

**STAKEHOLDER INVOLVEMENT IN THE MANAGEMENT OF
PUBLIC TECHNICAL TRAINING INSTITUTIONS IN KENYA**

BY

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Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF EDUCATION

in the subject

EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR JJ BOOYSE

June 2012

DECLARATION

I declare that *Stakeholder involvement in the management of public technical training institutions in Kenya* is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

.....
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my deep gratitude and indebtedness to those individuals and institutions without whose support, guidance and co-operation this dissertation would not have been completed successfully. First, my immeasurable appreciation goes to the almighty God for availing me of the opportunity and strength I needed and my employer for providing the necessary financial and other resources to carry out the study. Second, I am grateful to UNISA for according me the opportunity to pursue this Master of Education programme through this institution. Third, my profound gratitude goes to Professor Johan Booyse, the supervisor of this dissertation who, at all times was never too busy to read, make suggestions and advise me throughout the duration of the dissertation, right from the planning stages to the completion of the dissertation. The supervisor was a constant source of inspiration and encouragement, and contributed significantly to the success of the dissertation.

Fourth, the co-operation of all the respondents in the interviews comprising chairpersons of boards of governors, principals, staff, students and parents who participated in the research are sincerely acknowledged. Fifth, the friends led by one Mr. Keta, a PhD student and colleagues with whom we shared information and gave advice during the proposal planning and design process of this study as well as during data collection, analysis and writing of the dissertation. I would like to say a sincere thank you for your cooperation and encouragement. To my beloved children, especially the last little daughters Pacy and Lynn, I owe a great deal of gratitude to them, for their understanding, particularly during the many occasions when I denied them attention and instead left them entirely in the hands of their mother Dorothy, in order to devote every available minute to this study. Finally, I wish to thank Kimani and Rachael as my very able research aids, as well as Mrs. Carol Jansen, the professional editor of this dissertation.

Finally, I would like to absolve all the individuals and institutions mentioned above for any errors of omission and/or commission or any interpersonal errors in this piece of work. For any of these, the researcher remains solely responsible.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my late mother, Mama Dinah Adoyo “*Nyouma.*” She did so much to mould me into a person imbued with a great sense of hope, self-drive-cum-discipline, dedication and commitment to hard work, as well as a solid foundation in the Christian faith; the attributes of my life which have enabled me attain first degree and, possibly, a second one via the flexible but very demanding ODL mode of study.

ABSTRACT

The phenomena of stakeholder identification and involvement in the affairs of public entities has become of great importance in the recent years. Literature review reveals the extent of knowledge and discloses gaps that exist in the management of technical training institutions in Kenya. Therefore, key research questions aimed at achieving the objectives of this study were formulated. For empirical responses, a sample comprising three institutions was chosen, where respondents were selected purposively. Focus group and individual interviews were conducted for qualitative data collection from purposively selected respondents. The data analysis led to the conclusion that stakeholders are varied and their involvement in specific issues minimal. This implies lack of clarity of knowledge of the stakeholders and variation regarding the extent to which they need involvement and the effects. One recommendation is to carry out an analysis to establish legitimate stakeholders and their specific potential influences.

Key words

Management, Administration, Leadership, Stakeholders, Stakeholder Involvement, Participatory Management, Inclusiveness, Training institutions, Higher educational institutions, Education and training, TVET, Effectiveness of training.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

BoG	Board of governors
EFA	Education for all
EHEA	European higher education area
GES	Ghana education service
ICT	Information communication technology
ILO	Industrial Liaison Office
IT	Institute of Technology
KEMRI	Kenya Medical Research Institute
KESSP-	Kenya Education Sector Support Programme
KIE	Kenya Institute of Education
KNEC	Kenya National Examinations Council
MDGs-	Millennium development goals
NCST	National Council for Science and Technology
ODL	Open distance learning
PTA	Parents teachers association
SWAP	Sector wide approach to programming
TIVET	Technical, industrial, vocational and entrepreneurship training
TSC	Teachers Service Commission
TTI	Technical training institution/ Technical training institute
TVET	Technical and vocational education and training
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNEVOC	United Nations Educational and Vocational Centre

CHAPTER ONE

OVERVIEW AND RATIONALE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The origin of formal technical training in Kenya dates back to 1924 when the first formal training institution called the Native Industrial Training Depot was built on the outskirts of Nairobi, now known as the Kabete Technical Training Institute. Many more such institutions have since been established across the country. A Directorate of Technical Education in the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology is responsible for the overall technical and vocational education and training (TVET) policy for the country (Republic of Kenya, 2007: 12).

At present, Kenya has five different categories of public technical training institutions under the ministry mentioned above as part of higher or tertiary education. The categories comprise two polytechnic university colleges, two national youth polytechnics, a technical teachers college, fourteen institutes of technology and nineteen technical training institutes; spread across the country (Wambayi, 2009: 3). This categorisation is essentially based on their historical backgrounds, organisational structures and levels of programmes offered, but all basically admit graduates from secondary education cycle. Programmes offered range from undergraduate degrees to diplomas and certificates in a variety of areas of study, with an emphasis on practical skills development.

From a statistical perspective, in 2008 the total student population of these institutions was 64,957, an increase of 54.6% since 2003 when the number was 42,013, indicating a steady growth in access to technical education over the five year period (Republic of Kenya, 2009: 16).

In addition to the above-mentioned categories of technical training institutions, several others exist under the supervision of other government ministries and state corporations where they were established to provide mainly sector-based specialised skill training. One such category of institutions is referred to as youth polytechnics, which have primary school leavers as their target for the foundation level programme, known as the Artisan Certificate. Another category of institutions falls under a category known as national industrial and vocational training centres, that were established with the goal of imparting skills to already employed industrial workers, and are situated in three major cities of Kenya, namely Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu. Finally, there are private investor-owned training institutions spread across the country (Republic of Kenya, 2007: 21). Regarding general university education, two categories of universities exist in Kenya as part of the higher education system, namely public and private universities (Republic of Kenya, 2009: 17).

In recent years, the national examination candidates at the end of the primary and secondary education cycles have numbered approximately 700,000 and 300,000 respectively on average. A large proportion of students who do not proceed to the next level of the formal 8:4:4 year structure (primary, secondary and university) of the mainstream education system in Kenya, require skills training in order to prepare them for gainful employment (Kosgei, 2009: 6). In addition, the country's labour force is expected to increase from 9.5 million in 2001 to 14 million by the year 2020, which means the Kenyan economy needs to produce 4.5 million more jobs in the current decade (Republic of Kenya, 2003a: 2). The government further suggests that it is vital to carry out reforms aimed at producing human resources with the desired knowledge, skills, values and attitudes if the additional labour force is to contribute effectively to economic development of the country.

In the *Standard* newspaper, Professor Keere (2010: 13), senior lecturer at Moi University, argues that it is recognised that education plays a pivotal role in the alleviation of poverty, ignorance and disease. Furthermore, he explains that when people are sufficiently equipped with relevant knowledge, skills and attitudes, they have the ability to transform natural resources into goods and services that will satisfy general human needs and wants and that

technical and vocational education and training has the potential to play a significant role in this regard.

Professor Keere (2010: 13) continues by arguing that in order to meet the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and other aspirations of the 21st century, institutions of learning in Kenya are being asked to prepare young people for the jobs of tomorrow, and technical, vocational and entrepreneurship training (TVET) has an important role to play in this process. The multidisciplinary nature of TVET and its close links to the world of work, makes it one of the education sectors that contributes greatly to the training of skilled labour, whether school-leavers or older adults, and supplies the knowledge required to apply in a trade. Indeed, for many it is a passport to employment and an opportunity for social advancement. Technical and vocational education is therefore essential in a country's economic and social development, which cannot be achieved without a skilled, productive labour force that meets the changing needs of its environment.

According to the Republic of Kenya (2005: 47), the objectives of the national technical training system are “to provide increased training opportunities for school leavers that will enable them to be self-supporting; to develop practical skills and attitudes, which will lead to income earning activities in the urban and rural areas.” Other objectives are to inculcate technical knowledge, vocational skills and attitudes necessary for work force development and to produce skilled artisans, craftpersons, technicians and technologists for both the formal and informal sectors of the Kenyan economy. In this process, it should create opportunities for gainful employment and lifelong learning for individual and national social-economic development.

Therefore, the overall government policy on technical and vocational education in Kenya is to enhance skills development efforts as a means of creating a critical mass of human resources (Republic of Kenya, 2005: 58). The government further argues that the primary objective of technical and vocational education is to train a skilled labour force that can adapt to the requirements of the labour market and to provide and promote life-long education and training for self-reliance. The government concludes that the aim of public investment in this

sub-sector is “to enhance skills development for increased productivity in order to stimulate economic growth and employment creation.”

In order to achieve these objectives, effective and efficient management and leadership are essential. Van Deventer and Kruger (2005: 68) point out that the terms “leadership” and “management” are distinguishable but more often than not, they are used interchangeably. The authors indicate that the difference between leadership and management is that leadership relates to mission, direction and inspiration, whilst management involves designing and carrying out plans, “getting things done, and working effectively with people.” The management and leadership task cycles can be outlined as shown in the table below:

Table 1.1: Difference between management and leadership tasks

Management task cycle		Leadership task cycle	
1	Setting goals and objectives	1	Creating a vision of how things could be done better
2	Developing clear work programmes	2	Turning visions into workable agendas or projects
3	Facilitating the execution of work programmes	3	Communicating agendas so as to generate excitement and commitment in others
4	Making and monitoring adjustments	4	Creating a climate of problem solving and learning around the agendas
5	Rewarding performance	5	Persisting until the agendas are accomplished

Source: van Deventer and Kruger (2005: 68)

In the opinion of van Deventer and Kruger (2005: 68), one should view management and leadership as opposite sides of the same coin. Leadership without management will not automatically bring about a culture of life-long learning and teaching and *vice versa*. Modern management proponents advocate inclusive approaches that entail stakeholder involvement in the management of the affairs of public enterprises for enhanced accountability, efficiency and effectiveness.

From a review of the local literature, it has emerged that very few studies have been carried out in Kenya in areas relating to the management of public technical training institutions. Among the recent studies consulted, Mumo (2000) carried out a study on the job satisfaction of tutors at technical training institutes in Nairobi; Mukirae (2005) studied the contribution of youth polytechnic programmes to youth employment in Kenya and Simiyu (2007) investigated factors that influence the attractiveness of a technical training institutions in Kenya in a case study of the Kaiboi Technical Training Institute. Apart from these, there appears to be few, if any, local studies specifically addressing the subject of stakeholder involvement in the management of technical training institutions thus leaving a gap in the existing body of literature that this study seeks to fill.

1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

According to Pietersen (2002: 181), all learning organisations develop a “culture of giving” which “fosters teamwork, experimentation, learning and knowledge sharing.” Mburugu, Kasina, Rateng, Muchira, Gakungu, Kidenda and Nyang’ute (2003: 32) argue that stakeholder involvement is a necessary ingredient to bring about successful institutional performance. They further reiterate the World Bank’s recommendation that, in order to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of public training programmes, it should be aimed at meeting specific objectives and adapted to changes in the labour market. Training institutions should be granted a significant degree of autonomy to use the available resources more efficiently, get employers involved in the management of the training system and to diversify sources of funding.

Bakhda (2004: 46) asserts that a number of factors influence good management practice which, in turn, affects the well-being of an institution’s students, staff, parents and other stakeholders. These factors include physical facilities, welfare of staff members, the organisational structure and national education policies. Koech (1999: 147) states that partnership with all stakeholders is a key initiative to ensuring continued support, timely response and relevance of programmes. The author goes on to remark that in Kenya, partnership with key stakeholders not only constitutes giving a larger role to the traditional

industry sector, but also to the informal sector, which constitutes 60% of all jobs outside of the peasant economy. This increased involvement of stakeholders needs to be more than a token gesture. It has to cut across major issues such as planning and implementing of TVET systems.

With a view to increasing effectiveness and efficiency, basic education is regarded as necessary but, on its own, an insufficient condition for adapting training to the challenges of economic globalisation. Simiyu (2007: 39) suggests that the involvement of all stakeholders, including students, teachers, parents and the community, in the management of a technical training institution is a necessary ingredient to bring about successful institutional performance, because such cooperation contribute to the organisation's growth, which is indispensable.

The Republic of Kenya (2009: 52) observes that the technical training system experiences many problems or constraints, some of which can be addressed through stakeholder involvement. Some of these constraints to the technical training system are:

- The high costs of practical training. The involvement of parents, guardians and sponsors can result in resource mobilisation to support the government's efforts,
- An inflexible curriculum can possibly be addressed through the involvement of industry and development partners,
- Disparities in training standards and the disproportionate duplication in the production of skilled personnel require government involvement in creating a coordinating body to harmonise training standards and curricula,
- The lack of up-to-date tools and equipment could be alleviated by involvement of the government, development partners and parents,
- Inadequate funding due to the fact that the government also has other priorities, calls for industry's involvement to make material contributions,
- Little experience in dual forms of training which necessitates involvement of development partners and industry to support benchmarking is critical,
- The increasing mobility of students necessitates cooperation between institutions,

- Mismanagement of scarce resources as well as under-utilisation of available training facilities,
- Unnecessary duplication of efforts,
- Conflict of jurisdiction as well as wasteful and unnecessary competition,
- Costly and irrelevant training programmes.

In spite of the suggestions reflected in the existing literature, there is a lack of evidence that technical training institutions do involve stakeholders in Kenya as a management practice that promotes accountability, value for money and provides incentives to manage resources needed in order to attain the desired organisational goals effectively. In addition, where provision is made for their involvement, their status in the management of the institutions seems to be unclear. This gives rise to the question: “Do educational institutions in Kenya really involve all stakeholders and if so, does it lead to the desired result?” This study is intended to investigate the extent to which key stakeholders external to technical training institutions (members of industry, local community and organisations) as well as internal stakeholders (members of boards of governors, principals, teachers and students) are involved in an attempt to ensure the effectiveness of institutional management.

According to Wambayi (2009: 13), effective and efficient management of educational and training resources is critical for the achievement of the desired objectives. This management process takes place at three levels namely at the government/ministry, the board of governors and principal levels. The legal instrument applicable in this regard is the Education Act, Chapter 211, (1968), which provides for the establishment of a board of governors for each respective TVET institution. According to the act, stakeholder involvement in the management of the institutions is provided for in terms of membership to boards of governors comprising persons from the local community, relevant bodies and organisations, and special interest groups.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Participatory approaches to management, in which the stakeholders are involved in the relevant affairs of institutions, appear to be critical for the achievement of desired goals. Therefore, key stakeholders need to be identified and their involvement embraced in order to help overcome challenges with a view to ensuring efficient and effective management of the Kenyan public technical training institutions. Consequently, the researcher decided to conduct an empirical study to determine the manner, extent and effects of stakeholder involvement in the management of the institutions

This study attempted to address the main question: “What does stakeholder involvement in the management of the Kenyan public technical training institutions entail?” Related research questions that guided the study were the following:

- Who exactly are regarded as key stakeholders in the management of technical training institutions?
- Which stakeholders are actively involved at present?
- To what extent are they involved respectively?
- What is the relationship between the problems experienced in the institutions and stakeholder involvement?
- In which ways can stakeholder involvement enhance the effectivity of management in technical training institutions?

1.4 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The main aim of the study was to establish the extent of stakeholder involvement in the management of the Kenyan public technical training institutions. Specifically, the study was carried out with the objectives of determining:

- Which stakeholders are regarded as key in the management of public technical training institutions
- Which stakeholders are actively involved in public technical training institutions
- The extent to which they are involved.
- The nature of the relationship between problems experienced in public technical training institutions and stakeholder involvement.
- Ways in which the efficiency of management in these institutions can be enhanced through stakeholder involvement.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

1.5.1 General approach to the research

This study can be described as qualitative by nature. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006: 315), in a qualitative method of inquiry:

.. researchers collect data in face-to-face situations by interacting with selected persons in their settings, thereby describing and analysing their individual and collective social actions, beliefs, thoughts and perceptions. The researcher invokes a set of research techniques in which data is obtained from a relatively small group of respondents and not analysed with statistical techniques, but rather follows an inductive process involving collection and analysis of qualitative (i.e. non-numerical) data to search for patterns, themes, and holistic features.

The qualitative approach was considered suitable for this study, based upon the above definition and after consultation with the supervisor.

The data collection was carried out in the form of individual and focus group interviews. At the three sampled institutions, the respondents were the chairpersons of the board of governors and the respective principals. In addition, focus group interviews were conducted with teachers and students as internal stakeholders. During visits to the institutions, the researcher also made observations for the purpose of verifying the data provided as regards

the involvement of the various categories of stakeholders in the management of each of the respective institutions.

Concerning external stakeholder groups, the researcher interviewed one parent connected to the various institutions as representatives of the different local communities.

The interview schedules were designed to focus on the research objectives and in accordance with the literature consulted.

1.5.2 Ethical considerations

The researcher took exceptional care to protect the rights and welfare of the respondents in the study. A research authorisation permit (see Appendix B) was obtained from a Kenyan government agency known as the National Council for Science and Technology (NCST), upon payment of a prescribed fee. This agency is the custodian of the research policy in the country. It regulates research activities in accordance with the relevant laws of the land, as provided in an Act, Chapter 250 (1977) of the laws of Kenya.

The researcher also gave the respondents an assurance that confidentiality would be maintained and that their privacy with regard to the data obtained would be respected. The assurance was given during the interactive sessions between the respondents and the researcher. The identities of the respondents were concealed by the use of codes and pseudonyms as appropriate.

1.5.3 Trustworthiness and triangulation

Trustworthiness of a qualitative study refers to that which is known in quantitative research as reliability and validity. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006: 324), reliability refers to the consistency of measurement or the extent in which the results are similar over different applications of the same instrument or occasions of data collection, as well as the extent to which measures are free from error. On the other hand, they indicate that validity

refers to the truthfulness “or degree of congruence between the explanations of the phenomena and the realities of the world.”

Triangulation implies the application of a number of methods of data collection to ensure that the strengths of one method can offset the weaknesses of the other (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006: 28). In this study, this was achieved through individual interviews, focus group interviews and observation. In addition, comparison with the existing body of knowledge (literature) also played a role.

1.5.4 Methods

1.5.4.1 Data collection

The concept of ‘data collection’ or ‘data gathering’ refers to the process of consulting sources for raw information. There are various strategies a researcher can utilise for data gathering. One such strategy, according to Robson (2002: 83), is a focus group interview, which comprises a group interview on a specific topic. According to Kothari (2007: 98), a focus group interview is meant to focus attention on the given experience of the respondent and the effects of the experience.

A second strategy often utilised for data collection is an individual interview. According to Nigel (2002: 88), an individual interview is face-to-face interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee. Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 232) state that a personal or individual interview “is a face-to-face interpersonal role situation in which an interviewer asks respondents questions designed to elicit answers pertinent to the research objectives”. Focus group and individual interviews are forms of qualitative data gathering, which aim to find out what other people feel and think about the phenomenon under investigation.

In order to implement these two strategies, the researcher prepared a common data collection instrument, namely an interview schedule for the various categories of respondents. The instrument was administered by the researcher personally within a specific timeframe.

1.5.4.2 Observations

Another complementary strategy adopted by the researcher during the data collection process is observation. The strategy of observation entails taking a close look at matters relevant to the subject of the study while on the study visit. According to Kothari (2007: 17), observation as a method of data collection, implies the collection of information by way of the investigator's own observation, without necessarily interviewing the respondents.

1.5.4.3 Data analysis

The data recorded by means of field notes and audio recordings was inspected for completeness, organised and summarised by the researcher for the ultimate purpose of analysis and interpretation.

The researcher used applicable techniques for analysing the qualitative data gathered. The analysis process entailed transcription of the data, noting emerging topics, themes and categories.

1.5.5 Sample

In this investigation, the researcher selected three public technical training institutions, one situated within Nairobi and the other two from the area surrounding Nairobi. The three institutions selected are the result of a combination of stratified and convenience sampling and were selected from a population of 19 technical training institutes operational in the county at the time of the study. The sample was of a stratified nature in the sense that at least two different environments are represented. At the same time, it was convenient for the researcher because the locations of the selected institutions were restricted to Nairobi and its surroundings. The sampling of institutions from Nairobi and its environment was guided by the proximity of the institutions to the researcher whose place of work is in the same area. This was regarded as convenient, taking into account transport costs and the time required for

visiting the institutions. In-depth individual interviews were conducted with the principals of the three sampled institutes and the chairpersons of their boards of governors, each session lasting approximately one hour. Further in-depth focus group interviews were conducted with the teachers at the three institutions, each group comprising five members, resulting in 15 respondents and each session lasting about one hour. At each of the institutions, students were also engaged in a focus group interview, each group comprising seven respondents resulting in 21 student respondents.

In addition to the internal stakeholders interviewed at the three sampled institutions, one parent at each institution representing the local community was also engaged in an in-depth individual interview as external stakeholders, while interviewing of local industry chief executives as part of the sample for the study was discouraged by the participating institutions. There appeared to be a lack of a mutually beneficial working relationship between the majority of the sampled institutions and any identifiable industry within their locality.

1.5.6 Data processing

The qualitative data obtained through the individual interviews and focus group discussions that were captured in field notes, including those recorded, were processed, coded and the frequencies analysed. Following the data analysis, the interpretation of results was carried out in terms of what the findings meant in relation to theories or views reflected in the literature review. Lastly, conclusions and recommendations were formulated based on the findings.

1.5.7 Significance of the research

The researcher envisages that the empirical findings of the study will be useful to the key stakeholders in the management of public technical training institutions in Kenya. The findings will enhance the stakeholders' appreciation of their potential to contribute to the

management of the institutions for the benefit of Kenyan socio-economic development. The study is expected to be of interest to:

- Field technical training officers, to help implement government policy guidelines on matters regarding stakeholder involvement in the management of technical training institutions within their respective regions.
- The community, parents and sponsors who need to understand the significance of stakeholder involvement for the achievement of national goals.
- Boards of governors, principals and teachers, to appreciate the importance of a participatory approach in the management of technical training institutions.
- The government, to develop policies that provide an enabling environment for key stakeholder participation in the management of technical training institutions and to enhance democratic principles in governance.
- Other stakeholders, such as civil societies, universities and professional bodies, to enhance their participation in the management of technical training institutions to produce competent graduates for the needs of the economy.

1.5.8 Motivation for the study

The researcher has a strong interest in the success of technical training achievable through sound management of limited institutional resources. He concurs with the view that technical training institutions need to fulfil their mandate effectively and efficiently if the country is to achieve its long-term social and economic development goals as envisaged in the country's long-term economic blueprint, *Kenya Vision 2030* (Republic of Kenya, 2008: 9). This blueprint argues that the achievement of national economic development goals as envisaged in the vision success hinges upon the availability of technically skilled human resources. It further points out that Kenya is currently plagued with increasing unemployment and poverty. The technical training sub-sector offers the greatest potential for arresting these problems, since it plays a central role in the production of skills for the economy in general

and the labour market in particular. Through this, it provides a potent instrument for designing policies and programmes to combat unemployment and poverty.

