appear to adopt an autocratic approach to decision making. The results indicated that 60 per cent (219) of the teachers’ level of participation in decision making was very low, that is, it was at the decisional deprivation level. Teachers who participate in as many decision making as they desired felt more motivated, satisfied and have a high morale while those who are decisional deprived felt least motivated, least satisfied and have low morale in workplace.


**Objectives:**
a) To find out the modes of decision making in South Australian TAFE college.

b) To find out whether teachers desired to be involved in decision making more than they were currently involved.

**Methodology:** The sample was 72 lecturing staff. Data collection tool was a questionnaire and data was analysed through qualitative statistics

**Major Findings:** 94 per cent of the respondents were found to be in some state of decisional deprivation. Some decisional areas were associated with higher decisional deprivation than others. Whilst different modes of decision making were desired for different decisions, the democratic centralist mode was most frequently desired by a majority of decisions. Biographic variable having most associations with responses was that of classification with staff of higher classifications being involved more in decision making and less deprived than those of lower classification.


**Objectives:** To determine whether teachers’ perceptions of principals support and conversely perception of teachers desires to be involved in responsibility taking, hampered the active involvement of teachers in school based management regarding school initiative.
Methodology: Initially a review of literature was undertaken to establish the nature and limitations of teacher involvement in school-change. This was followed by cross-country empirical investigation, which consisted of two quantitative investigations that can be described as exploratory. A sample of 50 secondary school principals and 176 teachers from Gauteng Province, South Africa was used. Data was collected by se of questionnaires. Descriptive and inferential statistical tools were used to analyze the data.

Major Findings: The findings were that principals’ perception of the wishes of teachers regarding involvement significantly underestimated teachers’ actual involvement wishes. The expectation of teachers regarding the willingness of principals to involve them was a significant under-estimation of the involvement level that principals were actually in favour of.


Objectives: To investigate the characteristics of participative decision making in schools after implementing the School management initiative (SMI) scheme.

Methodology: The sample was composed of two secondary SMI schools, two principals and 105 teachers. Data was collected through questionnaire, school observation and in-depth interviews.
**Major Findings:** Teachers desired participation was higher than the actual participation in decision making. Teachers’ participation in making individual level decisions in the managerial domain was much more deprived than that of the technical domain. The desired participation and actual participation rose because under the influence of the school management initiative, teachers demanded an increase in participation but the actual participation grew at a slower speed than expected.


**Objectives:** To investigate teacher empowerment in high schools that had the school councils over varying periods.

**Methodology:** Survey design was used. The sample was collected from 93 secondary schools. The data collection tool was a questionnaire.

**Major Findings:** The finding was that teachers in schools with teacher councils reported more involvement in decision making than schools without them.

Objectives: To compare teachers’ actual and desired participation in different decision making situations and examine how participation in decision making differs in Indian higher educational institutions.

Methodology: The research method was a case study of Banaras Hindu University, Sample of 281 faculty members. Data was collected through a questionnaire, both descriptive and analytical data analysis methods were used for data analysis.

Major Findings: Teachers’ actual and desired participation was highest in institutional decisions and lowest in technical decisions. Among the personal variables, age, designation, teaching experience and span of service in present institution were found to be significantly related with decisional participation of university teachers.


Objectives: To investigate the extent of teacher participation in decision making in Zimbabwean schools.

Methodology: A Qualitative/Interpretative research using a case study design. The sample was composed of five principals and 20 secondary school teachers. Data was collected by use of interviews, documentary analysis and observation. Analysis was through qualitative and quantitative techniques.
**Major Findings:** The study established that teachers were insignificantly involved in decision making despite their eagerness to be involved. Some duties are given to senior teachers or committees even when teachers feel that they should be directly involved. There are times when school heads make unilateral decisions and impose them on teachers for implementation.


**Objectives:** To examine the attitudes of high school principals in South Dakota towards parents’ involvement, identify potential barriers to parents’ involvement and to determine if attitudinal differences exist based on principals’ gender, professional title, working experience, educational attainment, size of school and school classification.