In order for the technical training institutions to fulfil their mandate, key stakeholders in the technical training subsector need to be adequately involved in the management of the institutions so that the various stakeholders' respective potential are fully utilised (Republic of Kenya, 2005: 58). The government has apparently committed itself to supporting this idea.

1.6 EXPLANATION OF CONCEPTS

A number of key concepts or terms have been used in this study. These concepts should be understood in the context of this dissertation as explained below:

1.6.1 Involvement

The concept 'involvement' refers to bringing an entity or different entities into an undertaking. In the context of this study, it applies to the bringing of stakeholders into the management affairs of the Kenyan public technical training institutions. It entails stakeholders getting an opportunity to contribute at various levels of management of the institutions. The respective stakeholder groups could make different contributions commensurate with their corresponding potential, which collectively may lead to more efficient and effective provision training in an institution.

Stakeholder involvement may be viewed from two perspectives; the actual participation of stakeholders on the one hand and policy provision for their participation on the other.

1.6.2 Management

"Management" refers to the act of getting people together to accomplish desired goals and it comprises planning, organising, leadership or directing and control. In addition, this concept can be used both as a verb (the art of doing something as in managing an institution) as well

as a noun (as in the management of UNISA). Olum (2004: 27) defines “management as the art, or science of achieving goals through people.” Accordingly, the author argues that managers are expected to ensure greater productivity or, using the current jargon, to make sure that “continuous improvement” takes place.

According to Nieuwenhuis (2001: 5), management, as it relates to institutions, is the process of designing, developing and effecting objectives and resources to achieve predetermined goals. It is about people and relationships, building enabling environments, sharing power, giving others authority to solve problems and being accountable for the outcome. Van Deventer and Kruger (2005: 76) state that there are six areas in education management, which should also apply to technical training, as the latter is only a subsector or specialised form of education. The six areas are learner affairs (which can be sub-divided into curricular and extra-curricular affairs), staff affairs, administrative affairs, financial affairs, physical facilities and institutional community affairs. In a broad context, management affairs in education and training can be taken to include matters of curriculum development and review, curriculum delivery, human capacity building, learning and teaching resources, funding of training services, accountability for resources, governance, and infrastructure development and sustainability.

Effective and efficient participatory management enhances the ownership of strategies and programme implementation. Hence, the potential to realise the broad objectives of access, equity, quality and relevance of education and training as articulated by international conventions, namely the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Education for All (EFA) goals (Republic of Kenya 2005: 36).

According to van Deventer and Kruger (2005: 4), some of the characteristics of institutions with good management are effective teaching and learning, a positive institutional climate, sound classroom environments, sound home-institution relations, effective leadership, management and administration, neat buildings and facilities, availability of resources, high professional standards among teachers, healthy relationships between all roleplayers, order and discipline, effective instructional leadership and a shared sense of purpose. In order to

achieve results, a combination of effectiveness and efficiency are required. Nieuwenhuis (2001: 6) suggests that effectiveness implies doing the things that “will ensure that the goals of the organisation are achieved,” in other words, it means doing the right things. Efficiency, on the other hand, implies doing the things that must be done in the best and most cost-effective way. Effectiveness and efficiency, therefore, also entail the achievement of institutional goals, competitiveness and quality products (both quality learners and quality learning).

Institutions of learning inclusive of technical training institutions require effective management in order to deliver their core mandate of human capacity development. The participation of key stakeholders through their involvement in management is important in this regard.

1.6.3 Stakeholders

This concept ‘stakeholders’ refers to all those individuals or organisations with a stake in or who are affected by the performance of technical training institutions, especially with regard to how available resources are utilised (Republic of Kenya, 2007: 28). Stakeholders are therefore “those groups without whose support the organisation would cease to exist.”

Public technical training institutions are funded through fees paid directly by parents or sponsors as well as grants provided by the government. The government grants are meant to supplement operational expenses and to target specific development projects. In addition, bursary funds are provided to enable needy students to access or complete training. Graduates of these institutions are expected to access gainful employment either in the formal or informal sectors of the economy and to be productive in the provision of goods and services required by the community (Republic of Kenya, 2007: 31). The success of technical training institutions is therefore of interest to a wide cross-section of the society who constitute the stakeholders.

1.6.4 Principal

The concept “principal” refers to the chief executive officer of a technical training institution who is charged with the responsibility of leading and directing the institution in the attainment of its goals. The principal is in charge of the day-to-day running of the institution, overseeing all matters relevant to the management functions.

The principal, as the chief executive officer, is traditionally selected as the secretary to the board of governors but remains an *ex-officio* member of the board, without voting rights.

1.6.5 Staff

The concept of “staff” is used to refer to professionally qualified teachers deployed at a government institution, through a statutory body known as the Teachers Service Commission (TSC), which is the employer of teachers for all public institutions in the country, other than universities. In some cases where there are shortages, a limited number of teachers are often the employees of the board of governors on temporary terms of service. In addition to teaching staff, members of an institution usually referred to as non-teaching staff, are employees of the boards of governors.

1.7 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

The dissertation is presented in five chapters as outlined below.

Chapter one: Overview and rationale

Chapter 1 comprises the introduction to and rationale of the dissertation. It contains the problem statement and research questions, aims and objectives of the research, an indication of the research design and methods, an explanation of concepts and an indication of the division of the chapters of the research report. It also contains information on the significance of and motivation for the study.

Chapter two: Literature review

The information in chapter 2 comprises of relevant literature that puts the research theme into context. It is aimed at establishing gaps that the current study attempts to bridge. It covers information obtained from sources relating to both internal and external stakeholder involvement in the management of technical training institutions, with a conclusion drawn from the various views.

Chapter three: Research design and methodology

Chapter 3 provides details on the research methodology the researcher employed. It focuses on aspects of the research design, research instruments, the study population and location, as well as on data collection and analysis procedures.

Chapter four: Data presentation, analysis and findings

In chapter 4, the empirically collected data that have been thoroughly inspected for completeness, organised and summarised by the researcher, are presented. This entails a presentation and analysis of data gathered from respondents.

Chapter five: Summary, conclusions and recommendations

The final chapter comprises a brief summary of the study's findings and presents conclusions drawn from these findings. It also contains recommendations as derived from the findings and conclusions, as well as an identification of themes for further investigations.

1.8 SUMMARY

This first chapter of the dissertation has attempted to introduce the study in the form of an overview of and rationale for the investigation. The information presented serves as the basis for the literature review in the chapter that follows.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the context of this study, literature refers to the works the researcher consulted to understand and investigate the research problem (Kombo & Tromp, 2006: 22). Boote and Beile (2005: 3) describe a literature review as an evaluative report of studies found in the literature related to the selected area of study by the researcher. The review should describe, summarise, evaluate and clarify the literature. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2002: 74), literature includes many types of sources, for example, professional journals, scholarly books and monographs, government documents, dissertations and electronic resources. A review of the literature serves several purposes in research. For instance, the knowledge gained from the literature aids with formulating the significance of the problem, developing the research design, and relating the results of the study to prior knowledge. In the case of this investigation, the researcher undertook a review of existing literature that was relevant to stakeholder involvement in the management of public technical training institutions within the wider context of institutions of higher education.

According to Guitig, Ndlovu and Bertram (1999: 3), the task of managers in the education and training system can be said to occur at three levels namely the national level (or the government), oversight management level (or the board of governors [BoG]) and institutional level (or administration). They further argue that “the creation and support of an environment which is conducive for teaching and learning is the ultimate goal of the managers at all the three levels mentioned” as well as “that it is important for the management task to be an activity in which all members of educational organizations engage rather than being an exclusive affair.” In this regard, the extent to which effective learning is achieved can become the basis of evaluating the quality of management of an institution. An integrative and collaborative approach to institutional change and management whereby all

staff and stakeholders are involved in management processes and outcomes in an organisational setting is advisable. In such situations, decisions regarding student learning, resource management, staff management and development matters, are made based on commonly agreed principles.

Guitig *et al.* (1999: 4), suggest that “management links goal setting, policy making, planning, budgeting and evaluation at all levels of the institution.” Planning, for example, is the translation of institutional policies into action through shorter-term development activities and it is advisable that it be the prime responsibility of senior staff and community representatives, which is achievable through wide consultations. Where such a practice exists, an opportunity is provided for negotiation of short-term action plans, as well as guidelines to individual staff on how to improve work performance. Guitig *et al.* (1999: 4) further point out that, “resistance to change for improvement abounds where there is poor communication, little or no active participation or involvement of key stakeholders in decisions, and where tensions are allowed to persist unchecked.”

It is interesting to note that Gallagher (2001: 1) differentiates between the concept of ‘management’ and its related terms namely governance, leadership and administration; stating that, “management refers to achieving intended outcomes through the allocation of responsibilities and resources, in order to maintain efficiency and effectiveness.” The author defines the concept “governance” as the “structure of relationships that play a pivotal role in ensuring organizational coherence, authorised policies, plans and decisions and accounts for the probity, responsiveness and cost-effectiveness of these policies, plans and decisions”. Gallagher further defines the concept of “leadership” as “seeing opportunities and setting strategic directions” and the concept of “administration” as the “implementation of authorised procedures and the application of systems to achieve agreed results”.

Kingi (2007: 20) concurs that educational management is an applied field of study and practice, where the function of education management is to provide an assurance that the policies, goals and objectives of education and methods of teaching and learning are formulated. It also determines the achievement of the objectives. In addition, managers

should carry out the procurement of resources and identify the sources of funds, physical facilities, and human resources. They should also organise and coordinate the activities of the institution with the prime aim of achieving the set objectives with maximum efficiency and effectiveness. Further, they should influence and stimulate the available human resources and provide an appropriate organisational climate. It is also the responsibility of managers to integrate the institution and its activities into society. Management involves the evaluation of institutional activities, which should be in accordance to a blueprint evaluation tool that enables the institution to determine the achievement of predetermined goals.

In view of the foregoing, it may be noted that managers increasingly rely on the input of stakeholders to assist them in achieving their tasks, mainly because the task of managers is comprehensive and all-encompassing.

2.2 THE CONCEPT “STAKEHOLDER”

This concept “stakeholder” is treated as a relatively recent concept, with the “father” of the concept being R.E. Freeman, who first popularised it in his management theory that he formulated in 1984 (Fontaine, Haarman and Schmid, 2006: 3). At the time, Freeman a scholar in the field of management, provided what was later to be referred to as “the traditional definition of stakeholders namely any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation’s objectives” (Fontaine *et al.*, 2006: 3). However, it appears that there has been a misunderstanding of the concept over the years. Subsequently, Freeman (2004, as cited by Fontaine *et al.*, 2006: 4), has provided the following precise definition: “stakeholders are those groups who are vital to the survival and success of the corporation.”, Fontaine *et al.* add that Freeman expanded the stakeholder theory by arguing that consideration of the perspective of the stakeholders themselves and their activities is also important with respect to management.

For the purpose of this study, the concept “corporation” also includes “institution” and a broad definition of a “stakeholder” is used in the sense that the latter refers to the person or entity perceived to possess a legitimate interest in the Kenyan public technical training

institutions and therefore acquires the right to intervene if necessary. With regard to the education and training sector, Amaral, Jones and Karseth (2002: 1) provide examples of stakeholders in the case of an educational institution. According to them, this concept includes the teaching staff, students, parents, employers, the state and the institutions themselves (in their relationship with the system). It appears that, in general, the concept refers to what an organisation ought to be and how it should be conceptualised. Friedman and Miles (2006: 5) state that the “organisation itself should be thought of as a grouping of stakeholders and the purpose of the organisation should be to manage their interests, needs and viewpoints.”

With reference to institutions of higher education, Amaral *et al.* (2002: 11) argue that one can distinguish between two types of stakeholders, namely internal and external stakeholders. Internal stakeholders are “all those individuals or groups who participate in the daily life of the institution, including the academic staff, non-academic staff and students.” It is observed that not long ago, internal stakeholders played an important role in the governance of higher education, with the degree of importance assigned to students as internal stakeholders varying over the last few decades. During the third quarter of the 19th century, for instance, at the University of Bologna in Europe, students hired professors on an annual basis and ruled the university. Groups of students monitored the activities of professors and the quality of their teaching, and even imposed fines based on professors’ poor performance.

It is noteworthy, however, that the role of students in university governance gradually became less important until after the student uprising of 1968 resulted in reforms in higher education across many European countries. The reforms aimed at granting students greater representivity on the governing bodies of the institutions of higher learning, where they were to be considered as members of the academic community, not clients or customers of the various institutions. Currently, students are not viewed as consumers of a tradable service, but rather their social and civil contributions are recognised as the primary function of the higher education community. Therefore, they have to be viewed in the same light as parents, taxpayers, employers, the state and even international organisations.

The concept “external stakeholder” is used to refer to representatives of the “outside world” and their interests in institutional management. Their recognition is justified when it is considered that it is legitimate because those who they represent have a “legitimate” interest in the social, economic and cultural function of the institution. It is regarded as useful because they enhance the institutions’ innovation and responsiveness to the “real” needs of society. Based on the foregoing arguments, external stakeholders appear to take up an increasing significance as compared to internal stakeholders. This tends to make higher education institutions more responsive to the dynamics of the society.

The concept “external stakeholder” is “complex and open to different interpretations,” argue Amaral *et al.* (2002: 12). For example, external stakeholders can be defined narrowly as “representatives of outside interests” just as internal stakeholders have a role to play in the management of firms and companies. In this case, external stakeholders representing industry and employers may be taken as being part of the management to communicate their own human resource needs and research interests to the institution. This is applicable in the context of higher education institutions as service providers since the external stakeholders could encourage positive attitudes in the interest of the society of which the institutions are part.

On the other hand, external stakeholders can also be defined more broadly and in terms that describe their role as the direct opposite to the role just described. In this regard, Amaral *et al.* (2001: 12) argue, “it is unwise to view the market as a good regulator of higher education, since market regulation may lead to an ethically or socially unacceptable distribution of outcomes in terms of equity or even result in the loss of the institution’s soul.” These authors suggest further that the role of the external stakeholders according to this perspective is to represent the broader and long-term interests of society and corresponds with the notion of higher education serving the public good. In this regard, the external stakeholder’s role is not to promote market values, but to ensure that externalities and the core values of the institution are not jeopardised by attitudes emphasising short-term market values while ignoring the institution’s social role. The authors assert that this is comparable to the traditional ideal role of the trustees of American universities, which “represent the interest of

society but, at the same time, uphold the core values of the institution as seen by society and defined in the institution's mission statement.”

At a time when institutions of higher education are increasingly called upon to play the role of service providers and are compelled to look for alternative sources of financing, it may be advantageous to have outside participation from society to determine which activities are not compatible with the institution's core values, even if large financial resources are generated. In order for external stakeholders to perform the kind of moral oversight role effectively, a great amount of care needs to be taken in their appointment to ensure the choice is made judiciously.

Gross and Godwin (2005: 1) state, “Educators should take their cue from the success businesses have enjoyed by identifying, learning from and involving their stakeholders.” Importantly, Gross and Godwin define “stakeholders” as “individuals or entities who stand to gain or lose from the success or failure of a system or an organisation.” Further, the writers identify stakeholders in education as “parents, students, alumni, administrators, employers and communities.” According to them, these stakeholders in education have various influences on the outcome of education and the purposes of learning, thus affecting how educational institutions are structured, learning defined, and the nature of the student understood.

This variety of purposes, definitions and understandings can be a challenge to educators in adjusting their efforts to accommodate inputs from stakeholders. Gross and Godwin (2005: 2) suggest performing a stakeholder analysis through which, once relevant stakeholders are identified, it is then determined which of them “have both the greatest interest and the most influence on a given educational institution.”

2.3 STAKEHOLDER THEORIES/MODELS

A number of writers have advanced stakeholder theories or models during the last two and a half decades. Some of these theories/models have been selected and are discussed below because they have the potential to underpin the theme of this study.

2.3.1 Freeman's strategic management model

The strategic management model of Freeman, first formulated in 1984, was based on business ethics (Donaldson & Preston, 1995: 60). Freeman is an American Philosopher and Professor in the Business Administration Department at the Darden School of the University of Virginia. He is especially known for his work on stakeholder theory (1984). According to Donaldson and Preston (1995: 60), there are four central theses related to Freeman's stakeholder theory:

- A stakeholder theory is essentially a descriptive model of a corporation.
- A stakeholder theory is instrumental in offering a framework for the investigation of links between conventional corporate performance and the practice of stakeholder management.
- In addition to a stakeholder theory being descriptive and instrumental, it is also fundamentally normative; it takes into account the interests of all who are considered to be intrinsically valuable.
- A stakeholder theory is managerial "as it recommends attitudes, structures and practices, and requires that simultaneous attention be accorded to the interests of all legitimate stakeholders."

Further, Donaldson and Preston (1995: 60), in their explanation of Freeman's theory, identify "performance" as the main dependent construct and "stakeholder interests" as the main independent construct. In their concise description of the theory, they state that, "numerous views of stakeholder theory exist in the literature though a key distinction can be drawn between the tenets of stakeholder theory and the conventional input-output model of the firm which see firms as converting investor, supplier, and the employee inputs into customer outputs." They point out that, "in contrast, stakeholder theory argues that every legitimate person or group participating in the activities of a firm do so to obtain benefits and the

priority of the interests of all legitimate stakeholders is not self-evident” (Donaldson & Preston, 1995: 60).

In turn, Friedman and Miles (2006: 86) provide a four-way typology of generic stakeholder strategies, arguing that the success of particular strategic programmes can be affected by stakeholders’ potential for change and its relative power. Therefore, they suggest that management should seek strategic guidance by examining the relative competitive threat and relative cooperative potential of each stakeholder. Their strategies for stakeholder classifications are indicated in the matrix below:

Table 2.1: Generic stakeholder strategies

		Relative competitive threat	
		High	Low
Relative cooperation potential	High	1 Swing – Change	2 Offensive – Exploit
	Low	3 Defensive - Defend	4 Hold - Hold current position
		High	Low

Source: Friedman and Miles (2006: 86)

According to Friedman and Miles (2006: 86), the offensive strategies in quadrant 2 are applicable where a stakeholder group has a relatively high cooperative potential and relatively low competitive threat. The idea here is to try to bring about the stakeholder’s cooperative potential.

The defensive strategies in quadrant 3 are applicable where a stakeholder group has a relatively high competitive threat and relatively low cooperative potential to present threat.

The swing strategies in quadrant 1 are applicable where a stakeholder group has relatively high cooperative potential as well as competitive threat. Lastly, the hold strategies are applicable where a stakeholder group has both a relatively low competitive threat and cooperative potential, in order to continue current strategic programmes and maintain stakeholder potential.

Thereafter, several models or theories pertaining to stakeholders have emerged.

2.3.2 Phillips' stakeholder theory and organisational ethics

Phillips (2003: 8) worked on organisational management and business ethics where he addresses the morals and values of management in an organisation. Phillips' theory focusses on the "principle of who or what really counts," addressing the following fundamental issue: "If everyone is a stakeholder, then the term is empty and adds no value." Further, Phillips declares that among the problems regarding much of the stakeholder literature available, is the inability of theories to delink "those groups that are (and) those groups that are not legitimate stakeholders," adding that such problems arise from an insufficient understanding of the notion of legitimacy in stakeholder theory.

Phillips (2003: 9) also argues that legitimacy in stakeholder theory may be treated in two different forms namely normative and derivative, where normative legitimacy arises from the principle of stakeholder fairness and the obligations that are associated with it, while derivative legitimacy is derived from prior moral obligations. It is important to realise that "the distinction between normative and derivative legitimacy helps to distinguish between a relationship between the organization based on a direct moral obligation, and one based on the power to help or harm the organization" (Phillips, 2003: 9).

It has to be noted that the relationship between an organisation or institution and its stakeholders has certain implications for all concerned. Accordingly, Friedman and Miles (2002: 1) look at this issue with respect to "the implications of contentious relationships between the stakeholders and organisations by introducing compatible /incompatible interests

and necessary/contingent connections as additional attributes with which to examine the configuration of the relationships.” In this regard, they note that “organisations that implement enterprise or institutional systems have no alternative but to incorporate various stakeholders, including parties internal and external to the organisation, who certainly will affect the attainment of organisational objectives.” Based on this suggestion, Friedman and Miles (2002: 1) advise that an institution should understand and learn “how to manage its various stakeholders in the best way possible.” Importantly, an institution needs to:

...develop good relationships with and between stakeholders for greater inter-connectedness internally and to facilitate rapid communication and information exchange across the network in order to ultimately result in clear understanding of norms and expectations as well as their acceptance across the board (Miles, 2002:1)

2.3.3 Clarkson’s social performance theory

In their work, *Stakeholders: Theory and practice*, Friedman and Miles (2006: 89) focus on an article by Clarkson (1995) and discuss a theory that provides a framework for analysing and evaluating corporate social performance. Clarkson is cited as postulating, “a framework based on managing interactions with stakeholders was likely to facilitate a more effective analysis and evaluation of corporate social performance than models based on concepts of corporate social performance and responsiveness.” This idea had also been advanced in earlier theories.

Clarkson argues that the term “social responsiveness” tends to have no other meanings for managers, students, or academic researchers and scholars, than being a framework for the systematic collection, organisation and analysis of corporate data. However, the author suggests that managers should have knowledge of accountability, obligations and responsibilities to stakeholder groups, despite the fact that they may not have been trained in these matters. Against this background, Clarkson formulated what he called a “reactive-accommodative-defensive-proactive (RADP) scale.” This is illustrated in the table below.

Table 2.2: Clarkson’s reactive-accommodative-defensive-proactive scale

Rating	Posture and strategy	Performance
Proactive	Anticipate responsibility	Doing more than required
Accommodative	Accept responsibility	Doing all that is required
Defensive	Admit responsibility, but forget it	Doing the least that is required

Source: Friedman and Miles (2006: 89)

The Clarkson’s scale above suggests that the first category of stakeholders rated as proactive are those who will be ready and willing to go beyond expectation in performing their task to the organisation. The second group, namely the accommodative group, will accept the responsibility given to them and just perform to the optimum level without exceeding expectations. Finally, the third category rated as defensive will not perform the given task. This scale is helpful in analysing and anticipating stakeholders’ performance concerning the achievement of desired institutional objectives. It is noted that Friedman and Miles have avoided discussing the “reactive” group which, in terms of posture and performance, “deny responsibility” and “doing less than required” respectively in Clarkson’s model.

According to Friedman and Miles (2006: 89), Clarkson holds the opinion that social issues can be taken into account even if they are not legislated or regulated, but in the long-term and for enforcement purposes, alternative measures are necessary. He believes that certain general requirements are necessary to keep institutional principal stakeholder groups sufficiently satisfied so that they remain “part of the corporate system.”

2.3.4 Jones’ instrumental stakeholder theory

In 1995, what is referred to as the instrumental stakeholder theory was formulated by Jones. According to Friedman and Miles (2006: 90), the instrumental stakeholder theory focusses on “reasons why acting ethically should (or at least is likely to) lead to competitive advantage.” In this regard, Jones’ argument relates to “information imperfection” within an institution and particularly with respect to the costs incurred to overcome such imperfections. Jones suggests that the reputation of an institution for acting ethically will no doubt eliminate

the repercussions of information imperfections. In this respect, Jones believes that the costs to be incurred, if any, should be minimal. In this regard, it appears that an institution needs to work ethically with its stakeholders at all times.

2.3.5 Savage *et al.*'s assessing and managing theory

Another theory reviewed by Friedman and Miles (2006: 87) is the “assessing and managing theory” developed by Savage, Nix, Whitehead and Blair in 1991. This theory focusses on strategies for assessing and managing stakeholders and is based on Freeman’s model in that it applies the same constructs. The constructs are “stakeholder capacity and willingness to threaten or cooperate with the organisation or institution.” There exists the “power of threat” which is said to be determined by “resource dependence, the stakeholders’ ability to form coalitions and relevance of the threat to a particular issue” (Friedman & Miles, 2006: 87). Furthermore, it is suggested that the quality and durability of the organisation-stakeholder relationships can be examined when the potential for threat has to be assessed. On the other hand, the potential of a stakeholder to cooperate can be determined partly by the stakeholder’s capacity to expand its interdependence with the organisation or institution; where the willingness to cooperate is directly proportional to dependence.

Below is an illustration of four types and four strategies for managing stakeholders as developed by Savage *et al.* (1991).

Table 2.3: Managing stakeholders: Types and strategies

		Potential threat	
		High	Low
Potential for cooperation	High	Stakeholder type 4 Mixed blessing Strategy: Collaborate	Stakeholder type 1 Supportive Strategy: Involve
	Low	Stakeholder type 3 Non-supportive Strategy: Defend	Stakeholder type 2 Marginal Strategy: Monitor

Source: Friedman and Miles (2006: 87)

For type 1 stakeholders, there is a low potential for threat and a high potential for cooperation, which corresponds to Freeman's "offensive" category and its associated strategy of exploitation. This type is viewed as ideal and includes, among others, the board of trustees, managers, employees and the parent body. Type 2 stakeholders are taken as marginal as they are least concerned with their stake in the organisation, hence they have a low potential for both threat and cooperation. This corresponds with Freeman's "hold" quadrant with Savage *et al.* placing consumers, interest groups, professional associations for employees and shareholders under this type.

Type 3 stakeholders are seen as non-supportive but having a high potential for threat and low potential for cooperation. They are a source of great distress for the organisation or institution and include competitors, unions, the media and even the government. The two models, namely those of Freeman and Savage *et al.* respectively, agree on the defensive strategy. The fourth type is referred to as a "mixed blessing" because the potential of both threat and cooperation are both high. The strategy to cope with this type of stakeholder, as suggested by Savage *et al.*, is collaboration, while Freeman's solution is a changing of the rules. The result, however, is the same, which is increasing potential for cooperation and a reduction of threats.

Turning to the governance of institutions of higher learning under which technical training institutes currently fall, it is clear that a change of approach has occurred in recent years. The section below discusses the change briefly.

2.4 CHANGE OF PARADIGM

According to Amaral *et al.* (2002: 9), recently there has been a stronger focus on the economic functions of higher education institutions than ever before and this new perspective has had a marked influence on the latter's governance models, especially over the last two decades. In this regard, institutions are required to become "relevant" by governments and to increase their responsiveness to the "external world," but these views are only understood in

economic terms, hence the emphasis on economic gains from such actions by the institutions. Instead of protecting the institutions from external intervention and influence, some states have taken steps such as introducing legislation to guarantee that “third parties” do intervene.

Amaral *et al.* (2002: 9) also maintain that the new “Babel tower” model in which national interest is supposed to be protected and enhanced by representatives of the outside world acting within the academic institutions themselves, now challenges the “ivory tower” model. Amaral *et al.* also contend that during the previous two centuries, “the term ‘ivory tower’ has been used to designate a world or atmosphere where intellectuals engage in pursuits that are disconnected from the practical concerns of everyday life.” In terms of the new model, the state assumes that the best protection for institutions is to provide no protection at all; consequently, it frequently modifies the governing structures of higher education institutions so that they become more open to external influences. The technical training institutes, being part of higher education institutions, were also required to modify their governing structures to comply with the paradigm shift. It is therefore important to look at the status of the policy regarding stakeholder involvement in technical training institutes in Kenya. This is the topic to be discussed in the section that follows.

2.5 POLICY ON STAKEHOLDER INVOLVEMENT

2.5.1 General perspective

Generally speaking, one often gets the impression that policies are operating rules which aim to maintain order, security, and consistency or pursue a goal or mission in an organisation. According to Merriam-Webster’s dictionary (1993: 1754), the concept ‘policy’ refers to:

...prudence or wisdom in the management of affairs, management or procedure based primarily on material interest, a definite course or method of action selected from among alternatives and in light of given conditions to guide and determine present and future decisions, or a high level overall plan embracing the general goals and acceptable procures especially of a governmental body.

Torjman (2005: 142), pronounces that the citizens of a country “literally eat, drink and breathe public policy, as it determines the quality of the air they breathe the water they drink, the food they eat and education and training they get.” In this regard, Torjman asserts that there are different ways to look at the subject of policy. First, a policy can be an issue of a substantive and administrative nature: regarding legislation, programmes and practices that govern the substantive aspects of institutional work, with others mainly concerned with administrative procedures. A second way of looking at them is through a classification of policies as either substantive or administrative in nature, where horizontal policy refers to a policy that is developed within the organisation and determines who should take responsibility for its implementation. In contrast, a vertical policy refers to a policy that is developed within a single organisational structure and generally starts with the details of broad overarching policy, also known as a “corporate” or “framework” policy. In this case, the head office makes the decisions to guide subsequent decisions throughout the different levels of an organisation or institution. At a regional level, a regional or “strategic” policy is often developed to translate the overarching policy into policy for the specific context of the region, with the aim to be specific enough to guide operational decision-making on a lower level.

Torjman (2005: 142) further explains that another way of looking at a policy is to categorise it as reactive or proactive, where a “reactive policy emerges in response to a concern or crisis that need to be addressed, while proactive policies are those that are introduced and pursued on a deliberate, pre-emptive basis.” In addition, Torjman suggests that a further way of categorising policies is to distinguish between “those that are currently on the public agenda and those that are not there yet,” thus “current and future policy.”

With respect to the purpose and development of a policy, Torjman (2005: 143), provides the following explanation, “Policies generally have clear and unique objectives and often seeks the achievement of a desired goal which is in the best interest of all members of a society.” Public policy is defined as a “deliberate and (usually) careful decision that provides guidance for addressing selected public concerns.” Its development, therefore, has to be a “decision-making process that helps address specific goals, problems or concerns.” The actual

formulation must entail identification and analysis of actions to respond to the concerns of the subjects of the policy.

Stakeholder involvement in the management of public technical training institutions in Kenya is one such concern or objective for which a public policy is required.

2.5.2 Kenyan perspective

In Kenya, a number of government documents that serve as sources of public policy with regard to the subject of this study have been traced. These documents comprise two types, namely an Education Act and government circulars.

2.5.2.1 The Education Act

The Education Act, Chapter 211 of the laws of Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 1968: 47), is the legal instrument that guides the administration and management of education in the country, except for university education. Within the act, a section on the management of public technical training institutions provides for a board of governors as an oversight management body for each respective institution. According to subsection 4(1)/ (2) (a) – (e), involvement of various categories of stakeholders is provided for. The composition of the board of governors is documented thus (a) a chairman, appointed by the minister, (b) three local community representatives, (c) four representatives from bodies and organisations, (d) three persons representing special interests and (e) three co-opted members.

In practice, it is not clear if the institutions are able to comply fully with these provisions when they are carrying out nominations for appointments. Again, it appears that the interpretation of the various provisions is not uniform which results in instances where certain key stakeholders are left out of the management of the institutions.

The Education Act is more or less static, in that it tends to take too long to revise in order to take into account changing circumstances. This has necessitated the issuing of government circulars to institutions from time to time.

2.5.2.2 Government circulars

Over the years, through the ministry in charge, the government has issued circulars to institutions to complement the Education Act as far as a need is felt to address certain emerging issues are concerned. There are two most recent circulars in this regard; (Wambayi, 2008 and 2011).

In 2007/2008, serious post-election violence erupted in Kenya resulting in severe tribal animosity among certain communities. After the violence was brought under control, a circular was issued, which introduced a requirement that at least one third of a governing board's membership must comprise non-local community members. The intention was to nurture the spirit of national cohesion and integration among various Kenyan communities by adding to the management structures of educational institutions a national outlook. In 2011, it was felt that besides the rapidly increasing level of literacy in the country, the institutions were receiving such enhanced government grants that it required an improved level of governance; hence a circular was issued to the effect that "all members of boards must have at least a university degree qualification."

It is not yet clear how the contents of the circulars affected the provisions of the Education Act. Uncertainty also surrounds the manner in which the Act and the circulars are interpreted and the extent to which they are implemented by the institutions.

2.6. EXTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS

An important category of stakeholders is the external stakeholders who come from outside an institution of learning. This category of stakeholders appears to be gaining in importance. Amaral *et al.* (2002: 2) argue that an analysis of a number of European higher education

systems has indicated a need for external stakeholders to execute their new role in higher education institution governance effectively. In this regard, institutions of higher education were previously expected to rise above immediacy, making them relatively detached from society. However, a shift with respect to the socio-economic functions of the institutions has taken place to such an extent that, at present, there is considerable pressure on these institutions to become “relevant” in response to, for example, state financial stringency and demands that the institutions address the economic needs of their environment. In the near future, it can be expected that knowledge will become increasingly important and globalisation will intensify, compelling institutions to find a way to reconcile external pressures in order to remain relevant to the society even as it aims to achieve a long-term vision.

According to Scott (in, Amaral *et al.*, 2002: 15), during the period of the “secondary” welfare state in the last quarter of the 20th century, when political, social and educational institutions were mobilised to promote democracy and encourage social mobility, the institutions were asked to satisfy rising social expectations primarily and only secondarily, to meet the increasing demand for skilled labour. In this regard, the involvement of various stakeholders in the management of institutions of learning such as those of technical training provided an opportunity for the fulfilment of social expectations. Simultaneously it created a new challenge for the institutions, namely to manage the varied interests of stakeholders effectively.

Amaral *et al.* (2002: 15), contend that, in general, there has been an increase in the role of external stakeholders at the expense of internal stakeholders. In Spain and Italy, for example, external stakeholders have acquired an important role both in terms of approving budgets and in shaping the development plans of institutions. In Norway, the establishment of institutional boards with the power to establish long-term institutional priorities has been recommended. It is noteworthy, however, that external stakeholders tend to see themselves more as representatives of outside interests. For example, in the Netherlands, members of one institution’s external stakeholder group suggested that their first task was to tell the institution what kinds of graduate were necessary for the Dutch economy. Amaral *et al.*

further point out that, in Spain, some universities complained that lay members of the councils did not use their influence to promote institutional interests among the regional government or the local society, while gross interference by regional authorities was also observed. Again, Amaral *et al.* observe that in Italy, regional authorities and representatives of regional interests were intervening increasingly in the development plans of the institutions, which could, in fact, be regarded as interference.

Cloete and Bunting (2007: 5), maintain that in South Africa, external stakeholders do not seem to have a clear idea of their role in the governing bodies of higher education institutions. The institutions are complex organisations and it is not easy for a lay member of a governing body to understand the culture, the norms and values that create an institutional ethos fully. In many cases, they are often unable to appreciate the nature of the problems being debated from an institutional perspective completely; an indication of the need to clarify the roles of the respective stakeholders.

Based on the foregoing discussions, it can be concluded that external stakeholders tend to see themselves more as representatives of outside interests than as upholding the core values of institutions of higher education as seen by society and defined in the institution's statutes and mission statement. However, it is noteworthy that there are categories of external stakeholders whose involvement in the management of technical training institutions can be of significant benefit. The Republic of Kenya (2007: 4), through the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, has identified a number of such external stakeholders who may be involved in the management of educational institutions. These include the private sector (employers), the local community and the international community. The possible role of these groups in the management of technical training institutions, are discussed in the sections that follow.

2.6.1 Employers

It is assumed that a large number of graduates of technical training institutions are absorbed into the world of work through salaried employment in the industries or the private sector

where the bulk of opportunities are known to exist. Therefore, this sector of the Kenyan economy is regarded as an external stakeholder in the management of technical training institutions. The concept ‘private sector’ refers to business organisations other than those that are public or state-owned and is seen as one of the major “consumers” of graduates of technical training institutions in form of employment. According to the Republic of Kenya (2007: 5), the private sector encompasses privately owned manufacturing industries, and service providers in such areas as hospitality, health, insurance, education and transport. The United Nations Educational and Vocational Centre contends that involving the private sector in setting the content of training is regarded as crucial because this form of collaboration makes it possible to train young people more effectively for the workplace (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2007: 11). Furthermore, the Centre observes that the Ghana Education Service (GES), for example, has highlighted the importance of close relations between TVET institutions and business enterprises. In this regard, industrial and commercial interests need to be adequately represented on the governing boards and programme advisory committees of TVET institutions. This is expected to result in the contents of the courses provided being able to meet industrial and commercial requirements and being in tandem with the changing needs of the job market.

With regard to Kenya, a system for co-operation between private enterprises and training institutions exists to allow business representatives to take part in the work of respective programme development committees of the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE). This applies to committees which decide on the subjects to be taught and the committees responsible for the courses themselves. Therefore, technical training institutions welcome their involvement in governing boards. This process is meant to ensure that the needs of the industry are taken into account in every TVET programme developed at the national level (Republic of Kenya, 2005: 13). The effectiveness of this system is not yet clear particularly with regard to the aspect of dynamism of the job market.

In practice, however, it seems as though an insufficient number of active collaborative mechanisms are in place in Kenya. According to Koech (1999:153), more active collaborative mechanisms between the industry and training institutions should be put in

place to ensure the relevance of training. It is emphasised that the technical training institutions need to develop direct linkages with the world of work, to solicit industry support in the enhancement of practical training through such initiatives as donating equipment, staff exchange programmes and placement of students and staff on work experience.

Schemburg and Teichler (2006: 6) argue that, “higher education must prepare students to become highly skilled specialists and to be versatile in many other domains.” In this regard, students have to:

..increase their body of knowledge and learn to transfer academic knowledge into practical problem solving, to be trained to cope with established jobs requirements and to question the established rules and tools, to foster the cognitive competences and to provide opportunities of developing socio-communicative competences, and to develop work attitudes and values that are not in the domain of cognitive training.

Further, graduates tend to spend longer periods of learning prior to employment and are increasingly expected to supplement their competencies through learning on the job and continuing professional education. Subsequently, a closer linkage between technical training institutions and local industries could therefore lead to mutual benefits for both parties. In this connection, Akumu (2003: 27) suggests that industry should be encouraged to donate equipment and training materials to technical training institutions. Similarly, co-operation between the institutions and business enterprises could come in several forms, ranging from sandwich training, which implies training comprising of alternate sessions in class and industry, to collaboration in research and development. The involvement of the enterprises in the affairs of technical training institutions reinforce and complement the institutions to turn out trainees who are better qualified and better able to adapt to the business world.

Akumu (2003: 27) adds that co-operation between technical training institutions and business enterprises could include the engagement of technical teachers and their students in specialised skills by carrying out projects relevant to the courses offered. Furthermore, Akumu claims that such initiatives have the twofold advantage of allowing the enterprise to benefit from the technical expertise of the relevant and competent departments of technical

training institutions and generating financial and material resources which are essential to the proper functioning of these institutions, as well as giving them the opportunity to upgrade their human resources and facilities. Akumu concludes that both students and teachers appear to be much more motivated when working on a business project. This provides an opportunity for the institutions to translate and apply knowledge and skills into practical real life situations.

One of the practical ways of fostering linkages with the industry is the inclusion of their representatives in the boards of governors. In this regard, the Republic of Kenya (2004: 4) recommends that members of boards of governors of technical training institutions should include industry representatives.

2.6.2 Local community

The second important type of external stakeholder is the local community. Wangatho (2007: 2) states that the stakeholders as provided for in the Education Act Cap 211 include, among others, the local community within which the institution is built, may have donated the land, as well as participated in the construction of the institution. This fact justifies the appointment of members of boards of governors from the community so that the community can be involved in decision-making to influence the development of the institution.

According to Kingi (2007: 18), the local community is very important as the institution is meant to benefit the community directly; hence, a relationship of co-existence should be created between the institution and the community. The community supplies the institution with learners, workers and resources needed; the institution should reciprocate in a positive manner. Where the parents are not involved in the management of the institutions, their prospective contribution might otherwise remain hidden and therefore underutilised for the good of the institution.

There appears to be more and more arguments in support of community involvement in institutional management. Kibui (2008: 42) points out that institution-community links are

mutually beneficial relationships in which the principal of the training institution can play a leading role. The community can assist with the creation of a sound learning climate in different ways. It can, for example, provide direction regarding the recruitment of volunteers to help at institution functions, provide security and provide learning opportunities for students at fieldwork and other practical aspects. In order to ensure the involvement, it was an important duty of the principal to inform the community of their roles. Principals can involve the institution to the community by inviting them to participate in decision-making. As a way of reciprocating, institutions could go to the community to render services such as cleaning the hospitals, washing clothes for the elderly and cleaning up streets.

On the other hand, the local community can also have a negative impact on an institution. Akumu (2003: 39) claims that institutions, which are prone to adverse effects from the community, such as the influence of drug peddling and illicit brews, impact negatively on students. In addition, political and personal interests in the management of institutions compromise the smooth running of an institution.

2.6.3 International community

The next important type of external stakeholder is the international community, since the development of the majority of the technical training institutions in Kenya were funded by donor agencies from the international community. The costs involved in establishing technical training institutions are relatively high since institutions must have workshops complete with machinery, laboratories with equipment, tuition, administration and recreation facilities, necessitate collaborative arrangements with the international community.

According to Mukirae (2005: 78), the international and bi-lateral donor community should come to the aid of technical training institutions by providing grants for capital development expenditure of the institutions to enable them to expand their capacity and modernise their training equipment. In this regard, the Italian government has, for example, provided financial support to Kenya, which was used for the acquisition and installation of state-of-the-art equipment in electrical and electronics engineering at the former Kenya and Mombasa

polytechnics (Republic of Kenya, 2007: 6). This support has since resulted in the two institutions being upgraded to university colleges to offer degree courses. An Italian, Mr. Montaccini, served as a member of a national steering committee that was charged with the responsibility of spearheading the upgrading of the two former national polytechnics into institutions with degree awarding status “without losing their focus on the production of middle level manpower for the industry” (Republic of Kenya, 2007: 6).

In recognition of the importance of the international community’s contributions to the development of the education and training sector of the economy, Kenya adopted a sector wide approach to programming (SWAP) six years ago (in 2005) to ensure the well-coordinated development of the sector. In terms of this approach, funds from different development partners of the international community were pooled, and together with funds provided by the government channelled to prioritised programmes. The SWAP concept was implemented under the title Kenya Education Sector Support Programme (KESSP), of which the first phase spanned 2005-2010. Accordingly, the Republic of Kenya (2009: 3) points out that through KESSP, development partners had in the previous three fiscal years of 2007/2008, 2008/2009 and 2009/2010 set aside funding for programmes in technical training institutions totalling Ksh. 325 million, 327 million and 427 million respectively. Specific programmes funded at the technical training institutions are the following: building the capacity of managers, integration of information communication technology in training, establishment of model institutions into centres of excellence, upgrading of infrastructure and equipment, curriculum review, rationalisation and harmonisation, bursary schemes for needy students and development of units for innovation referred to as business incubators.

Some of the international community bodies chose to extend their support in terms of the development of technical training institutions outside the KESSP arrangement due to their focus as well as other specific considerations. In addition, Ksh. 2.5 billion was approved by the African Development Bank (ADB) over the same period for the construction of eight new technical training institutions across the country within a five year period. The project was aimed at expanding access, enhancing quality and relevance and attaining equity in technical training opportunities to meet the objectives of developmental goals of higher

education, science, technology and innovation in accordance with Kenya's socio-economic development goals.

These initiatives are an indication of the commitment by the country's development partners to support its technical training institutions, which are characterised by increased expectations such as transparency and accountability in the management of available resources. The involvement of members of the international community agencies that provide the funding in the management of the institutions is inevitable to ensure that the resources are fully utilised for the purpose for which they are intended.

What follows next is a discussion on the internal stakeholders of an institution of higher education.

2.7. INTERNAL STAKEHOLDERS

There are various types of internal stakeholders that can get involved in the management of technical training institutes. According to Amaral *et al.* (2002: 11), internal stakeholders are all those who participate in the daily life of the institution and include the BoGs academic staff, non-academic staff as well as students. Their involvement in the management leads to ownership of management decisions that might affect them; hence, there is less likelihood of resistance. In the sections below, involvement of the various types of internal stakeholders in the management of technical training institutions is discussed.

2.7.1 Board of governors

The first type of internal stakeholder in the management of technical training institutions is the board of governors (BoG), which is established to manage an institution on behalf of the government. A principal is the board secretary and runs an institution on a daily basis; therefore, the board is treated as an internal stakeholder. According to van Deventer and Kruger (2005: 71), BOGs have a responsibility to the institutions of higher learning, such as technical training institutions, in terms of policy formulation for:

- Operational guidance.
- Infrastructural and institutional development.
- Enabling environment for teaching and learning.
- Resource mobilisation and accountability.

Specifically, BoGs are involved in resource management, which includes the recruitment of teaching and non-teaching staff, motivation of the staff and provision of teaching and learning materials for teachers and students respectively. These boards are also involved in the financial management of the institution in terms of soliciting government grants, and donations and giving bursary awards to needy students, preparation and approval of budgets, and setting financial priorities for the institution.

On its part, the government, through the department responsible for education and training, has a critical role to play in ensuring the effective running of institutions of learning. Akumu (2003: 68) quotes a press statement by the then Minister of Education, Science and Technology as follows:

I would like to urge all the institutions of higher learning to uphold the principles of democratic governance through dialogue and consensus building; with the field officers expected to play the role of impartial mediators and ready to liaise with other stakeholders whenever it becomes necessary to do so.

This statement was made in March 2003, at the time of a great deal of student unrest at various institutions of higher learning across the country, including technical training institutions. It followed a general election in which a 24-year long ruling political regime that had been perceived to be dictatorial and oppressive had just been voted out of power and it was like a new dawn in the country. This led to unprecedented demands by citizens, especially by students. The government and BoGs faced great challenges at the time, in their efforts to meet student demands and to maintain calm at the institutions. This situation was compounded by the fact that the economy of the country was at its lowest. The effectiveness of government officials, BoGs and other stakeholders in ensuring stability in their respective institutions became extremely critical.

The importance of partnerships in the management of institutions is paramount. As the permanent secretary of the Ministry of Education, Professor Mutahi (2007: 5) declares, “There are needs to sustain partnerships bearing in mind the different roles and responsibilities of different actors, such as BoGs in relation to institutions under their watch.” In Kenya, the government provides grants to institutions to cater for various expenses under the management of BoGs and also pays the salaries of teachers. Mutahi further explains that the approach to institutional management where BoGs have a delegated responsibility is:

... aimed at harnessing partnership strength and stakeholder partnership, pooling resources and facilitating local level participation in programmes and projects. Stakeholders in education at all levels should strive for accountability and transparency in all institutions, and where the need arises; feel free to consult the ministry without fear or favour.