**Methodology:** Survey design was applied, a sample of 165 secondary school Principals. Tool for data collection was a questionnaire. Both inferential and statistical methods for data analysis were applied.

**Major Findings:** Principals were found to have a positive attitude towards parents’ involvement. There were no differences between principals’ attitude and the principals’ gender, professional title, size of school and school classification.

**Objectives:** To examine the extent to which shared decision making was being implemented, to ascertain whether differences, as viewed by school principals were present in shared decision making practices and beliefs as a function of school levels.

**Methodology:** Research design was descriptive survey, a sample of 198 principals and a questionnaire was used for data collection.

**Major Findings:** The findings were that principals indicated 100% agreement at all the levels regarding beliefs about shared decision making. They also agreed that ownership in a decision enhances the quality of that decision and the likelihood of a successful outcome. Principals agreed that all parties must be involved in decision making. They also indicated that people closest to the students have the clearest understanding of how to best meet the need of the student.

Objectives: To find out the decision making practices in Free State province secondary schools, involvement of other stakeholders in decision making and the level of satisfaction by the stakeholders with school management.

Methodology: Descriptive survey design was used; open ended questionnaire, individual and focus group interviews were used for data collection. Descriptive procedures were used for data analysis.

Major Findings: The findings were that decision making in secondary schools in Free State province still adhered to pre-democratic formal lines of authority, and there was dissatisfactions and concerns raised by the participants. The concerns were directed at the management and included lack of communication, lack of transparency, unacceptable disciplinary procedures, autocratic leadership and centralized decision making.


Objectives: To investigate the factors within the school and the community which hamper access to schools and proper learning by students.

Methodology: The research design applied was survey; data was collected through individual interviews, focus group discussions and key informant interviews.
**Major Findings:** One of the factors identified as hampering access to schools and proper learning by students was limited participation in decision making. It was found out that the role of students and pupils in decision making process within schools had been limited or nonexistent at all. In most cases, student leaders were often handpicked by teachers and this resulted in resentment from the rest of the school body. These leaders were often seen as spies who cannot be trusted to communicate their wishes. The communication breakdown begins at the level of students taking to their peers and this transcends to the inability of students to communicate with their teachers. What eventually emerges is very poor or a lack of communication between those who form the bulk of school population and their managers.


**Objectives:**

a) To explore various stakeholders in a rural school understanding of participative management.

b) To identify challenges regarding the implementation of this approach in schools as a foundation towards finding potential solutions to problems identified.
**Methodology:** This was a case study of a secondary school. A sample of four members of a school management team, six educators, six learners from representative council of learners, six parents two of whom were members of the governing body from one school was used. Data collection tool was focus group discussions.

**Major Findings:** Three groups namely educators, school management team and school governing body all agreed on the idea of shared decision making and revealed that they participate in decision making and that their participation is an integral aspect of their school effectiveness. The findings also revealed that learners are hardly involved in decision making. In many cases, it is only the chairperson of the students’ council who gets an invitation from the principal particularly to share decisions on pressing and problematic matters. The school management team’s attitude towards learner involvement and participation in democratic governance is negative. They have not yet grasped the concept and they still regard learners as ‘children’ and not as ‘partners in education’. Challenges identified regarding the implementation of participative management were parental apathy regarding their children’s education, illiteracy of parents, gender stereotypes where most decisions were made by men and distance between parents and the school and teachers’ homes, lack of transport and no communication lines at all make it impossible for the school stakeholders to meet regularly.
2.14 Summary of Research Review

The review of the related studies helped the researcher in formulation of the objectives of this study, choosing the appropriate research design, sampling procedures, data collection tools and methods of data analysis. It also helped the researcher in discussion of the findings. However the locality of the study, scope and the sample sizes were different from any of the researches analysed. It was also noted from the reviewed studies that many researchers classified the management tasks into only two, the managerial and instructional domains while this study split them further into curriculum and instruction, students welfare and management, school-community relations, school finance, staff and physical infrastructure management. It is thus with this in mind that the study was designed, that is, to analyze the decision making process in management tasks in secondary schools of Eastern province, Kenya, with a view to making recommendations for a more effective participatory decision making process.
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