The calibre of persons appointed to serve as members of BoGs in terms of their academic and professional backgrounds, as well as their productive engagements and experiences in public service has a bearing on the performance of the BoGs. Akumu (2003: 19) suggests that members of BoGs should be persons in their prime age with a sound (post-secondary) educational background so that their contributions to the management of technical training institutions can be meaningful. Persons voted onto the boards long after retirement from their previous employment, as well as those who overstayed their tenure on the boards, proved unproductive in terms of ideas needed for effective management decisions. The mandatory retirement age from employment in Kenya was only changed from 55 to 60 years in 2009.

In addition to the above, there is a provision to the effect that persons appointed to the board should be persons of commitment, dedication and proven integrity. In this connection, Kingi (2007: 18) states that the Government should only appoint as members of boards persons of integrity and competence who are in possession of a university education and that the role of the boards in institutional management should be further investigated with a view to providing suggestions on how their capacity could be strengthened.

The fact that an institution has many parties with different interests can pose a challenge to effective management. Kingi (2007: 18) observes that institutions comprise different people with varying interests, religious and cultural backgrounds. All these people relate to one another, but at times, they may clash, resulting in anti-social behaviour such as engaging in conflict. These people expect the boards to fulfil their needs and also to look to the world around them for help. The boards have the responsibility of serving the best interests of each individual. This suggests that the board should possess the knowledge and skills to focus exclusively on the good of the institution and the public it serves.

According to Kingi (2007: 18), four managerial roles that must be performed if an organisation is to run effectively, are producing, implementing, innovating and integrating. In the case of technical training institutions, a BoG's role is to administer human resources and to ensure that the people produce good results. The board not only has to plan, coordinate, control and impose discipline; it also has to ensure that the organisation's system works as it was designed to do. Finally, it has to undertake innovation, which involves generating a plan of action and being self-reliant, as well as integrating, which entails consolidating the various initiatives of management.

It seems as though the characteristics of a BoG have a considerable influence on its operations. In this regard, Kingi (2007: 18) argues that a BoG needs to focus on the most relevant functions of an institution for technical training. In terms of the staff and personnel, the emphasis should fall on the attracting, recruiting, developing and motivating functions to enhance teaching and learning. Regarding finance and business, the functions of understanding sources of revenue, budgeting and monitoring expenditure against the approved budget are important. Concerning physical and material resources, the functions such as ensuring the diligent sighting of new development, maintaining and repairing, and enhancing healthy and safety precautions should be stressed. Regarding the curriculum and instruction, there are functions such as interpreting objectives and policies, supporting materials, implementing the curriculum and appraising. Concerning the student personnel, important functions such as providing services to help them adjust better to the institution, develop more effectively as social and emotional persons, become better learners and

develop skills for dealing with the future beyond the institution should be prioritised. Finally, in terms of the institution/community relationship, there are certain functions such as assisting the community to extend its understanding of not only what institutions do, but also of what they ought to do. This should be done, for example, by, explaining the various programmes to the community, working closely with the community representatives and non-governmental organisations involved with the health of the community and enabling the staff to understand and appreciate the community.

On its part, the government appears to have recognised the need to act in the interest of technical training institutions in Kenya by strengthening the BoGs of these institutions. Rateng (2006: 2), Director of Technical Education in Kenya, identified the following as basic requirements for someone to serve in the BoGs for technical training institutions:

- The minimum academic qualification should be a post-secondary qualification.
- Members must be persons of integrity, commitment and prepared to serve on a voluntary basis.
- The chairperson of the Board should preferably be a university graduate and a professional of high integrity.
- Neither the chairperson nor any other member of the board should have any business interests in the institution in which he or she is serving.
- “The period of service of a board member must be limited to a maximum of three terms of three years each.”

In order for BoGs to fulfil their mandate and discharge their responsibilities adequately, it is important that the boards get involved in as much of the aspects of the management of the institution as possible. Towards this end, Wangatho (2007: 72) maintains that the boards should be involved in decision-making in matters pertaining to discipline, tender awards and formulation of institutional rules and regulations and that they should attend meetings regularly. Wangatho adds that they should be involved in all areas of institutional management as stipulated in the Education Act and not merely in some aspects. According to

Akumu (2003: 27), this points to the fact that involvement in curriculum matters is crucially important because this is the core aspect of teaching and learning.

Owing to the dynamic nature of society, the issue pertaining to how persons to be appointed to boards of governors should be identified is the subject of considerable debate. Issack (2008: 30) maintains that the democratisation of institutional management requires that the government should initiate the repeal of the Education Act, Cap 211 of 1968, in order to empower parents to elect boards of governors for secondary schools and colleges. The technical training institutions fall under the category of colleges and their boards are appointed under the same act of Parliament.

2.7.2 Principal

The second internal stakeholder is the head of the institution known by the title “principal.” The position makes its occupant the chief executive officer of the specific technical training institution, since this person is the one directly responsible for the smooth day-to-day running of the institution. One key responsibility of the principal is ensuring compliance with all regulations and policies, including those on equal opportunities and inclusion among students, staff and other stakeholders.

The position of the principal within the institutional structure is extremely important; hence, it is imperative that a principal understands his or her role well. According to Kibui (2008: 24), principals need to understand the roles they are expected to perform to achieve the objectives of the institutions.. The organisational structure of an institution should be designed in such a way that it clarifies the role of the principal and other members who participate within the structure. The principal is therefore required to devise decision-making strategies, because without sound decisions, an institution will not achieve the objectives for which it was established.

The coordination of various efforts involved in a management system is one of the most important functions of a principal. In this respect, Bakhda (2004: 7) contends that

organisations can only achieve their goals and objectives through the coordinated efforts of their members. In the case of technical training institutions, it is the task of the principal to get work done through other people. It is in the process of the management and execution of work that activities of the institution are carried out and objectives met. Bakhda points out that human resources are the most difficult to obtain, the most expensive to maintain and the hardest to retain, hence the existence of various guidelines principals can adapt in fulfilling the aims and objectives of the institution.

Bakhda (2004: 8) further outlines the necessary steps principals have to take. First, they should ensure that appropriate members of staff are employed based on the aims and objectives of the institution and the staff should have the necessary qualifications and experience in the field of expertise. Second, they should construct a management hierarchy of authority that clearly indicates the chain of order and the reporting mechanism within the institution. Importantly, each employee must know his/her position and duties. Furthermore, each of the employees should also be heard, consulted and be communicated with on decisions pertaining to the policies of the institution, no matter their ranks.

The third step principals have to take is to encourage joint effort and coordination through the collection of ideas and suggestions from the junior staff; these ideas and suggestions should be used to make policy decisions, which, in turn should make the junior staff feel part of the team. The fourth is to ensure that executors of decisions and policies are held accountable for their actions. Senior staff should monitor the execution of decisions through regular supervision and reporting, while junior staff should be held accountable for their approach and attitudes, with the degree of achievement discussed and recorded regularly.

The fifth step is to allow evaluation to become an integral part of executing policy decisions. This may be done during the process of the execution of the decisions or at the end during the execution of the policy decisions, which may take the form of discussions, writing a report or completing questionnaires. The sixth is to ensure a fair distribution of the workload among the workers based on professional qualifications, qualities and interests. Finally, the principal's task is to reward effective management practices. Good steady work should be

rewarded in various ways such as promotions, increased emoluments, study leave, sponsored further education, and other benefits such as free education for their children and medical allowance. This helps to motivate individuals to work harder and be loyal.

From the foregoing, it is evident that it is important that the government should ensure that the right person is appointed to head a technical training institution. Accordingly, the person appointed should possess the qualities of a leader, as well as the necessary qualifications and experience in management and the ability to interact socially with other stakeholders. In addition, Bakhda (2004: 8) suggests that other qualities are also necessary, namely:

- The knowledge of the aims and objectives of education and training.
- The ability to set goals and targets and to plan how the goals and targets are to be achieved.
- The ability to organise available resources (people, time, materials) for economical and systematic achievement of goals.
- The skills to oversee and control change process.
- The ability to set organisational standards and policies.
- The knowledge to execute new policies through members of staff
- Respect for other peoples' thoughts and feelings
- Tolerance of a wide range of beliefs and ideologies
- Punctuality and a sense of duty and conscience.
- The capacity to solve problems.

Another important quality a principal requires is that of maintaining sound relationships with key stakeholders such as the teachers of the institution. According to Musani (2007: 88), principals should allow their teachers a greater level of participation in the organisation and administration of the institutions. In the process of delegating responsibilities, "the principals will be relieved of the daily routine work so that they can have more time for long-term planning."

Another key stakeholder in any educational institution with whom a principal should work closely with is the student body. In this regard, Kingi (2007: 38), pronounces that principals need to be people not only with extensive knowledge, but also people who are committed to education to help students grow into the type of citizens required by the country. This means that principals must be human, understand social values and have both a vision and effective organisational skills. The main task in terms of student management is to enable the students to become acceptable and responsible members of society. They must be treated as the raw materials that are processed through the institution to produce useful citizens, rich in desirable values, abilities and knowledge. Furthermore, according to Akumu (2003: 9), principals of technical training institutions should create a forum for regular interaction with the student body and administration on matters pertaining to student welfare and academic affairs.

2.7.3 Teachers

In institutions of higher learning (including technical training institutions), teaching and non-teaching staff constitute their core part. In this respect, Muddock (2008: 4) asserts that in work-places where staff are confident and united, they are much more likely to work across boundaries and develop sensitive measures and integrated practices. However, the current challenge is how to transform management systems in such a manner that the change is driven by local needs and that staff become fully involved and participate in any management change process. This is critical for the achievement of the intended goals.

The issue of appointments to positions within an institutional management structure inevitably arises from time to time and this aspect needs to be well managed. According to Akumu (2003: 20), when making appointments to positions of responsibility in technical training institutions, preference should be given to teachers who are already part of the institution as long as they are qualified. This serves as a way of according recognition and providing motivation to the staff. Kingi (2007: 30) confirms the idea that the relationship a manager establishes with his staff is the essence of administration. Through their actions, institutional managers and leaders of the staff and the board must indicate that the individual

contributions of the staff are valued. In essence, the teachers are human and the need for feeling wanted is just as strong in them as in any other person. In addition, Okumbe (1999: 51) states that institutional managers should have confidence in the staff and involve them in the decision-making procedure. Those managers must devise a method of consulting and involve staff in the issues affecting them. Furthermore, the boards must devise a method of appraising teacher effectiveness and motivate them accordingly; therefore, the boards should be familiar with the management processes whose general functions include organising, coordinating, staffing, directing, controlling and evaluating - functions often lacking in many institutions.

The Republic of Kenya (2007: 23) declares that teachers play a crucial role in the supply of high-quality technical and vocational education, hence, in terms of technical and vocational training, instructors not only need first-hand industrial experience for effective curriculum delivery, they also need recognition of their potential to make meaningful contributions to the management of their respective institutions. Involving teachers accordingly enables the institution to take advantage of and develop and nurture the teachers' potential. Due recognition and appreciation of the non-teaching staff is also important as their services are complementary to those of teachers in the fulfilment of an institutional mandate.

2.7.4 Students

The students enrolled at an institution to pursue the various programmes offered, represent the next core type of internal stakeholder within a higher education institution. According to Mbae (1994: 13), the organisational structure of an institution must be democratised to allow meaningful participation of students in all matters pertaining to the institution. In this regard, students must be involved in all the democratic processes of the institution at decision-making level. Therefore, students must be encouraged to participate fully in the management of their own affairs. Most importantly, they must be led to see that rights and responsibilities go hand-in-hand. In all cases, it must be realised that democracy is a matter of practice, not theory and the best way to teach students to be democratic in their future lives is to allow them to practice it early enough.

With regard to the existing legal instruments of governance, it seems that there is a gap with respect to student involvement in the management of technical training institutions in Kenya. Akumu (2003: 20) recommends that the present Education Act of Kenya should be amended to provide guidelines for the operation of a student representative system to ensure that they operate within the administrative set-up of higher education/technical training institutions. Nyborg (2003: 1) maintains that an important element of institutional governance is student participation and argues that new management forms are being introduced in many countries and legislation is being adjusted to allow for changes that can accommodate students' participation in institutional management.

Student participation in higher education governance is a concern of the Bologna Process, (Nyborg, 2003: 1). The process is a reform initiative aimed at creating a European Higher Education Area (EHEA), named after the Bologna Declaration signed in the city of Bologna on 19 June 1999 by education ministers from 29 European countries. In this regard, Nyborg (2003: 1) states that;

..student participation was the topic of a seminar organised by the Norwegian authorities in Oslo in June 2003, during which the Council of Europe was commissioned to carry out a study on student participation in higher education governance. The council concluded that the legal provision for student participation was largely in place in that region.

Further, Nyborg (2003: 1) observes that there also seems to be broad consensus regarding the percentage of student representation in institutional governing bodies, which, in general, is situated in the 10 – 30% range. This means that among members of the higher education institutions' governing bodies, the number of slots provided for students vary between the percentages mentioned. According to Nyborg (2003: 1), "It is accepted that students should have a significant representation on the governing bodies of higher education institutions, but it should still be a minority representation."

On the other hand it appears that effective student participation is in doubt. In this regard, Nyborg (2003: 3) asserts that," Even if the principle of student representation is accepted and the necessary legal provisions are in place, motivating students to make use of this

possibility is a major challenge.” Student participation in their own elections in institutions of higher education in Norway at the time was mostly at below 15%, meaning that considerably fewer than one in five students vote. Beyond the question of representivity, this low participation of students in their own democratic processes raises an even more serious question of students’ readiness for participation in governance in particular and the life of higher education institutions in general.

In a legal order establishing the Kenya Polytechnic University College, the government of Kenya makes provision for a council of the college which will consist of one person nominated by the student organisation (Republic of Kenya, 2007: 11). In terms of this provision, the need for students to be involved in the management of the institution of higher learning is legally recognised and entrenched. Gitobu (2007: 4) points out that, in Kenya, a number of documented administrative flaws in institutions have been positively attributed to the absence of teacher, student and parent participation in institutional management. Therefore, students should be involved in the running of institutions to ensure smooth running of institutional programmes.

The importance of teamwork within an organisation where all members feel part of the organisation and wish to identify with it has been emphasised. In this regard, a study carried out by Simiyu (2007: 39) conclude that teamwork among all stakeholders of a technical training institute, including but not limited to students, teachers, parents and the community, is a necessary ingredient to bring about successful institutional performance. This is because hierarchical influence and loyalty to the principal contribute to his success and effectiveness in the institutional setting. The willingness of persons to cooperate in an organisation makes them contribute efforts to the organisation, and this is indispensable.

Stakeholders can and should be involved in the management of technical training institutions in Kenya to enable the institutions to offer the services for which they are intended effectively and efficiently. This would enable the country to achieve the objectives expected to be realised through investment in technical training institutions. From the literature review offered in this chapter, it emerges that technical training institutions, both within and outside Kenya, in the face of numerous challenges and the need for effective training, have no other recourse, but to identify their key stakeholders and involve them in the management of the institutions. This is inevitable if they are to tap the potential of all key stakeholders for the benefit of not only the institutions, but also the country at large.

In spite of efforts by many African governments to develop policies on education and training in their respective economies, the financing of investments has been the main constraint regarding the expansion or improvement of facilities in order to guarantee quality of service delivery (Mukirae, 2005: 29). Therefore, adequate involvement of the different types of stakeholders in relevant aspects of management will provide an opportunity for different forms of contributions that could help close the financing gap that has hindered meaningful and sustainable development of the institutions until now.

The involvement of stakeholders in the management of technical training institutions implies the inclusion of people or parties in the management of the institutions that have an interest in the success of these institutions. This approach is in line with modern management practice, which advocates inclusiveness and the stakeholder theory of organisational management and business ethics that concerns morals and values in managing an organisation.

In the following chapter, details of the study's research design and methodology will be provided.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

Qualitative research is one of the approaches that researchers use when they want to obtain information and knowledge about the nature of reality or the world and analyse this data. According to Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 98), any researcher who is about to undertake a research project, has some fundamental questions that must be answered before commencement of the project: “Who will be the subjects of the study? What will the researcher observe? “When will observations be made? How will the data be collected?” The research design is the “blueprint” that enables the investigator to find answers to these questions and guides him/her in the various stages of the research. It provides the basis according to which the data are to be collected, in order to investigate the research question.

According to Kothari (2007: 5), a qualitative approach to research is common with subjective assessments of attitude, opinions and behaviour. Research in such situations is a function of the researcher’s insight and impressions. Generally, the techniques of focus group interviews, projective techniques and in-depth interviews are used. Kothari adds, “The main task in interviewing is to understand the meaning of what interviewees say.”

This research project is qualitative by nature. According to Kothari (2007:5), “Qualitative research refers to a deep holistic exploration and description of an identified phenomenon in the field, and its purpose is to elicit understanding and not to test hypotheses.” In this regard, Kothari suggests that the researcher’s choice of a research approach should be guided by the aim of the research, the nature of the research question and the resources (informative subjects) available to him or her. Furthermore, the author states that the researcher commences the study by examining the relevant literature, expanding his or her knowledge of the subject and previous research, before compiling a research design. Poggenpoel and

Myburgh (2005: 65) contend that a qualitative, exploratory, descriptive, contextual and an interpretative research design can be utilised to achieve the research objectives.

In this study, the researcher used a qualitative research design, because he wanted to obtain insights into the perceptions and views of stakeholders regarding their involvement in the management of Kenyan public technical training institutions. According to Marschan-Pickary, Welch, Penttinen and Tahyanainen (2004: 244), qualitative research is closely associated with the study of phenomena in their “natural setting” or the “local context.” The researcher collected the data within the natural setting of the informants. The researcher is concerned with an understanding of people’s experiences in context. The natural setting is where the researcher is likely to reveal what is known about the phenomenon of interest from the perspective of the study subjects.

Freeman (2004: 38) argues that many influential texts depict the uses of “qualitative research” as essentially “exploratory.” In this regard, Robson (2002: 59) explains that exploratory research seeks to investigate occurrences, gain new insights, ask questions, assess phenomena in a new light, and generate ideas and hypotheses for the future. The status of its findings is useful only in so far as they may stimulate more systematic and rigorous research, with its readership composed of novice researchers or even non-researchers who might be lacking knowledge of research methodology.

In this study, the context is a number of technical training institutions and the informative participants are internal and external stakeholders of these institutions. The researcher conducted different types of interviews with carefully selected subjects, whom he believed would provide “rich, contextual and detailed data, based on their experiences of and opinions related to the phenomenon being studied” (Marschan-Pickary *et al.*, 2004: 245). The setting and the people to be studied were planned and selected carefully. The chairpersons of the respective governing boards, principals, teachers and students of technical training institutions in Nairobi province and its environments, as well as the chief executives of local industries and parents from the local communities, were interviewed. Sampling was of both a purposive and stratified nature. According to Coleman and Briggs (2003: 99), purposive

sampling is the process whereby the researcher selects a sample based on the experience or knowledge of the group to be sampled: the method is also called “judgment” sampling. Although there is a potential for inaccuracy in terms of the researcher’s criteria and the resulting sample selections, the researcher preferred purposive sampling because of its convenience for the researcher and suitability for this study. In addition to being purposive, the sampling was also of a stratified nature. Harding and Jupp (2006: 1) explain that the stratified sampling method:

...is designed to ensure that the sample has certain characteristics; usually that it is representative of the population in key variables. Stratified sampling is applicable where there is insufficient time or resources to conduct a census (which collects information from every member of a population).

In this case, time and resources would not allow visits to all of the technical training institutions spread across the country.

In this investigation, the data were collected in an effort to understand the subjects’ experiences and insights about the phenomenon, that is, the involvement of stakeholders in the management of technical training institutions. The study was carried out in terms of the premise that the main purpose of qualitative research is to describe, interpret, verify and assess phenomena. Therefore, the researcher described topics, themes and categories that emanated from the words and meanings that form the data and then reported the findings in a descriptive way. This is discussed in detail in chapter 4 of this dissertation.

This study is a naturalistic or interpretative enquiry that was undertaken within the working environment of the subjects so that meanings and intentions that underlie human actions could be understood and interpreted in relation to their context (Myers, 2004: 242). An interpretative analysis entailed that from the insights obtained, the researcher could develop new concepts or elaborate on existing ones. In this case, the insights obtained were used to formulate a number of guidelines and recommendations regarding how the Kenyan government and technical training institutions could involve stakeholders increasingly in the management of the institutions and enhance efficiency and quality of service delivery. The

researcher entered the world of the participants and analysed the interactions he had with the participants so that he could understand and interpret their experiences and perspectives about the phenomenon. The participants shared their views on stakeholder involvement in the management of technical training institutions with the researcher by means of interviews. Importantly, the data were collected and analysed systematically. Accordingly, the researcher studied the respondents' perceptions, gained further insight into and knowledge about the phenomenon being studied. This process enabled this researcher to describe the respondents' understanding of the phenomenon being studied.

According to Myers (2004: 242), interpretative studies generally attempt to understand phenomena through the meanings that people assign to these phenomena and interpretative methods of research are "aimed at producing an understanding of the context of the phenomenon, and the process whereby the phenomenon influences and is influenced by the context." Myers, (2004: 242) provides the following explanation of the process regarding interpretative research:

...interpretative researchers start out with the assumption that access to reality (given or socially constructed) is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness and shared meanings. The philosophical base of interpretative research is hermeneutics and phenomenology.

In this investigation, the researcher adopted the methodology described below.

3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A researcher needs to carry out an intended study in a systematic manner. Research methodology in a broader context refers to "a process whereby the researcher selects data collection and analysis procedures to investigate a specific research problem" (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006: 9). The research method selection entails identifying and setting the limits for gathering information, and also identifying subjects to provide relevant and valid information. The intention is that the researcher and the participants providing information

should interact so that the former gains deeper insight, knowledge and an understanding of the participants' experiences regarding the phenomenon being investigated.

One of the methods used for data collection is conducting an interview, which involves the presentation of verbal stimuli and replies by means of verbal responses. An interview can be in the form of either face-to-face or telephonic interviews. It appears that over the last number of years, qualitative research methods have been recognised as valuable tools in the social sciences, especially in management studies.

3.2.1 Types of qualitative interviews

In qualitative research, data are often collected in the form of participant observations, focus groups and individual interviews. According to Kothari (2007: 97), "Collecting information through interviews is sometimes carried out in a structured way; hence, it is called structured interviews which involve the use of a set of pre-determined questions." However, semi-structured interviews are also frequently used.

According to Srivastava and Thomson (2009: 74):

..participant observations is a process of data collection where the researcher observes participants or is an active participant in the phenomenon being studied, while a focus group interview is a method whereby a group of six to eight people are brought together to discuss a given phenomenon in which they have all participated.

On the other hand, the authors state that, "individual interviews may be described as a face-to-face conversation between two parties, namely participant and researcher."

In carrying out interviews, the authors contend that a researcher has a choice to make from among three different types of interview schedules; structured, unstructured and semi-structured.

Srivastava and Thomson (2009: 74) state further that structured interviews are based on questions that are asked of each participant without a variation in the questions between participants, while unstructured interviews or informal conversations do not have any predetermined set of questions. Semi-structured interviews serve as a compromise between structured interviews and unstructured interviews. In semi-structured interviews, the questions are open-ended, providing the respondents with a freedom of choice when answering. On the other hand, the purpose of a semi-structured interview is to provide a setting or atmosphere where the interviewer and interviewee are free to discuss the topic in detail and the interviewer has the option “to make use of cues and prompts to help and direct the interviewee into the research topic area” (Srivastava & Thomson, 2009: 75). They add that, in the process, a more in-depth or detailed data set is gathered. In the case of the semi-structured interview, a framework of procedure for data interpretation becomes useful.

In order for an interview to be successful, it is important to consider the manner in which it is to be commenced. Towards this end, prospective respondents “require a credible rationale for the research in which they are being involved” (Bryman, 2001: 113). Therefore, the interviewer needs to achieve rapport with the respondent, hence, the need for the immediate establishment of a relationship that encourages the respondent to work successfully with the interviewer until the end.

Certain important principles should be upheld during interviews in order to ensure the effectiveness of the interviews. In this regard, Kothari (2007: 98) explains that as a pre-requisite for and basic tenet of interviewing, interviewers have to be selected, trained and briefed carefully. In addition, they should be honest, sincere, hardworking “and impartial and must possess the technical competence and necessary practical experience.” One important element in interviewing is confidentiality (Coleman & Biggs, 2003: 145).

In this study, the researcher was the main interviewer supported by a research assistant who was familiar with this type of assignment. In addition, prior to the commencement, as well as throughout the data collection process, every effort was made to comply with the pre-requisite characteristics with regard to interviewing techniques and requirements. The

specific strategies selected for gathering data in this study were focus group interviews, individual interviews, observation and a literature study. These are discussed in the subsequent sections.

3.2.2 Focus group interviews

The focus group interview strategy was one of the researcher's choices for data gathering in this study. Robson (2000: 283) explains that a focus group interview is a group interview on a specific topic, which is where the word "focus" originates from. The idea of focus groups emerged for the first time in market research in the 1920s, when it gained recognition because many consumer decisions often occurred in a social group context. According to Kothari (2007: 98), a focus group interview is meant to focus attention on the given experience of the respondents and the effects of the experience. This form of interview is a qualitative interview, which aims at finding out what other people feel and think about the phenomenon under investigation. Accordingly, the interviewer makes a choice regarding the manner of asking and sequence of the questions and also to seek related reasons and motives.

It is important to observe that developing a relationship of trust with the researcher enables participants to disclose even what they may regard as confidential. In essence, a feeling of rapport with participants assists a skilled interviewer to motivate and thereby obtain information that might otherwise have been difficult to obtain (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006: 166). Additionally, more precise responses can be obtained as the interviewer clarifies questions that the respondents may raise, as well as follow up leads articulated through probing.

Nigel (2002: 129) argues that focus group interviews are especially valuable for those who want to assess how several people work out a common view or to elicit a range of views. Researchers interested in consensus formation, interactional processes and group dynamics find these types of interviews particularly useful. They allow one to see how people interact when considering a topic and how they react to discouragement. They also help identify the attitudes and types of behaviour that are considered socially unacceptable. Coleman and

Briggs (2003: 150) state that focus group interviews usually involve several respondents and interviewers, adding that the strategy has become a means widely used by many parties, including political parties, to elicit views regarding their policies. Despite the possibility of an extremely articulate or vociferous individual dominating the group interview, an interview with a sizeable group of people is often productive.

The skilful handling of focus group interviews could avert potential hazards; therefore, they are useful sources of information, whether as a sole means of analysis or in conjunction with other strategies such as observations, diary analysis or questionnaires (Coleman & Briggs, 2003: 144). According to Nigel (2002: 88), an interview guide is used for a focussed interview. The schedule contains highlights of the areas to be covered without the exact wording or order of questions. During this process, the researcher introduces the topic and then guides the discussions by means of general, yet probing questions and records the verbal and non-verbal communication of respondents by means of electronic devices and/or field notes. Consequently, what the interviewees say and do, constitutes the data. In terms of merits, the focus group interview is the most preferred data collection method because it is flexible and open in form. To achieve good results, it should be non-threatening. In addition, it usually provides valid data as the data are obtained in a transparent manner making the results believable.

In this study, focus group interviews were conducted with groups of teachers representing different departments, as well as with groups of students selected from the student leaders at the three sampled technical training institutions. The separate groups of teachers and students were engaged in interviews regarding their involvement in the management of the institutions in their capacity as internal stakeholders, as well as the involvement of other stakeholders. In the case of each group, the researcher sat with the group in a quiet and secluded environment where minimal interference and interruptions were allowed. The researcher participated as a guide, posing questions, clarifying the questions where necessary and using probing follow-up questions where appropriate. Because the discussion was in a natural format, it was flexible and thus gave the participants the confidence to share their feelings, even on sensitive topics. The interviewees were given an opportunity to describe

their observations and experiences of stakeholder involvement in the various elements of the management of the various institutes. Importantly, the researcher ensured that a relationship of trust and confidence with both groups was created by being open-minded and assuring the members of each group that they did not necessarily have to agree with each other on the issue under discussion. In addition, the researcher controlled the discussions and any problems that arose during the interview, so that the interview did not regress or deviate from the main theme under discussion. The responses were recorded on audiotape as well as in the form of field notes.

3.2.3 Individual interviews

Another strategy for data collection is an individual interview. According to Nigel (2002: 88), individual interviews are face-to-face interviews. Accordingly, Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 232) define a personal or individual interview as “a face-to-face interpersonal role situation in which an interviewer asks respondents questions designed to elicit answers pertinent to the research objectives.” In this study, the researcher’s individual interviews were guided by an interview schedule used for the focus group interviews, with slight modifications to the questions to mould them “into a natural format” and to make them flexible to win the confidence of the participants so that they would open up and respond freely about their personal feelings,. This also applied to sensitive subjects.

Researchers like Nsubuga (2000: 39) maintain that people are more willing to communicate orally than in writing. Therefore, respondents are able to provide data more readily and comprehensively in an interview than in a questionnaire, with several advantages arising from the friendly interaction with each other, in contrast with the limited and impersonal questionnaire contact. In addition, auditory and visual clues assist the researcher to gauge and control the tempo and tone of the conversation to elicit personal and sometimes even confidential information and to acquire knowledge regarding the respondents’ motivation, feelings, attitudes and beliefs.

An interview should be a dynamic interpersonal experience that needs to be planned carefully to accomplish the intended purpose. It requires a friendly, unregulated or open-minded atmosphere in which the discourse can be directed into the desired channels. In addition, the respondent should be encouraged to reveal information and remain motivated to keep presenting useful facts (Nsubuga, 2000: 43). According to Walsh (2001: 65), interviews are similar to questionnaires in that they are organised around a series of questions and rely on interviewees being trusted to answer and tell the “truth” as they see it.

Concerning the process of conducting individual interviews in this study, the researcher applied the necessary knowledge and technical skills in this regard, with a view to enhancing the quality of the study. Individual interviews were conducted with principals, chairpersons of boards of governors and parents (representing local communities) to establish the extent in which stakeholders were involved in the management of the respective technical training institutions with regard to the enhancement of effectiveness of the training. The focus was on describing and understanding the life experiences of the respondents, hence the subjects were met at their level and interviewed in their own environment. Accordingly, an interview schedule was prepared. Probing questions often followed answers given by the respondents. In addition, field notes were taken during the interview sessions and all the interviews were audiotaped and transcribed after the interview sessions.

3.2.4 Observations

Another important qualitative method of data collection is observation. According to Kothari (2007: 17), observation as a method of data collection implies the “collection of information by way of the investigator’s own observation, without necessarily interviewing the respondents.” The information obtained pertains to personal impressions gained on the ground, regardless of whether they are related to the past behaviour, future intentions or the attitudes of respondents. Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 206) indicate that data collected by this means describes the observed phenomena as they occur in their natural environment, with the main advantage being directness. It enables researchers to study the behaviour as it occurs.

During this study, one month was devoted to fieldwork for data collection. Three sampled institutions, local communities and industries were visited. One week was devoted to the visiting of each of the three institutions and its surrounding community and industries, during which observations were done, in addition to the interviews conducted, to obtain firsthand experience on how the different categories of stakeholders were involved in the management of technical training institutions. Furthermore, the researcher made detailed field notes throughout the study, besides the tape recordings of all that transpired.

3.2.5 Sampling

An important phase of any research study is sampling. Wallen (2000: 103) states that the term “sampling” refers to any group on which information is obtained. A group selected from a larger one namely the population, is called a sample, with whom the researcher hopes to conduct the research. According to Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 179), “Empirically supported generalizations are usually based on partial information because it is often impossible, impractical, or extremely expensive to collect data from all units of analysis covered by the research problem.” Mugenda and Mugenda (2003: 9) explain that “A sample is a smaller group selected from the accessible population, while sampling is the process of selecting a number of individuals for a study in such a way that the individuals selected represent a larger group from which they were selected.” The researcher does this in order to have a more manageable group for the purposes of the intended research. In essence, a sample is a model of the population and a good sample will provide a good representation of the population.

Sampling is necessary because it has an important purpose to serve, which is to obtain accurate empirical data. According to Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 183), modern sampling theory makes a basic distinction between probability and non-probability sampling. Probability sampling occurs where the researcher can specify the probability that a unit will be included in the sample, while non-probability sampling occurs where there is no way of specifying the probability of each unit’s inclusion in the sample. In addition, it is where there is no assurance that every unit has the same chance of being part of the sample.

Bryman (2001: 79) argues that “good practice is strongly associated with random or probability sampling.” However, it is apparent that quite a number of research projects are based on non-probability samples that have not been selected on the basis of the principles of probability sampling. This is because there are many reasons for selecting non-probability samples, among them the impossibility or extreme difficulty of obtaining probability samples. In addition, there is the question of the time and costs involved in securing a probability sample. According to Wallen (2000: 112), convenience sampling is another type of sampling that refers to the selection of a group of subjects that is conveniently available for a study. Therefore, it could be said that sampling is a scheme of action or procedure that indicates how subjects are to be selected for research.

Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 106) state that to achieve representivity of the sample, the characteristics of the samples must reflect the characteristics of the population the researcher is investigating. In this regard, randomisation is taken to contribute to the internal validity of a study, although it does not necessarily “ensure that the sample is representative of the population of interest” (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004: 106). Probability methods, such as random sampling, make generalisations to the largest and most clearly defined populations possible. However, in practice, the authors add that selecting a probability sample for an experiment creates problems, such as high costs and rate of refusal to cooperate by prospective respondents

In this study, the researcher based the study on purposive (convenience and stratified) sampling taking advantage of the merits of these methods with regard to the time and cost elements.

3.2.5.1 Population

A population refers to the larger group from which a sample for investigation is selected. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003:9), a population is “a group of individuals, events or objects having common observable characteristics.” Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 179) point out that, methodologically speaking, a population is the aggregate of all

cases that conform to some designated set of specifications; “the total set from which the individuals or units of the study are chosen.”

With regard to the term, a difference exists between a “target population” and an “accessible population.” In this context, the natural population, also referred to as the target population, is the one to which a researcher would really like to generalise, but it is often unavailable. On the other hand, the population to which a researcher is able to generalise becomes the accessible population. Wallen (2000: 105) explain that the former is the researcher’s ideal choice while the latter is his or her realistic choice. According to the available literature, the term “population generalisation” refers to the degree to which a sample represents the population under study. Where the results of a study only apply to the groups being studied and if those groups are small or narrowly defined, the usefulness of the findings must necessarily be limited.

The target population in this research was composed of all persons with an interest in Kenyan public technical training institutions, while the accessible population was the members of boards of governors, principals, teachers and students of technical training institutions and the neighbouring community and industries in Nairobi and its environs where the research was conducted. The population in this investigation consisted of both internal and external stakeholders of technical training institutions located in Nairobi and its surrounds.

3.2.5.2 Sampling method

Out of a large population, a representative part is selected for the intended study using an appropriate method. According to Kothari (2007: 31), a sampling method refers to the way in which the elements to be investigated in a given study are selected. Coleman and Briggs (2003: 98) have identified a number of probability sampling methods, namely random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling and non-probability sampling methods such as convenience sampling, purposive or judgmental sampling and quota sampling.

In this study, a combination of stratified and convenience sampling methods were applied. The sample which was drawn from institutions within Nairobi and its environs was deemed to “consist of elements, which contain the most characteristic, representative and typical attributes of the population,” (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2003: 9). The participants were chosen from the specific target groups whose opinions appeared to be of specific interest to this study and also expected to have information about the phenomenon under investigation.

3.2.5.3 Sample criteria

The selection of a study sample must be guided by certain criteria. In this regard, Oman, Krugman and Fink (2004: 150) observe that a sample should be selected carefully on the basis of well-defined inclusion and exclusion criteria, which encompass characteristics that delimit the target population. Furthermore, they remark that the inclusion criteria are characteristics that participants have in common, making them fit the target population. Finally, the characteristics should comprise qualities that define the population as well as demographic features that enable the individuals to become respondents in the study.

The criteria for the selection of participants for inclusion in this investigation consisted of the researcher taking into consideration the characteristics of the participants with respect to their experience with the technical training institutes, their ability to speak and comprehend English, as well as their ability to give their informed consent.

3.2.5.4 Sample size

The number of respondents to be selected from the accessible population constitutes the sample size. According to Wallen (2000: 116), some differences between the sample and the population are likely to occur, but if the sample is selected randomly and is of sufficient size, these differences can be insignificant and incidental. The consideration that remains, however, is what size will constitute an adequate or sufficient, part of the population. Wallen concludes that there is no cut and dried answer to this question. Coleman and Briggs (2003: 98) argue that the following question regarding the sample size can be asked: “How big should the sample be so that it is manageable and will it provide a representative set of data?”

With regard to this study, the researcher needed to ask the question: “What sample can I manage, taking into account when and where I plan to conduct the interviews?” Coleman and Briggs (2003: 98) assert that while sample size may not be crucial, of significance, at least, is the way that the sample is selected, because a small probability sample, free from bias can be preferable to a large sample that is biased and unrepresentative or whose lack of bias cannot be proved.

Kothari (2007:56) explains that sample size refers to “the number of items to be selected from the universe to constitute a sample of which the size should be neither excessively large nor too small.” In this regard, it is argued that an optimum sample is one that fulfils the requirements of efficiency, representativeness, reliability and flexibility. Therefore, sample size decisions represent a compromise between the constraints of time and cost, the need for precision and a variety of further considerations, which include non-responses, heterogeneity of a population and the kind of analysis (Bryman, 2001: 93).

In this study, the researcher conducted individual and focus group interviews, having decided on a manageable sample size considered as well as having considered the question of whether it would be possible to generalise from the sample to the population as a whole. In this regard, three institutions and local community and industry representatives were selected for this study.

At each institution, a focus group interview was conducted with teachers and another with students. Each focus group of teachers consisted of five members, while the student groups had seven members each.

In addition to the focus group interviews, individual interviews were conducted with the principals and chairpersons of boards of governors of each of the three institutions. Individual interviews were also conducted with one respondent from the community (a parent) considered familiar with each of the three institutions. Therefore, six focus group interviews were conducted; two at each of the three institutions, involving thirty six

respondents. Individual interviews involved twelve respondents. Overall, eighteen interview sessions, involving forty-five respondents, were conducted.

3.2.6 Pilot study

It is often important to carry out a pilot study ahead of the main study. According to Teijlingen and Hundley (2001: 1), the term “pilot study” refers to small versions of a full-scale study, as well as to “the specific pre-testing of a particular research instrument such as a questionnaire or interview schedule.” Regarding the preparation for fieldwork, Nigel (2002: 102) states that there are two preliminary steps: the first is to try out the draft interview schedule on people known to the interviewer. The people may be friends or colleagues who will cast a critical eye over the questions and their sequence, to ensure that instructions and guidelines are clear. The second step is to “pilot” the questionnaire or schedule on a small sample drawn from the same population as the main study.

Opie (2004: 104) argues that undertaking a pilot study is an important part of designing a study tool. It needs to be representative of the main sample of the data and similar to the researcher’s planned investigation but “conducted on a smaller scale. A pilot study is indispensable for the correct administering of,” for example, interview schedules, as it provides evidence of possible ambiguities or inappropriate questions. Opie adds that:

..it also helps the researcher to get an overview of time management during the actual research. It helps the researcher to think well in advance about the analysis of the results. The researcher is also able to identify confusing and ambiguous language, and to obtain information about possible results.

In this investigation, a pilot study consisting of one focus group interview and one individual interview was conducted with a group of teachers and a principal respectively in one technical training institution on the outskirts of Nairobi. This was intended to determine whether the desired information would be elicited by the questions posed and whether the method of questioning would be suitable to attain the in-depth information required. Five participants were included in the focus group interview.. Opie (2004: 104) explains:

... [a] pilot study helped the researcher to correct mistakes that occurred during the interviews with regard to the interview itself, the environmental setting and recording. At the end of this exercise, the researcher took note of the time required to conduct the various interviews. The results were discussed with the participants involved to evaluate whether the conclusions arrived at by the researcher are in accordance with the observations and knowledge of the focus group interview respondents (teachers) and the individual interview respondent (principal).

3.2.7 Triangulation

An important aspect of research is triangulation, which, according to Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 204), is the practice of using more than one form of data collection to test a hypothesis or research thesis. Triangulation means that the results of an investigation employing one particular research method are crosschecked against the results of another research method (Bryman, 2001: 447). Researchers often deploy a number of distinctive methods. Each form has certain unique advantages but also some inherent limitations. Therefore, researchers find it advantageous to triangulate methods whenever feasible.

In this study, the researcher used focus group interviews and individual interviews to generate qualitative data. In addition to the interviews, the researcher made use of non-participant observation methods during the data collection process.

3.2.8 Structural coherence

It is important that a logical flow of thoughts is maintained in the research process in order to ensure coherence. According to Poggenpoel and Myburgh (2005: 67), a lack of structural coherence in the research process occurs when the logical flow “of thoughts during the consecutive research processes are not in congruence with each other, for instance, if the conclusion does not fit with the aims and results of the research.”

In this study, the researcher undertook data analysis and interpretation fully aware of the possibility of incongruence.

3.2.9 Construction of the interview schedule for this study

An interview schedule is a set of questions that the interviewer asks when conducting an interview to obtain the required data and meet the specific objectives of the study (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003: 86). The schedule is also used to standardise the interview situation so that interviewers can ask the same structured, semi-structured or unstructured questions in the same manner. Kothari (2007:104) states that the researcher, research worker or the enumerator, who can interpret questions when necessary, generally administers an interview schedule.

The interview schedule for this study consisted of a list of questions focussed on the extent in which key stakeholders are involved in the management of Kenyan public technical training institutions.

The following were the central questions during the interviews:

- Who are the key stakeholders of the technical training institutions?
- Which stakeholders are actively involved at present?
- To what extent are they involved?
- What is the relationship between any problems that may exist and stakeholder involvement?
- How can the effectivity of the management of the technical training institutions be enhanced?

3.2.10 The procedure followed during the investigation

The fieldwork for data collection commenced after the study supervisor reviewed and approved the draft interview schedule. The first step was to submit an application and pay the prescribed fee for a research permit obtainable from the National Council for Science and Technology (NCST) in Kenya. The permit is annexed to this dissertation (see Appendix B). At the same time, letters were written to the principals of the sampled technical training

institutions requesting them to help with arrangements and coordination of the planned interviews with the six different categories of respondents within their respective institutions. Regarding the local communities, the representative parents were contacted for individual interviews. The goal of the communication with the prospective respondents prior to the fieldwork was to ensure their availability and readiness for the interviews. This was followed by visits by the researcher to each of the selected institutions to make preliminary, practical arrangements with the heads of the institutions. Each participating institution was given an identification code for identity protection purposes.

3.2.11 Field notes

During the process of data gathering in the field, the researcher recorded all that occurred. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003: 189), the fieldwork is one of the most important parts of the research process since a researcher can develop a good proposal and a good instrument, but if data collection is poor, the results of the study are inaccurate and therefore of no use. For this reason, it is crucial for researchers to ensure that all the aspects pertaining to data collection are effective. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003: 86) state further that in note taking, the interviewer records the respondents' responses during the interview carefully and exactly as expressed. Summarising, paraphrasing or the correcting of grammar has to be avoided as far as possible. In addition, the observed features of the different institutions have to be recorded in the margin. Furthermore, the whole interview, including the interviewer's questions and the respondent's answers, has to be recorded, preferably through audio recording.

McMillan and Schumacher (2002: 348) explain "that the term 'field notes' refers collectively to all the data collected during the course of a study, including the field notes, interview transcripts, official documents, official statistics, pictures, and other materials." McMillan and Schumacher add that data are recorded as field notes or observations of what occurs while the researcher is in the field, they are dated and the context is identified. They are often filled with idiosyncratic abbreviations and are difficult for others to read without

editing. Importantly, a researcher records detailed descriptive fields that are not vague or judgmental.

As outlined by Mugenda and Mugenda (2003: 86), any unusual behaviour observed in the setting by the researcher or unusual terms or ideas as well as information worth noting, were recorded. Furthermore, as part of field notes, the researcher recorded events, behaviour that occurred and words that were heard during the focus group interviews and individual interviews. The notes included the researcher's own commentary where applicable.

According to Bernard (2000: 357), field notes are usually divided into four categories namely jottings, the diary, the log and the notes. Field jottings are notes, which the researcher takes down throughout the day. Accordingly, notes are based on observations and form the basis of the researcher's publication. A diary is a personal document where the researcher can find relief from the difficulties involved in fieldwork through writing. Finally, the log is a running account of how the researcher plans to spend his/her time, how the time has actually been spent and how much money was spent, it essential in terms of doing systematic fieldwork and collecting data on a systematic basis. While carrying out the investigation for this study, the researcher made use of the various categories of field notes.

3.2.12 Data processing

According to May (2001: 103), data processing or data analysis is an ongoing cyclical process which integrates "every phase of qualitative research. It is a systematic process whereby data is selected," categorised, compared, synthesised and interpreted to provide explanations of a single or primary phenomenon of interest. Coding is the way in which the researcher allocates a numerical code to each category of a variable; this is the first step in the process of converting observations into data and preparing the data for analysis. Data collection and data analysis in qualitative research go together and need to be done simultaneously in order for the researcher to focus on and shape the study as it proceeds.

Creswell (2007: 148) argues that, “Effective analysis strategies in qualitative research consist of three steps: preparing and organising the data, reducing the data into themes through a process of coding and condensing the codes” and representing the data in figures, tables or discussion.” In the same vein, Clark and Creswell (2010: 208) state, “Qualitative data analysis involves coding the data, dividing the text into small units (phrases, sentences or paragraphs), assigning a label to each unit and then grouping the codes into themes.” The coding labels are derived from the exact words of the participants, phrases formulated by the researcher or concepts used in the social or human sciences.

The next step in the analysis process, according to Clark and Creswell (2010: 208), is to represent the results of the analysis in the form of statements, tables and figures. These summaries may be statements summarising the results. In qualitative research, such as this study, representation of the results involves a discussion of the evidence for the themes or categories, the presentation of figures that depict the physical setting of the study or diagrams presenting framework models, or theories. When discussing the evidence for a theme or category, the basic idea is to develop a discussion that convinces the reader that the theme or category emerges from the data. Apart from the discussions, researchers may present their findings by means of visual aids such as figures, maps or tables that present the different themes. The interrelated themes may comprise a model (as in grounded theory), a chronology (as in narrative research) or comparison tables (as in ethnography). In addition, a map may show the physical layout of the setting in which the research took place.

Secondly, Clark and Creswell (2010: 208) comment, “After presenting the results or findings, the researcher supplies an interpretation of the meaning of the results.” This often comes in the discussion section of a report. These authors go on to explain, “Basically, an interpretation of results involves stepping back from the detailed results and advancing their larger meaning in view of the research problems, questions in a study, the existing literature, and perhaps personal experiences.” For qualitative research such as this study, this means comparing the results with the initial research questions asked, to determine how the research questions were answered in the study. In addition, it implies comparing the results with prior

predictions or explanations drawn from past research studies or theories, which provide explanations for what the researcher has found.

In qualitative research, the interpretation provides similar explanations about the results but with a few differences. The qualitative researcher needs to address how the research questions were answered by the qualitative findings. Comparisons can be made with the findings of other research studies in the literature. However, in addition to these approaches, qualitative researchers may use their personal experience and make personal assessments of the meanings of the findings. This last feature sets qualitative research apart from quantitative approaches and it reflects the role of the qualitative researcher, who believes that research (and its interpretation) can never be separated from the researcher's personal views and interpretations.

A further component of all good research is to utilise procedures to ensure the validity of the data, results and their interpretation. Therefore, validity serves the purpose of checking on the quality of the data, the results and the interpretation (Clark & Creswell, 2010: 208).

After completing phase one of this researches, which entailed collecting first hand information from the respondents about their experiences, the researcher embarked on phase two of the research study, which included the exposition of guidelines on the topic of stakeholder involvement in the management of the technical training institutes. Based on the research results, conclusions were drawn and recommendations made, and the limitations of the study pointed out.

3.3 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics is concerned with the attempt to formulate codes and principles of moral behaviour (May, 2001: 59). Ethical decisions in research are those decisions that arise when an attempt is made to decide between different courses of action, not on the basis of expediency or efficiency, but guided by standards of what is morally right or wrong. Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 76) concur that ethics is about the rights and welfare of persons and

communities that are the subjects of scientific studies. Ethics are related to research participants' rights and welfare and researchers' obligations or ethical codes.

According to Nigel (2002: 45), ethical research limits the choices that can be made in the pursuit of truth. Ethics entails that, while truth is good, a lack of respect for human dignity leaves one ignorant of human nature. One of the ethical dilemmas of social scientists is the conflict between the right to conduct research and the right of research participants to self-determination, privacy and dignity (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004: 76). The social sciences are scientific and humanistic disciplines and social scientists are observers as well as participants in the research process. Therefore, social science research is not conducted in isolation, instead researchers are constantly interacting with a complex and demanding socio-political environment that influences their research decisions, both formally and informally. One way of coping with the influences is by following the guidelines of ethics in research.

Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 77) contend that conducting research that may violate the rights and welfare of research participants, is neither the intent nor the major interest of social scientists. At times, ethical issues may arise from the kinds of problems social scientists investigate and the methods used to obtain valid and reliable data. According to Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 77), ethical issues may be evoked by:

- The research problem itself, (for example genetic engineering).
- The setting in which the research takes place (such as public institutions and government agencies).
- The procedures required by the research design (exposure of the experimental group to conditions that may have negative effects on the participants).
- The methods of data collection (covert participant observation).
- The kinds of persons serving as research participants (the poor).
- The type of data collected (personal information).

(Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004: 80) observe that, in some cases, social scientists face a conflict between two rights: the right of the scientist to conduct research and to acquire

knowledge and the right of individual research participants to self-determination, privacy and dignity; regarding which, the authors argue that there is no correct answer. Therefore, they contend that decisions are dependent on the background, convictions and experience of the researcher. The authors add that, in planning a research project, researchers have an obligation to weigh the potential benefits or contributions of a project carefully against its costs to individual participants; such as affronts to dignity, anxiety and embarrassment, loss of trust in social relations, loss of autonomy and self-determination, as well as a lowered sense of self-esteem. For the scientist, the benefits of a study are the potential advances in theoretical or applied knowledge, while for the participants; the gains include monetary compensation, the satisfaction of making a contribution to science, and a better understanding of the researched phenomenon.

Research procedures, based on ethical considerations, are selected in accordance with professional and personal values. According to Nachmias & Nachmias (2004: 80):

..an ethical researcher “is educated about ethical guidelines, carefully examines moral alternatives, exercises judgment in each situation and accepts responsibility for his choice” Ethics is a set of moral principles which are suggested by an individual or group, are subsequently ideally accepted, and which offers rules and behavioural explanations about the most correct conduct towards the experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students. Ethical guidelines serve as the foundation upon which each researcher ought to assess his or her own conduct.

Ethical considerations were intentionally taken into consideration in the course of this study, as they are principles, which guide all research. The following section deals with some of the ethical considerations which this researcher kept in mind.

3.3.1 Researcher’s competency

Strydom (2002: 69) maintains:

.. researchers are ethically obliged to ensure that they are sufficiently competent and adequately skilled to undertake the proposed investigation. From the composition of

the research population, the sampling procedure, the methodology utilized, processing of the data, up to writing the research report the researcher should constantly be aware of his/her ethical responsibilities.

The researcher agrees with the author that research in whatever form may contain sensitive information. In this regard, the researcher is confident that he was competent to deal with the study as he completed a module in research methodology successfully and has experience in working with institutions. In terms of supervision, the researcher had the privilege of being guided by a professor at the University of South Africa who, by all standards, is a distinguished expert with experience in supervising research projects, especially qualitative research and in the area of higher education under which this study falls.

3.3.2 Relationship with the participants

The interaction between the interviewer and the subjects naturally gives rise to relationships. In this regard, Opie (2004: 29) maintains that it is important to remember that the relationships are multi-faceted and that the people who are being studied will form their own interpretations of what is going on, regardless of researchers' intentions. Therefore, it is ethical practice to ensure that respondents are given as much information as possible. Researchers should also think about the value respondents could derive from the research and seek to find some sort of reciprocity.

In this study, the researcher made every effort to create and maintain an atmosphere of mutual understanding between himself and the respondents. This made fruitful interaction possible that yielded the desired data for the study. As a gesture of reciprocity, the researcher provided minimal refreshments, depending on the prevailing circumstances and the category of respondents.

3.3.3 Anonymity and confidentiality

In research studies, it is common practice to apply the principles of anonymity and confidentiality in order to protect both the respondents and the data. According to Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 88), “Two common methods researchers use to protect participants are anonymity and confidentiality.” In this connection, researchers provide anonymity by separating the identity of individuals from the information they give. A participant is anonymous when the researcher or other persons cannot identify or link particular information to a particular participant, therefore the identity of the participant is ensured despite the revelation of sensitive information.

One procedure followed in this regard, is not mentioning the names or by providing other means of identifying participants in a research project. Alternatively, researchers may ask participants to select their own aliases or to use well-remembered identification numbers. Anonymity may be enhanced if the names and other identities are linked to the information by a code number. When preparing the data for analysis, researchers can maintain anonymity by separating identifying information from the data itself. Further safeguards include the prevention of the duplication of records, passwords to control access to data and automatic monitoring of the use of files (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004: 88).

With regard to confidentiality, Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 89) argue, “participants in social science research are often told that the information they provide will be treated as confidential” and that even though researchers are able to identify particular participant information, they will not reveal it publicly. During the data collection stage, researchers should inform the participants clearly and accurately about the meaning and limits of confidentiality, preferably in the form of a written statement.

Once the data in a study have been collected, researchers should make sure that no one else (other than perhaps a few key research assistants) has access to the data in order to ensure confidentiality of the data (Wallen, 2000: 43). In this study, the researcher made every effort to ensure compliance with this condition.

3.3.4 Informed consent

Prospective participants in an interview have the right to agree or refuse to participate. Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 83) explain that informed consent is the “procedure in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed of faults that could be likely to influence their decision.” There are four elements involved here: competence, voluntarism, full information and comprehension. Cohen, Marion, Morrison and Morrison (2007: 52) expound on these four elements. Firstly:

...ompetence implies that responsible, mature individuals will make correct decisions if they are given relevant information, and it is incumbent on researchers to ensure they do not engage individuals incapable of making such decisions because of immaturity or some form of psychological impairment.

Secondly:

..voluntarism entails applying the principle of informed consent and thus ensuring that participants freely choose to participate (or not) in the research and guarantees that exposure to risks is undertaken knowingly and voluntarily.” They observe that this element can be problematic, especially in the field of medical research, where unknowing patients are often used as guinea pigs.

Thirdly:

..full information implies that consent is fully informed, though in practice, it is often impossible for researchers to inform subjects of everything.” Finally, “comprehension implies understanding of all relevant information regarding the study.”

Wallen (2000: 43) asserts, “It is a researcher’s responsibility to protect individuals from harm by obtaining the consent of individuals who may be exposed to any risk.” However, almost all educational research involves activities that are within the customary and usual procedures of institutions or other agencies and as such, involve little or no risk.

According to Nigel (2002: 45), the informed consent doctrine provides that persons who are invited to participate in social research activities should be free to take part or refuse. They should first be provided with complete information about the nature and purpose of the research including any risks to which they would be exposed personally and the

arrangements for maintaining the confidentiality of the data. Furthermore, Nigel (2002: 55) argues that covert participant observations, in which the subjects of the research are not informed about the true identity of the researcher, is clearly a violation of the principle of informed consent. The subjects have no opportunity to decide whether or not to participate. In addition, secret participant observations are frequently an invasion of privacy.

(Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004:81) point out that there is general consensus among social scientists “that research involving human participants should be performed with the informed consent of the participants. Informed consent is essential whenever participants are exposed to substantial risks or are asked to forfeit personal rights.” To ask individuals whether they wish to participate in a research project shows respect for their right of self-determination.

In this study, the prerequisite of informed consent was adhered to through full disclosure to the selected respondents of the purpose and scope of the study prior to their participation in individual and focus group interviews.

3.3.5 Privacy

In the context of research, the right to privacy refers to the freedom of the individual to determine the time and circumstances under which, and, most importantly, the extent to which, his/her attitudes, beliefs, behaviour and opinions are to be shared or withheld from others. It is important to note that the right to privacy may be violated easily during a study or after its completion

There are three different dimensions to privacy, namely the sensitivity of information being given, the setting being observed and dissemination of the information. Sensitivity of information is about how personal or potentially threatening the information is that the researcher wishes to collect. (Nachmias & Nachmias, 2004: 81) observe that the setting of a research project being observed “may vary from very private to completely public, and dissemination of information has a bearing on the ability to match personal information with the identity of research participants.”

During this investigation, the researcher made prior arrangements to ensure that the prospective respondents' rights to privacy were respected. This was achieved through prior communication with heads of the sampled institutions, as well as the other respondents ahead of the interviews.

3.3.6 Deception of participants

According to Nachmias and Nachmias (2004: 79), deception refers to telling respondents a lie to make observations that the researcher would otherwise not be able to do. It involves not disclosing to individual participants the true value or purpose of the study, nor that they are the primary units of observation and analysis. Secondly, it applies where participants have not agreed to participate in the study as respondents. Thirdly, distrust can be generated among potential research participants to the extent that future investigators would find it difficult to obtain information or to gain the cooperation of participants. As an ethical issue, the anonymity of the participant and confidentiality of the data is closely related to concerns over participants' rights and welfare.

This researcher had no reason to deceive the respondents in this study. The researcher was open and transparent to the participants in all the research methods employed in the study, namely individual interviews, focus group interviews and observation.

3.4 MEASURES TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS

Ridenour and Newman (2008: 35) argue that "trustworthiness" is a recently coined term that relates to a broader notion of truth value. According to Robson (2002: 100), trustworthiness comprises answering the question: "Have I done a good, thorough and honest job? Have I tried to explore, describe or explain in an open and unbiased way?" "Alternatively, am I more concerned with delivering the required answer or selecting the evidence to support a case?" If the answers to these questions are not "yes," "yes" and "no" respectively, then the findings are essentially worthless in enquiry terms. However, pure intentions do not

guarantee trustworthy findings. One persuades others by clear, well-written and well-presented, logical arrangements and argued accounts, which address the questions that concern the researcher. In this regard, Bennett (2003: 73) argues that a good case study will be reported in such a way that members of the same academic field will find it credible, able to identify with the problems and issues being reported and draw on them to see ways of solving similar problems in their own situation.

Lincoln and Guba (as cited by Opie, 2004: 70) contend, “Trustworthiness involves credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability.” These four concepts are, “extensions or adaptations of the ‘traditional’ categories of internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity.” Opie (2004: 21) highlights several strategies that can enhance the credibility of case study research. Firstly, data gathering procedures are explained, data is presented in a transparent manner and in ways that enable easy re-analysis. Secondly, negative instances are reported, biases acknowledged and fieldwork analyses explained. Thirdly, the relationship between claims and supporting evidence are expressed clearly, primary data (the researcher’s own data) are distinguished from secondary data (other people’s data). Finally, an interpretation is distinguished from a description and a diary or a log is used to track what took place during the study, while procedures are in place to check the quality of the data.

Furthermore, Opie (2004: 21) asserts that trustworthiness of the research outcomes should result in readers of the research “believing what the researcher has reported,” adding, “this implies readers should have sufficient confidence in the researcher’s conduct of the investigation and in the results of the research so as to consider the outcome reliable.”

In this study, the researcher carried out the investigations taking into account the considerations discussed in the section that follows.

3.4.1 Truth-value

The truth-value refers to the fact that the data are rich and reflect participants' knowledge (Myburgh and Poggenpoel, 2007: 65). In this regard, credibility is the strategy that is implemented to provide truth-value to qualitative research. Ridenour and Newman (2008: 35) point out that validity pertains to the truth-value of a research study as it is concerned with both the research itself and the truth-value of the research outcomes. This implies that "without validity there is no truth, and without truth, there is no claim of validity" (Ridenour & Newman, 2008: 35). The authors conclude that, "connecting research purposes to questions and methods is central to validity and truth value." Furthermore, Ridenour & Newman (2008: 35) point out that the "findings on human experiences, as lived and perceived by the participants, are key in this regard."

In this study, an attempt was made to enhance the truth-value by employing the techniques of prolonged engagement, triangulation and structural coherence.

3.4.2 Applicability ensured by the strategy of transferability

According to Myburgh and Poggenpoel (2007: 65), "applicability" refers to the ability of the research results to be transferred to similar contexts with similar participants. In order for other researchers to be able to utilise the results, "a clear description of the demographics of the participants should be provided." Myburgh and Poggenpoel add, "There should also be a dense description of the results with supporting direct quotations from the participants." Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003: 37) state that from the qualitative design perspective, transferability refers to the degree in which results may be applied from the sending context (where the research took place) to the receiving context (where the results are to be applied).

In the words of Trochim (2008: 13):

...transferability refers to the degree to which the results of qualitative research can be generalized or transferred to other contexts or settings. The qualitative researcher can

enhance transferability by doing a thorough job of describing the research context and the assumptions that were central to the research.

3.4.3 Consistency ensured by the strategy of dependability

Myburgh and Poggenpoel (2007: 65) explain that “consistency” refers to being able to follow the research methodology of an original research project and come to similar conclusions. To be able to do this, a dense description must be given of the research methodology utilised. According to Trochim (2008: 15), the idea of dependability emphasises “the need for the researcher to account for the ever-changing context within which research occurs.” The researcher is responsible for describing the changes that occur in the research setting and how these changes affect the way the researcher approached the study.

3.4.4 Neutrality

According to Myburgh and Poggenpoel (2007:65), “neutrality” refers to the research being free from researcher bias. In turn, Patton (2002: 51) argues that any credible research strategy requires that the investigator adopts a stance of neutrality with regard to the phenomenon under study. Patton explains that this “simply means that the investigator does not set out to prove a particular perspective or manipulate the data to arrive at predisposed truths.” In fact, a neutral investigator enters the research arena with no axe to grind, no theory to prove (to test, but not to prove) and no predetermined results to support.

The investigator’s commitment is to understand the world as it unfolds, to remain true to complexities and multiple perspectives as they emerge and as Patton (2002: 51) points out, the researcher must also remain “balanced in reporting both confirmatory and disconfirming evidence with regard to any conclusion offered.”

In this study, the researcher observed the principles of neutrality as much as possible throughout the investigation.

3.5 LITERATURE CONTROL

Poggenpoel and Myburgh (2005: 65) state that a “literature control” is conducted to identify commonalities and differences in the research results, as a means of verification. The themes that emerge through the process of qualitative data analysis have to be placed within the context of existing literature. Identified themes crystallise in the form of either confirmation through literature, contradiction of the literature or as emerging new insights that can contribute to the existing literature.

In this study, the researcher utilised the principle of literature control to place the themes that emerged into context.

3.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the research design, methods of data collection and procedures for data analysis have been described. Identification of participants in the data collection was also highlighted. The steps taken to ensure trustworthiness of the research as well as ethical considerations were discussed.. The chapter that follows consists of the presentation and interpretation of the qualitative data collected by means of fieldwork.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents data obtained from those respondents that participated in the study, the analysis of this data and the findings of the study. The aim of this study was to investigate the phenomenon of stakeholder involvement in the management of the Kenyan public technical training institutions. The objectives of the study were to determine:

- Who the stakeholders that are regarded as key in the management of public technical training institutions are.
- Which types of stakeholder are currently actively involved.
- The extent to which they are involved.
- The relationship between problems experienced in Kenyan public technical training institutions and stakeholder involvement.
- The ways in which the effectivity of management can be enhanced with special reference to stakeholder involvement.

The study involved three public technical training institutes; one in the centre of Nairobi and the other two on the outskirts of Nairobi.

At each of the three institutions, the researcher used focus group interviews to obtain data from a group of five (5) teachers and seven (7) student leaders respectively, while individual interviews were used to obtain data from the various chairpersons of the BoGs and principals as internal stakeholders. In addition, data were obtained by means of individual interviews with three parents as representatives of the local community and as external stakeholders. The researcher also intended interviewing a chief executive of a local industry/employer organisation (see chapter 1, section 1.5.5), but this category of external stakeholder had to be omitted due to objections from the institutions involved.

Consequently, the findings presented in this chapter are based on 15 (of the intended 18) interview sessions and information supplied by 45 (instead of the planned 48) respondents.

The researcher used an interview schedule as a guide for the in-depth data gathering interviews. While field notes were taken, a voice recorder was also used for data capturing. Simultaneously observations were done and written down. The interviews were later transcribed, the notes reviewed and organised according to the themes of the study as well as according to those that emerged. The data were then analysed and the findings recorded for use in drawing conclusions and recommendations in the final chapter. Below are the presentation, analysis and findings derived from the collected data.

4.2 IDENTIFICATION OF STAKEHOLDERS

In accordance with the objectives of the study, the researcher first attempted to determine whom teachers, principals, chairpersons of BoGs, students and parents respectively regarded as legitimate stakeholders in the management of their respective technical training institutes. The respondents were requested to identify those stakeholders they regarded as the three most important ones, irrespective of whether they were or were not currently involved in the Technical Training Institute (TTI), to substantiate their choice and to explain their order of priority. Their responses were assumed to represent the theoretically ideal situation, regarding stakeholder involvement and are discussed below.

4.2.1 Teachers

Teachers who formed part of Focus Group 1 listed lecturers, parents, students, suppliers, and support staff as those whom they regarded as legitimate stakeholders. When asked to rank these stakeholders in order of importance, the group listed them in the following order: students, lecturers and parents.

One of the respondents explained that she ranked students first because “students are the source of our livelihood.” Another one declared, “Students are the reason why all of us

[teachers] are here. Without them, we would not be exercising our duties.” All the other members of the focus group seemed to agree. Regarding ranking themselves second, the educators explained, “We are there to guide and direct the students towards a suitable career.” One of the respondents also stated, “as much as students are important, they cannot blossom without our help.” The teachers attempted to justify their ranking of parents third by indicating that, “They [parents] come in to support with finances, without which it is hard to run an institute.” One of the teachers maintained, what all the other members of the focus group supported, namely that “There is no ‘least important’ stakeholder as all of them are unique in their input.”

In Focus Group 2, teachers listed the principal and his team (referred to as the central administration, namely the deputy principal, the registrar and the dean of students), BoG, parent-teacher association (PTA), students, lecturers, support staff and the industry where they take trainees for practical experience. When asked to rank whom they regarded as the three most important stakeholders, they chose the BoG, central administration (including the principal) and the PTA as the most important.

Probed on why they ranked the stakeholders in that order, it was explained that the BoG runs the institution while the central administration and the PTA are important in decision-making. All the members of the focus group seemed to agree. The group concurred that no stakeholder was unimportant as every stakeholder had a critical role to play in the management of the institution. One of the respondents, for example, commented that he “would not say the stakeholders not ranked are less important because, like students, they are our clients. We are here because of them and although industry is one of the silent stakeholders, it gives feedback on the relevance of the syllabus. Without this team, technical training institutions are not complete.”

The participants in Focus Group 3 (the teachers) provided a relatively long list of purported legitimate stakeholders, namely the parents, the ministry, the BoG, teachers, students, society, community, the Teachers’ Service Commission, and the Kenya National Examination Council. Asked to rank the three most important stakeholders, they indicated

that they regarded the ministry, the BoG and teachers as the most important stakeholders because, among other things, “The ministry deals with the policies, while the BoG aligns and supervises these policies, and teachers are the implementers of the policies.” According to this group, the local community, students and society were not very important stakeholders mainly because “The local community benefits indirectly, students are the beneficiaries, and the society is there to impact.”

The responses reported above reveal that teachers in the three institutions generally consider internal stakeholders as more important to TTIs than external stakeholders. Although they hold the opinion that each type of stakeholder has a unique role to play, they seem to presume that stakeholders’ importance largely depends on the various stakeholders’ perceived level of contribution to the management of an institution.

4.2.2 Principals

In the three individual interviews conducted with principals of the technical training institutions, they listed the Ministry of Education, the BoG, the principal, teachers, students, the local community, parents, employers, sponsors, industry and other institutions like KEMRI (Kenya Medical Research Institute) as the legitimate stakeholders. Of these, they considered the Ministry of Education, teaching staff, parents, local community, industry and suppliers as the most important. From the principals’ responses, it appeared that they regarded parents and the local community as separate entities. This is in stark contrast with the researcher’s assumption that parents represent the local community.

On the other hand, the ministry is regarded as a very important stakeholder, ostensibly because it supports TTI projects financially, develop policies that affect the latter, has the responsibility of appointing members of BoGs and also employs the teachers who make up the staff of these institutions. The teaching staff is expected to implement the prescribed curriculum, whereas the parents “bring in the students and they fund them while the local community provides an environment [conducive to teaching].” According to one of the principals, “The parents are the major source of income. The institute cannot depend fully on

the ministry because the latter also has other institutions to fund. In addition, the funds from the ministry may not be sufficient, so parents are very helpful stakeholders.” According to one of the principals, “The industry is a very important stakeholder, because for an institute, it is a requirement to test both theory and practice. In this regard, the industry provides the students with a real experience of what they should expect once they complete their studies.” Concerning suppliers, the same principal explained that, “They provide the institute with learning materials and facilities, for example, workshops of engineering departments.”

As in the case of the educators, the principals were unanimous in their view that stakeholders had different roles to play and that none of them were unimportant. One of the principals expressed his view in the following manner, “All the stakeholders function in different ways and their input and contribution is very important for the growth and development of our institute.” However, the context in which they functioned seemed to have an important effect on the extent of their importance, since one of the other principals commented, “The community is more of a liability than an asset to the institution, [a] (church) sponsor has no specific role (other than spiritual), while other partners (such as donors) only add value occasionally.”

From the responses of the principals, the role played by stakeholders responsible for funding and/or financial issues, was clearly recognised as important. This is a pointer to the fact that principals attach a lot of importance to financial resources, which are indeed critical for effective running of an institution.

4.2.3 Chairpersons of the boards of governors

In the interviews with chairpersons of the BoGs, they identified the following as legitimate stakeholders in the management of a TTI:

- The Ministry of Education (the “government”).
- PTAs.
- The principal and his team of lecturers.

- Non-teaching staff members of TTIs.
- Students.
- Students' unions.
- The Teachers Service Commission (TSC).
- The Kenya National Examinations Council and future employers of qualified students.
- Financial sponsors
- Development partners (international collaborators with Kenya).
- Trade unions,
- Local authorities
- Commerce (local traders).

They expressed differing views concerning the relative importance of the various stakeholders. One of them regarded the BoG, the principal and his team of lecturers and the PTAs as the most important stakeholders in TTIs, while another ranked student unions above PTAs. However, the third chairperson attached more importance to the Ministry of Education and future employers of students (industry and commerce). Nevertheless, in all three cases, the emphasis seemed to be on the necessity of the involvement of external stakeholders in TTIs.

The chairpersons, who favoured the BoG as a prime stakeholder, expressed the view that the members of the BoG act as representatives of the government who “funds these institutions and also pays the teachers.” Students and consequently student unions are considered important stakeholders because they constitute the reason for the TTIs’ existence, whereas PTAs “bring in funds in terms of fees and work with teachers as decision makers through their association.” It is interesting to note that one of the respondents remarked that trade unionists could be regarded as the least important stakeholders since “they are only interested in income without caring about the state of the market.” This could possibly be interpreted as a negative attitude regarding the involvement of labour unions in the management of TTIs. The reason for such an attitude requires further investigation.

It seems as though the fact that the BoGs are the overall managers responsible for developing the policy and critical decision-making, has shaped the chairpersons' perceptions of stakeholder involvement. The BoG representatives consistently mentioned a larger number of groups whom they regarded as legitimate stakeholders than the educator and principal respondents. One could possibly infer that the chairpersons had been influenced by the broad-based issues of governance and management they encountered on behalf of the government that had appointed them.

4.2.4 Students

When the students who were part of Focus Group 1 were asked to identify the groups of stakeholders they regarded as legitimate in the management of a TTI, they listed students, parents/sponsors, support staff, teaching and non-teaching staff members, the BoGs and PTAs. These students were unanimous in their view that, among these groups, students, PTAs and the BoGs were the most important.

According to one of the respondents, students “are the backbone of the institute.” They “keep things moving” whereas PTAs serve as “a forum where the teachers and parents meet. They elect their leaders and they are also involved in decision making.” Regarding the BoG, the students indicated, “They are senior managers and they monitor the running of the institute closely.” These students regarded the support staff as a stakeholder group of lesser importance.

The student members of Focus Group 2 identified only the government, parents, students, PTAs, donors and the BoGs as legitimate stakeholders. Among these groups, the government, the PTAs and BoGs ranked the highest. According to the participants in the focus group, the government, through the Ministry of Education, is the major sponsor of the technical training institutes in Kenya. The importance of a PTA lies in the fact that “it provides a platform where the parents and teachers come together and get involved in decision making.” In a similar fashion, the BoG plays a key role in the management through critical decision-making. The members of Focus Group 3 did not regard donors, parents and

students as important stakeholders in TTIs, apparently because their role was vague and insignificant as shown by these comments by some of the students, “Donors do not frequent our institute. They appear once in a while” and “Parents are only involved when paying the fees and maybe [during] their annual meeting.” In addition, they had the following to say about students, “I think we are liabilities and a passing cloud. After three years there is another face altogether.”

Focus Group 3, also consisting solely of students, mentioned the local community, students, the BoG, the teaching staff, the government, parents and the institute’s sponsor as groups regarded as legitimate stakeholders of TTIs by them. In contrast to the respondents in Focus Group 2, the group considered students, teachers and parents (in that order) to be the most important stakeholders in TTIs.

This group of students explained their preferences in the following practical terms, “It is impossible to run the institution without students. They make the institution” and “Teachers are there to help the students and the parents pay the school fees.” After some discussion, Focus Group 6 decided that sponsors, the BoG and the local community should be regarded as stakeholders of lesser importance, mainly because “sponsors come in only occasionally, the BoG holds their meetings quarterly and (the local) community comes for meetings occasionally.” It is noteworthy that this response reflects the lack of knowledge of some of the students with regard to the role various stakeholders play in TTIs and certain specific matters, such as the frequency of BoG meetings.

In summary, the students appear to regard themselves, their parents (financiers), teachers and the overall management body as the most important stakeholder groups.

4.2.5 Parents

The parents who were interviewed, responded to the question of whom they regarded to be legitimate stakeholders in the management of a TTI by listing the following groups: parents, students and teachers (Parent A), parents, students, lecturers and support staff (Parent B) and

parents, students, teachers, non-teaching staff and BoGs (Parent C). All three the parents ranked students as the most important stakeholders in TTIs.

They emphasised that students were the direct and key beneficiaries in terms of education, that students were the reason why TTIs existed and that “The students make the institution. Without them, there would be no learning.” They seemed to agree that when students were enrolled at the institution, the TTIs were able to employ workers and other support staff and to remunerate lecturers from funds obtained from these students. Parents and lecturers were regarded as “secondary” stakeholders who have an interest in the TTI simply by virtue of the students; parents send their children to the institute to be trained and without a team of lecturers, this ideal would not be realised. The parents did not regard any of the stakeholders they had identified as unimportant or as less important than teachers and parents, because, as one of the parents explained, “Stakeholders work like a human body. You need hands, legs and others to operate and function fully.” Another parent declared, “They all play a very significant role in the running of the institute.”

It appears that the parents who were interviewed, held the view that teaching and learning can take place without the other stakeholders, but not without students, parents and teachers; hence, the importance of their involvement in the management of TTIs.

4.3 ACTUAL INVOLVEMENT OF SPECIFIC STAKEHOLDER GROUPS

The researcher wanted to know from the respondents which specific stakeholder groups were actually involved in their TTI. The responses of the participants in the interview were assumed to be an indication of the actual, practical involvement of stakeholders in the relevant TTI. They were encouraged to provide examples of such involvement. The responses of the participants are discussed below briefly.

4.3.1 Teachers

Teachers, who were part of Focus Group 1, responded that students fulfilled a role as stakeholders in their particular TTIs as they were able to air their views fully and openly through various channels to improve management practices. They, for example, participated in a student council. The students also selected class representatives and had access to suggestion boxes, which were opened weekly. In addition, students played a role in a “amukunji” (an informal joint meeting of students and staff) held once every term. The teacher respondents also mentioned the activities of the dean of students’ office and the quality assurance office.

Focus Group 1 expressed the unanimous view that they, as teachers, were involved in the management of the TTI through airing their views at general staff meetings, departmental meetings and a welfare committee. They also took advantage of the principal’s open door policy, which was in place.

The teacher respondents referred to the BoG as “the senior managers of the institute and signatories to bank accounts.” One of the respondents intimated, “They hold meetings to deliberate on the running of the institution.” Another provided an example of a specific BoG mandate, namely financial management, such as budget approval. Regarding the involvement of local industries, one respondent pointed out that the TTI had a specific officer in charge of communication with industries whose office was called the industrial liaison office (ILO). He explained that the ILO communicated and worked closely with the various industries, adding that these industries offered internships to students. (Examples of companies providing internships were provided, but kept unpublished on account of confidentiality.)

Finally, concerning local community involvement, one respondent mentioned that there was an annual general meeting and a PTA executive committee meeting every three months during which parents or any other member of the local community could raise issues of concern to the TTI. It was also pointed out, “Local communities are involved in paying fees for their students and get involved in cases of indiscipline.”

In Focus Group 2, the teachers indicated that students were involved in the management of the institution through class representatives who were referred to as “class presidents” and who were responsible for maintaining discipline in their classes. One respondent explained, “They are the ones who have firsthand information about their class even before the class teacher gets to know about it.” Another commented, “It is the class president who has the information; so he is directly involved in the class matters and I think without them it is very hard to manage class activities.” Another teacher added that there was “a student council body which is known as student governing council.” Students also had “departmental meetings” where they could air their grievances openly and brought special matters to the attention of the departmental heads who then usually took these “mainly academic matters” up with the administration.

According to this group, teachers were involved at classroom level, which entailed handling any student delinquent behaviour such as persistent absenteeism. It was explained, “A class teacher forwards the student with queer behaviour [sic] to the head of department who, if can solve it at that level, well and good; if not, then the central administration is informed and in worst case scenario the BoG is made aware and this is where expulsion occurs [sic]”. However, such cases appeared to be rare. Most were handled at classroom level. The members of the focus group agreed that lecturers provided guidance and counselling to students. They sat down with the students; spoke to them at length, attempted to understand their problems and then counselled them accordingly.

The members of Focus Group 2 concurred that the BoGs were the signatories and financial managers of the institute, “There is nothing that can be done without their approval and they are also involved in discipline of the lecturers.” Regarding local industries, the group alluded to the fact that the industries provided trainees with practical training opportunities and “give the institute feedback on the same.” They also offered opportunities like site visits for educational purposes and played an important role in assisting the institute with current technology. In addition, this group remarked, “Sometimes when the industry is ahead in terms of technology, they come to our rescue by offering training so that we are up to date with the technology and that the syllabus is updated, especially in ICT.”

Local community involvement appeared to be limited to the paying of fees for the students they sponsor. A respondent stated, “We call them (parents) guardians here and we involve them in discipline of the students by calling them when students they sponsor, get involved in cases of indiscipline.” Another respondent added, “We also have direct interaction with them especially when they want to know the performance of the students of which they are guardians.”

Participants in Focus Group 3 stated that their students were provided with an opportunity to be involved in the management through an elected student body, suggestion boxes, open forums with the teachers and bulletins where they highlighted what was happening at the TTI, and outside it. Class representatives and the office of the dean of students were also cited as platforms for student involvement in the management of the institute. The respondents were unanimous that common issues of major concern to students revolved mainly around their academic progress and personal welfare.

Concerning the involvement of teachers in managerial affairs of the TTI, the focus group indicated, “As teachers, we hold positions of different responsibilities, for instance, the dean of students, the registrar, and heads of department or members of committees. Therefore we are involved in the management.” Another respondent gave examples of specific areas in which teachers had to play a managerial role, such as student discipline and curriculum development.

According to Focus Group 3, “BoGs are signatories who approve budgets and manage all the finances.” The BoG was regarded as an employer because it recruited or fired staff members. They were also seen as “creators of opinion” and the leaders of the institution.

Local industries were involved in the management of the TTI in terms of providing feedback on the relevance of skills taught in the institute. They also employed graduates from the institution, or as one respondent put it, “They are consumers of our graduates.” According to

Focus Group 3, local industries often requested “tailor-made courses” and then acted as external evaluators.

Regarding local community involvement, the group stated that local community members were part of the PTA and the BoG. They helped with raising funds and suggesting ideas to run and develop the institute.

4.3.2 Principals

According to one of the principals (or their representatives) who was interviewed, “Students have clubs and societies where they contribute monies for their own welfare.” The existence of a student governing council and elected class representatives was generally regarded as sufficient opportunity for them to air their grievances. They also mentioned that TTIs usually had a student dean “who is in the management” and in a way, represented students. Furthermore, students were involved through assemblies on Fridays and in one case, through a journalism club that gathered and reported what had transpired over the week, whether positive or negative.

Regarding teachers, the principals mentioned that they had opportunities for involvement in management through joint forums with administrators especially. However, the teachers seemed to be involved in a narrow range of activities in that they focussed mainly on academic issues with little or no involvement in other aspects of institutional management such as financial and curriculum review matters. According to the principals interviewed, teachers made their contributions through departmental heads, staff meetings and a staff welfare association.

The BoG was described by one of the principals as “the executive authority or the overall manager of the institute.” Apparently, they appeared to be of the opinion that the BoG held a position of superior authority together with the principal, as an *ex officio* member and secretary of the BoG, as the link to the TTI. Through the principal, “the day- to- day running of the institute has to be monitored.” The principals were unanimous in their view that the

BoG was in complete charge of all resources. Furthermore, they indicated that the BoG was involved in the management of the institution determining how the institution should be run through policymaking. Accordingly, they scrutinised the budget, gave their input and approved the policy. Thereafter, they also monitored the budget implementation. However, the BoGs' role in, for example, academic matters, curriculum development and research, was never mentioned.

Concerning the involvement of local industries in the management of TTIs, the collated principal views indicated that the major link with the institutions pertained to industrial attachment. The provision in government policies that local industries or prospective employers of trainees should be incorporated into BoGs (where decisions are made and policies formulated) did not seem to have been given any serious consideration by the respondents or the BoGs. However, it is unclear whether it was the institutions who were ignoring the regulation or the representatives of industry who were unwilling to sit on the BoGs. Local industry involvement in the management of TTIs occurred “mainly through industrial attachment for students of which the industries give us feedback regarding our student attitude, ability and others.” The principals also referred to the ILO and mentioned that local industries not only sponsored some of the students, but also became involved through “corporate responsibilities.” They provided resources and participated in annual general meetings. They all emphasised that “the institute encourages an open door policy.

Regarding local community involvement, the principals agreed, “There is a PTA in place through which parents participate in an open discussion with teachers once a year, where they give ideas on discipline, development and other issues related to the running of the institution.” Accordingly, one respondent pointed out those parents had a role to play in resource mobilisation for projects outside government funding. By way of illustration, she mentioned the role, which the PTA played in the sponsoring of women's hostel.

4.3.3 Chairpersons of boards of governors

The collated views of the BOG chairpersons on student involvement indicated that each of the TTIs had channels through which students made their contribution to the management of their respective institutions. In all cases, students were said to be engaged and consulted on a regular basis, especially in matters relating to their general welfare. The respondents seemed to agree that teachers were also given more than enough opportunities to contribute to the management of TTIs. However, from their responses, it was not clear in which aspects of management, teachers' participation was enlisted.

The three chairpersons of BoGs that were interviewed were unanimous in their view that BoGs were and should be regarded as the actual managers of their respective institutions. They have to enforce the government policies, which cover, for example, financial, academic, human resources and physical development matters.

According to the respondents, local industries were mainly involved in TTIs in the form of industrial attachment for students. Only one respondent mentioned that local industries were represented on the BoG. However, a later scrutiny of written records did not indicate any BOG member formally representing any local industry. According to the respondents, local industries played an advisory role on matters relating to the private sector. Linkages between local industries and TTIs were primarily fostered to promote in-service training and the eventual gainful employment of students in the Kenyan industry.

The respondents agreed that the local community (assumed to be parents) participated in the management of TTIs through their annual general meetings where they elected representatives to serve on the BoG and thereafter participated regularly in the management of the institution. The BoG representatives seemed to value the inclusion of members of the local community and were not concerned about possible negative influences that different stakeholders could exert on decisions that affected the institution.

4.3.4 Students

In response to a question posed by the researcher on the manner in which they were provided with an opportunity to be involved in the management of TTIs, the students who constituted part of Focus Group 1, cited five ways in which they could be involved, namely “Through a students’ governing council, a suggestion box, annual general meetings, departmental meetings, and a website.” Regarding teachers, one of the respondents remarked, “Teachers are the heads of departments, patrons of clubs and also have a suggestion box.” Concerning the BoG, they described BoG members as “the senior managers of the institute.” To substantiate this claim, they gave examples of what the BoG had done and was capable of doing. The BoG, for example, “paid for a trip to the coast, has bought a new bus for the institute, are [sic] also involved in discipline cases and are capable of expelling indiscipline students.” Referring to local industries, a respondent commented, “Members of the local industry are provided with the opportunity [to be involved] in many ways, some as suppliers, while some conduct training and workshops at the institute.” According to another respondent, “They also provide internship opportunities for students.”

In Focus Group 2, the student participants agreed that they were provided with an opportunity to be involved in the management of the institution through a student governing council, which reported to heads of department and the dean of students. Class representatives reported to the student governing council, the head of the department and the administration. The students further noted that the deans’ office was open to all students. In the opinion of the student respondents, “Teachers have among themselves heads of department who account for their various departments.” They were supposed to make requisitions for the departments they represented. In addition, they “The teachers come up with timelines for projects they have been entrusted with and also hold staff meetings every morning.”

Regarding the BoG, the group indicated that members of the BoG were not known by the majority of the students, though they recognised the board as the “overall manager” of the institution. Turning to local industries, the students explained that they had a three-month

attachment break annually during which they worked as interns at the various industries. During that period, the students reported to the managers where they were working who provided feedback to their institution on the students' development. However, some of the students in the focus group believed that the local industry was only involved in terms of providing attachment opportunities. As for parents, the participants agreed, "Parents are not one hundred percent involved. They only come in during the payment of fees." However, the respondents did mention the existence of the PTA and the fact that annual general meetings were held where parents had an opportunity to air their views regarding the management of the institute.

Participants in Focus Group 3 indicated that they contributed to the management of the institute through suggestion boxes, open assembly meetings and a journalism club. It was also mentioned that teachers conducted general staff meetings and departmental meetings during which their opinions were heard. Regarding the BoG, the group appeared to concur with the opinion that "The board hold meetings and are a call away in case they are needed." However, the students appeared to have limited knowledge of the boards' specific mandate, apparently as a result of limited interaction between the two parties. According to the focus group participants, local industry was only involved in the management of TTIs through industrial attachments whereas "Parents participate in annual general meetings and some are members of the BoG and the PTA."

4.3.5 Parents

According to the parents who participated in this study, students were given an opportunity to be involved in the management of TTIs through different channels, one of which was the student governing council that students used to communicate with the management. The parents believed that teachers headed departments and held other responsibilities, through which they represented the rest of teachers in management. The BoG members were regarded as the overall managers of the TTIs. In his/her capacity as the secretary of the BoG, the principal supervised the implementation of BoG decisions. The parents seemed to be

satisfied with the fact that they were represented by elected persons serving on PTAs and on BoGs.

4.4 SPECIFIC ISSUES RELATED TO THE MANAGEMENT OF A TECHNICAL TRAINING INSTITUTE

In order to focus on specific issues related to the management of a TTI, the researcher enquired about the extent to which students, teachers, parents, employers and members of BoGs respectively, were currently involved in a number of aspects of management. In this regard, the respondents were asked to rate the extent to which various stakeholders were involved in the management issues mentioned in the tables below, on a scale of 5 to 1 where 5 represents “very much,” 4 represents “much,” 3 represents “average,” 2 represents “not much” and 1 represents “not at all.” The responses of the various stakeholder groups (expressed as an average for a particular group of respondents) are as indicated in the tables below, with corresponding analyses and findings.

4.4.1 Teachers

The collated ratings of management issues by the teachers who constituted the three focus groups are provided in the table below:

Table 4.1: Ratings by teachers

Management issue	Extent to which stakeholders are involved according to the 15 teachers interviewed				
	Students	Teachers	Parents	Employers	BoG
Financial matters	1.67	2.33	3.0	1.33	5.0
Disciplinary matters	3.0	3.33	3.67	2.0	4.67
Human resource issues	1.67	1.67	2.0	1.33	4.0
Issues related to planning (as a function of management)	2.0	4.0	2.67	1.33	4.33
Curriculum matters	1.67	3.67	2.0	2.67	2.33
Improving or maintaining the quality of teaching	2.33	3.67	1.67	2.0	2.67

Table 4.1: Ratings by teachers (continued)

Management issue	Extent to which stakeholders are involved according to the 15 teachers interviewed				
	Students	Teachers	Parents	Employers	BoG
Day- to- day running of the institute	1.67	3.0	1.67	1.33	4.67
Improving or maintaining an acceptable level of research output	2.67	4.0	1.67	2.67	2.67

Not many means of 4.0 or higher (which would indicate “much” or “very much” involvement of a stakeholder in a particular activity) appear in table 4.4.1. According to the teacher groups that were interviewed, the teachers are “much” involved in “issues related to planning” (4.0) and “improving or maintaining an acceptable level of research output” (4.0) and just a little bit less involved in “curriculum matters” (3.67) and “improving or maintaining the quality of teaching” (3.67). In the opinion of the teacher participants in the study, the BoG is “much” involved in “human resource issues” (4.0) and in “issues related to planning” (4.33). The BoG is somewhat more than “much” involved in “disciplinary matters” (4.67), the “day- to- day running of the institute” (4.67) and the “management of change” (4.67), and “very much” involved in “financial matters” (5.0). The ratings for the extent to which the students, parents and future potential employers were involved in management issues are characterised by relatively low mean scores.

The teachers appeared to think that these three groups were “not much” involved, with the possible exception of parents in “disciplinary matters” (3.67). The parents also seemed to be more involved in the management matters of TTIs than students or employers. However, what can be concluded with relative certainty is that the teachers held the view that each stakeholder in the institute had a clearly demarcated role to play and that the one did not trespass on the other’s turf. The BoGs, as the “overall managers” were involved in administrative, financial and planning matters, whereas teachers focussed on teaching and research. The parents were regarded as a stakeholder group that had to finance the institute partly and take responsibility for their children’s conduct on campus, and students were simply expected to behave themselves.

4.4.2 Principals

The collated ratings of management issues by the three principals are provided in the table below:

Table 4.2: Ratings by principals

Management issue	Extent to which stakeholders are involved according to the three principals interviewed				
Issue	Students	Teachers	Parents	Employers	BoG
Financial matters	2.33	3.33	3.67	2.0	5.0
Disciplinary matters	3.33	4.67	3.0	2.33	4.67
Human resource issues	1.33	3.0	1.67	1.67	4.33
Issues related to planning	3.0	4.33	2.33	2.33	5.0
Curriculum matters	2.0	3.33	1.33	2.67	3.0
Improving or maintaining the quality of teaching	2.67	4.67	1.67	1.67	4.33
Day to day running of the institute	3.33	4.67	2.67	2.0	4.33
Improving or maintaining an acceptable level of research output	2.33	4.0	1.67	2.0	3.67
Improving or maintaining sound relationships between the institute and the community it serves	3.0	3.67	1.67	2.33	4.0
Management of change	2.67	3.0	1.67	2.0	5.0
Mean scores for all items	2.60	3.87	2.14	2.10	4.33

Based on the principals' ratings, as reflected in table 4.4.2, the principals appeared to think that the BoG was "very much" involved in "financial matters," "issues related to planning" and the "management of change" (as all these items received a full score rating of 5.0) and "much" involved in all the other items with the exception of "curriculum matters" (3.0) and possibly also "improving or maintaining an acceptable level of research output" (3.67). As was the case with the teachers' ratings, the principals also appeared to think that teaching and research were primarily the domain of the teachers, not that of the BoG. The principals were assumed to know much about the actual involvement of the BoG since they were directly answerable to BoG in addition to being the secretaries of their various BoGs. Because of this

close working relationship, it can possibly be concluded that their ratings are credible and a true reflection of the BoG’s involvement in the specific issues.

It appears that some concurrence exists between the views of the three principals regarding the involvement of students, parents and employers in the management of the TTIs and that of the teachers. The principals indicated that they thought parents and employers were slightly less involved than the extent to which teachers thought they were involved (2.14 and 2.1 vs. 2.3 and 1.77 respectively), but that students were slightly more involved than the teachers’ thought them to be (2.6 versus 2.07). What is significant, though, is the principals’ view that teachers were involved “more than average” (almost “much”) in management matters as a whole (means of 3.87 for all ten items) compared to the view of the teachers that their level of involvement was just “average” (3.0). According to the principals, the teachers were more involved in all management issues mentioned with the exception of “curriculum matters, but the difference between these two means (3.33 and 3.67) is so small that it can be ignored, for all practical purposes. (At this stage, it needs to be mentioned that no statistical tests relating to the significance of the correlations were done because of the low number of respondents that participated in the survey). This salient difference between the principals’ and teachers’ views of the involvement of teachers in management issues seems to point to a lack of communication between principals and teachers.

4.4.3 Chairpersons of boards of governors

The participating chairpersons of the BoGs of the three institutions rated the involvement of the various stakeholders as shown in the table below:

Table 4.3: Ratings by the chairpersons of BoGs

Management issues	Extent to which stakeholders are involved according to the three chairpersons of BoGs interviewed				
	Students	Teachers	Parents	Employers	BoG
Financial matters	2.0	4.67	5.0	2.33	5.0
Disciplinary matters	3.33	4.0	3.0	1.33	4.33
Human resource issues	2.0	3.0	2.67	2.33	4.67
Issues related to planning	1.67	4.67	3.0	2.67	4.67

Table 4.3: Ratings by the chairpersons of BoGs (continued)

Management issues	Extent to which stakeholders are involved according to the three chairpersons of BoGs interviewed				
	Students	Teachers	Parents	Employers	BoG
Curriculum matters	2.33	5.0	2.33	3.33	4.0
Improving or maintaining the quality of teaching	2.33	4.67	2.67	2.33	4.33
Day to day running of the institute	3.0	4.67	2.0	2.0	4.67
Improving or maintaining an acceptable level of research output	2.33	4.33	2.33	2.67	3.33
Improving or maintaining sound relationships between the institute and the community it serves	3.33	4.0	4.0	1.33	4.0
Management of change	4.0	4.33	3.0	2.0	4.67
Mean scores for all items	2.63	4.33	3.0	2.23	4.37

From the above table, it seems that the BoG chairperson respondents regarded the BoGs as being either “much” or “very much” involved regarding all the issues with the exception of “improving or maintaining an acceptable level of research output” (3.33). Overall, they regarded themselves as being slightly more than “much” involved in the management of the institutes (4.37). According to the BoG respondents, the students were mostly involved in the “management of change” (4.0), while the parents were mostly involved in both “financial matters” (5.0) and “improving or maintaining sound relationships between the institutes and the communities they serve” (4.0). According to the BoG respondents, employers tended to be “not much” involved in the institutes (total mean score for all items: 2.23). It is important to note that they regarded teachers as being “much” to “very much” involved in almost all management activities except “human resource issues” (3.0) in which teachers were thought to have only an average involvement. The teachers’ involvement in “curriculum matters” was rated the highest of all items.

4.4.4 Students

The collated ratings by the 15 students at the three institutions who participated in the focus groups are given in the table below:

Table 4.4: Ratings by the students

Issue	Students	Teachers	Parents	Employers	BoG
Financial matters	1.0	2.67	1.33	1.0	5.0
Disciplinary matters	2.67	3.0	2.0	1.0	4.67
Human resource issues	3.0	3.67	1.0	1.0	4.67
Issues related to planning	3.0	2.5	1.0	1.0	5.0
Curriculum matters	1.33	4.67	1.0	2.0	3.67
Improving or maintaining the quality of teaching	2.33	4.0	1.33	2.33	4.0
Day to day running of the institute	2.0	3.33	1.0	1.0	4.37
Improving or maintaining an acceptable level of research output	1.67	2.0	1.33	1.33	2.33
Improving or maintaining sound relationships between the institute and the community it serves	2.0	2.33	1.67	2.0	3.0
Management of change	2.33	3.33	1.67	1.33	5.0
Mean scores for all items	2.13	3.25	1.33	1.40	4.17

According to the student respondents' ratings, the students, parents and employers were not "much" involved in the management of TTIs, if they were involved at all (note the mean scores for these groups over all ten items respectively: 1.7, 1.33 and 1.33). They also seemed to feel that even the teachers had an "average" level of involvement in management matters (the mean score for all items is 3.1), while the BoGs were mainly responsible for the management of TTIs. The student respondents rated the teachers' involvement in "curriculum matters" (4.67) and in "improving or maintaining the quality of teaching" (4.0) as "much" to "very much," and the involvement of BoGs in "financial matters," "issues related to planning" and in "the management of change" as "very much" (all received a mean score of 5.0).

Although students were the direct beneficiaries of the management functions, their level of awareness of the extent of involvement of the various categories of stakeholders appeared to be limited. This may possibly have been due to their (the students’) limited exposure to details of the activities relating to the various issues of management of their respective institutions.

4.4.5 Parents

The table below shows the collated ratings by the parents who were interviewed:

Table 4.5: Ratings by parents

Issue	Students	Teachers	Parents	Employers	BoG
Financial matters	1.67	2.0	4.33	2.0	4.67
Disciplinary matters	3.67	4.33	4.0	2.33	4.0
Human resource issues	1.67	2.67	2.33	1.67	4.33
Issues related to planning	2.0	3.33	2.67	2.33	4.33
Curriculum matters	2.0	4.44	3.33	2.0	3.67
Improving or maintaining the quality of teaching	1.67	4.33	3.33	2.33	4.0
Day to day running of the institute	2.0	4.0	3.0	2.0	4.67
Improving or maintaining an acceptable level of research output	2.0	3.67	2.33	2.67	3.67
Improving or maintaining sound relationships between the institute and the community it serves	1.33	1.67	2.67	1.67	3.33
Management of change	1.67	3.0	2.0	2.33	4.33
Mean scores for all items	2.14	3.34	2.90	2.35	4.10

The general pattern of beliefs regarding the extent of participation in the management of TTIs that transpired from the views of all the other stakeholder groups discussed above, is noticeable in the views of the parents too. The three parents who were interviewed indicated that, with the exception of involvement in “disciplinary matters” (3.67), they believed that students were “not much” involved in the management issues of TTIs, if at all. According to the parents, employers did not appear to have a significant role to play in the management of

TTIs with a mean score of less than 3.0 for all the items. The parents regarded themselves to be “much” involved in “financial” (4.33) and “disciplinary matters” (4.0) with an average involvement in “issues related to planning” (2.67), “curriculum matters” and “improving or maintaining an acceptable level of research” (both 3.33), the “day- to- day running of the institute” (3.0) and “improving or maintaining sound relationships between the institute and the community it serves” (2.67). With regard to teachers, the parents appeared to believe that they were “not much” involved in the “financial matters” of the institutes (2.0) and had only a small role to play in “improving or maintaining sound relationships between the institutes and the communities they serve” (1.67). The main responsibility for the management of TTIs lay with the BoGs who were “much” to “very much” involve in almost all management issues.

4.5 EXPERIENCES (POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE) OF THE STAKEHOLDER INVOLVEMENT OF VARIOUS STAKEHOLDERS

In accordance with the objectives of the study, in the interviews the researcher attempted to ascertain which positive aspects the respondents associated with the involvement of various stakeholders in the management of their respective institutes. He also made enquiries regarding possible problems the respondents had experienced regarding their involvement in the managerial aspects of the institutes and the most important challenges a principal had to overcome concerning involving all the respective stakeholders. The responses of the various participants are discussed below.

4.5.1 Teachers

Participants who were part of the three teacher focus groups responded that stakeholders’ involvement had a positive effect in the sense that it enhanced cooperation, teamwork, efficiency and effectiveness. They emphasised that the “involvement of stakeholders make[s] us focus on our vision and mission” and stated that it had led to the development of a sense of ownership among all the stakeholders. One of the respondents expressed the opinion that the involvement of stakeholders provided “a better understanding of the institute we are in

[so that the institute is] not foreign to us [and] we feel part and parcel of the institute.” Another commented, “ [A] clear understanding of roles by stakeholders has translated into [the] smooth running of the institute and rapid development of the infrastructure.” As an example of this clear demarcation of roles, a respondent referred to the parents/guardians who “know when to pay fees [and] students also know what to do when,” just as lecturers, members of BoGs and employers did.

One group of teachers mentioned that they associated various positive aspects of life at a TTI with the involvement of stakeholders, such as improved infrastructure, the availability of teaching and learning materials, an increase in research output, improved student enrolment and better performance by teachers. They stressed that if parents worked closely with teachers, better “discipline among their students” could be ensured.

Concerning the problems the respondents may have experienced in connection with stakeholder involvement, the teachers were unanimous in their views that some stakeholders failed to cooperate. They cited a number of industries, which sometimes were only prepared to provide limited attachment opportunities. They were regarded as “stakeholders [who] do not have the interest of the institute at heart.” In one of the focus groups, it was commented, “There is occasional demoralisation especially when there is no recognition, lack of promotion and intimidation of teachers.” They added that the “BoG sometimes resists change and condones nepotism.”

According to the teachers, the most important challenge a principal had to overcome was to differentiate between stakeholders. They argued that when students were involved in management, the principal needed to be firm, understand them and be a good communicator. Teachers, on the other hand, required principals to “communicate well, delegate duties and be charismatic,” while to the parents and the BoG, “understanding and be[ing] a good manager” were vital. The teachers expressed the view that employers expected the principal to “be innovative, a pacesetter, as well as open to ideas.”

Other important challenges a principal had to overcome in involving stakeholders in the management of TTIs, which the respondents mentioned and elaborated upon, were the following: effective communication, sensitivity regarding the possible demoralisation of teachers, a lack of transparency and honesty, financial demands, and a lack of fairness.

With regard to negative experiences with regard to stakeholder involvement, the teachers mentioned a few cases of indiscipline, resistance to change and a lack of interest or commitment by some stakeholders. This creates the impression that stakeholder involvement requires all stakeholders to understand the nature and importance of their respective roles clearly, if good results are to be achieved. It also draws the attention to the need for effective communication on the part of the principal.

4.5.2 Principals

One of the respondent principals explained how “improvement in terms of performance and infrastructure” occurred because of stakeholder involvement. He was convinced that the involvement of a variety of stakeholders in the management of the institute had “worked for the good of the institute.” Referring to the local industries as important stakeholders, he intimated, “Industries are now looking out for what we can offer, some call us to give us first priority when they have employment vacancies.” Another added that he associated many positive aspects of the management of TTIs with the involvement of the stakeholders, including “preparations for future leadership, easy institutional management, and improved performance.” One of the advantages of stakeholder involvement for teachers, according to this principal was that capacity could be built for succession management. It also led to increased motivation, improved performance, overall harmony and a reduction in staff conflict. When the BoG cooperated effectively with principals, “They form a pool of knowledge, which the principal can frequently tap. It helps the latter with policy formulation and implementation and to manage the institute better or more effectively.”

One of the principals experienced certain stakeholders’ resistance to change as very negative, “This has led to a reduction of sponsors.” This principal also mentioned that some “Parents

do not honour their commitments with regard to the payment of fees. This is a stumbling block and sometimes we are left with no other choice than to send students home to remind parents of their responsibility to pay fees.” For another principal, “Obstinacies among students, a lack of cooperation by parents, especially when it comes to funds and problems with employers on the issue of placement on attachment,” represented the negative side of stakeholder involvement. An important negative aspect of stakeholder involvement mentioned by the third principal was the fact that “it takes more time to convince students with vested interests.” Practising democracy is indeed a time-consuming process. This respondent also cited infighting amongst teachers for the power that was associated with limited positions of responsibility. In addition, “Parents less informed on matters of education and training add no value in the management of the institute.”

According to the principals, the most important challenges a principal had to overcome were, “Communication when dealing with students, decision making when dealing with teachers, understanding and being transparent when dealing with parents, equality and fairness when dealing with employers, and transparency and trust when dealing with BoGs.”

The participating principals appeared to agree that performance and effective management of the institutes were the results of stakeholder involvement.

4.5.3 Chairpersons of the boards of governors

The three chairpersons of the BoGs expressed very similar opinions on the positive and negative aspects of stakeholder involvement in TTIs even though they formulated their views differently. One of them regarded the “smooth running of the institute, improved performance and a limited number of cases of indiscipline” as some of the positive aspects of stakeholder involvement. Another held the opinion that the positive aspects included, “Pride of the stakeholders with [sic] the institute, better performance by students and boosted morale.” He indicated that members of the BoG, coming from diverse backgrounds such as bankers, lawyers, doctors and business people, “bring transformation to the institution.” The third chairperson asserted that stakeholder involvement led to mutual understanding and

harmony among the various players and that this, in turn, led to “rapid growth and development at the institute, quality teaching and learning, good discipline, improved public image, and improved performance.”

The three chairpersons stated that they and their BoGs had not experienced any serious problems concerning stakeholder involvement. However, a few of the stakeholders lacked adequate commitment, which tended to affect their performance and sometimes delayed decision-making. The occurrence of a few cases of indiscipline among staff of the institutes was also cited, but in general, they agreed that stakeholder involvement had far more positive than negative effects on TTIs.

According to the chairpersons of BoGs that were interviewed, some of the challenges principals had to meet in involving the various stakeholders in the management of a TTI, were to show that they possessed “interpersonal skills, diplomacy, humility and firmness.” They had to keep the functions and mandate of the institute in mind when trying to “understand the various stakeholders and their respective roles in terms of achieving vision and mission of the institute.” A principal should also “appreciate all the stakeholders, recognise their specific strengths for achieving goals and identify areas that need revamping from time to time.” However, according to one of the respondents, the most important challenge a principal had to overcome was a lack of commitment exacerbated by poor communication. In this regard a principal should be “proactive, a team player and adaptive so as to be a good link to all the stakeholders.”

4.5.4 Students

The students who participated in the Focus Group 1 interview regarded “harmony and unity amongst the stakeholders and increased student numbers” as positive attributes of stakeholder involvement in TTIs. They added that innovative ideas among stakeholders always resulted in better performance of the institute. For the Focus Group 2 participants, an important positive aspect associated with the involvement of stakeholders was that it led to respect for established rules and regulations that governed the institute. The fact that

employers became aware of students as potential employees was also mentioned. The participants, who constituted Focus Group 3, listed improved relationships between students and teachers, the recognition of students, improved morale among teachers and an improvement of the learning environment as positive aspects of stakeholder involvement. They concurred that the involvement of the BoG, in particular, had “translated into better utilisation of resources, improved infrastructure, enhanced reading and availability of learning materials.” According to them, the increased involvement of parents had led to the “timely payment of school fees and increased student enrolment.”

Regarding the possible negative aspects of stakeholder involvement, the students in Focus Group 1 mentioned resistance to change and sporadic instances of a lack of cooperation among stakeholders. The Focus Group 2 participants emphasised the “snail’s pace of decision- making even in matters that require urgent attention” and a lack of communication, “Some of us students do not know the BoG members. We wish, during orientation, they would take time and introduce them to us.” The issue of inadequate communication was also stressed by the members of Focus Group 3.

Similar to the chairpersons of the BoGs, the student respondents were quick to list the main characteristics good principals should possess. These are characteristics which should enable them to deal with stakeholders effectively, among other things, being “available and a good listener to the students, strict on [with] teachers who do not attend classes, understanding to [of] parents and sponsors, accessible, trustworthy and a good listener too.” In addition, “They should be trustworthy, confident and good communicators as well as flexible and understanding.” However, in spite of the interviewer’s efforts to steer the discussion in the direction of problems a principal may face when stakeholders are or have to be involved in the management issues of an institute, the students failed to discuss any such challenges.

Based on the above views, it is apparent that the students perceive enhanced stakeholder relationships and better performance as positive effects of stakeholder involvement. However, they also cited resistance to change and lack of cooperation among some stakeholders as the negative aspects. These findings show that, although the respondents at

all three institutions perceived positive results arising from stakeholder involvement, their own level of involvement appeared wanting.

4.5.5 Parents

According to the views expressed by the parents of students at the three institutions, it appears that the parents associated better overall performance of the institutes, sound discipline among students and high morale among teachers with the involvement of various stakeholders in the management of the institute. Furthermore, they seemed to agree that it reduced the level of conflict and enhanced the smooth running of the institutes. They cited a few cases of misunderstanding among stakeholders and resistance to change as negative aspects of stakeholder involvement in TTIs. The parents appeared to hold the opinion that a good principal had to be a good communicator and available to all stakeholders. However, they failed to indicate what the main obstacles were with which principals had to deal in order to involve stakeholders in the management of institutes. According to the parent respondents, stakeholder involvement was a tool that was and should be utilised to ensure effective teaching and learning at the institutes. Acceptance of the various stakeholders and effective communication with them via the principal were perceived as critical to ensuring the successful involvement of the stakeholders.

4.6 GENERAL EFFECTS OF STAKEHOLDER INVOLVEMENT IN THE MANAGEMENT OF TECHNICAL TRAINING INSTITUTES

The final questions posed during the various interviews were intended to determine whether stakeholder involvement in the management of the institutes should be enforced by means of government policies, whether it really enhanced the efficiency of management and what the effects of external and internal stakeholder involvement were. The responses of the participants are discussed below:

4.6.1 Teachers

When prompted to reveal their views on the enforcement or not of stakeholder involvement by means of government policies, the teacher respondents were unanimous that it was imperative for stakeholder involvement to be enforced. According to them, “ [It] would help to handle the formalities, provide [a] framework as well as bring conformity.” The teachers also concurred that stakeholder involvement really enhanced effective management of their institute, “because different voices are listened to and it is part of good team work.” Other reasons provided for this point of view were the following, “The government is the key sponsor of the institute. It should guide the supervision of the institutes.” “There is a need for standardisation so that all the institutes are in line with one vision and mission,” stated another respondent. Furthermore, they commented that stakeholder involvement “really enhances effective management of the institutes” and “stakeholders should become aware of their role and scope of involvement” through the enforcement of “rules as well as checks and balances.” The teacher respondents in Focus Group 3 were quite confident that enforcement through policies “would ensure [the] equal and fair distribution of funds, enable rewards based on merit – not on nepotism and tribalism, create room for creativity and innovation, and enable a transition from a consumer to a producer economy.”

Regarding the effects of the involvement of external stakeholders in the management of issues such as academic freedom and institutional autonomy, the teachers’ response was that “it leads to speedy decision making, quick execution of projects, and a focus on merit.” The teachers were convinced that external stakeholders “add value” to the institute in the sense that they evaluated, [provided] support, gave feedback, engaged with each other and built staff capacity.

The teachers stated that the involvement of internal stakeholders in management issues ensured that “there is a focus on merit, academic excellence and skills development as well as on talents.” It also resulted in “unity and harmony” among teachers and other staff at the institutes, enhanced transparency and served as a practice ground for inexperienced staff to “learn for succession management.” Additional effects included “improvement in

performance, good flow of information, improved partnership, efficiency and enhanced teamwork.”

4.6.2 Principals

Two of the principals who were interviewed, concurred that stakeholder involvement had to be enforced by means of government policy for regulation and monitoring purposes. They argued that if the appropriate objectives were formulated and pinned down in policy, “everything else would fall in place, including decision making.” However, one of the other principals disagreed: he felt that too many policies “can be an impediment to innovativeness” and that legislation often “creates bureaucracy which leads to slowness of policy and programme implementation.”

All the respondents regarded the involvement of both external and internal stakeholders as extremely important. According to the respondents, value addition and assistance in achieving the set goals and enhanced partnerships were the major effects of the involvement of external stakeholders in management issues. One of the principals indicated that external stakeholders offered positive support for the growth of the institute and gave feedback on certain aspects.

Regarding internal stakeholders, one of the respondents referred to both long and short- term goals and asserted, “In order to accomplish them, harmony and oneness are required. The involvement of internal stakeholders helps to cultivate and embrace ownership of the institute.” In general, it seemed to “bring harmony and minimise conflicts.” In his opinion, stakeholder involvement had made a difference in, for example, student enrolment and staff promotion: in his institute the student enrolment which, had stood at 250 students in 2009, while it stood at 700 students at the time of the study. Whereas not a single staff member was promoted in 2009, eleven teachers were promoted in 2011 and twenty-two teachers were on a fully sponsored training programme at the time of the interview.

4.6.3 Chairpersons of the boards of governors

One of the chairpersons of a BoG aired the view that the enforcement of stakeholder involvement by means of government policies would bring about “accountability and equal opportunities for the stakeholders.” Another held the opinion that enforcement would ensure that institutes “operate within the broader government policy framework, remain part of the bigger picture of tertiary education and make institutes part of government’s planning and implementation process.” According to her, stakeholder involvement could be regarded as “the pillars of development and service delivery.”

Regarding the effect of the involvement of external stakeholders on the management affairs of institutes, one principal cautioned that freedom came with responsibility; hence “with a sense of responsibility, efficiency and effectiveness, achievement of objectives has occurred courtesy of external stakeholders.”

With reference to the effect of internal stakeholders’ involvement in institutes, the principals agreed that teamwork had led to a reduction in internal conflict and misunderstandings. In a stable environment that was conducive to teaching and learning, academic freedom and institutional autonomy could be achieved. Internal stakeholders were not only part of the environment, but they were also responsible for creating such an environment.

The principals seemed to agree that stakeholder involvement should be enforced through government policies. Since these policies would protect and regulate the institutes, especially at a time when some of the institutes were being “swallowed” by universities, which turned them into university-constituent colleges.

4.6.4 Students

The students, like most of the other respondent groups, appeared to regard the enforcement of stakeholder involvement in TTIs by means of government policies as important. Apparently, they depended on the government to address the developmental and growth challenges that their institutes might face because “the government will be able to address

every factor that concern[s] the growth of the institutes, follow up on allocated funds, supervise projects and promote transparency and accountability.” In one of the focus group interviews, a student commented, “You see, like the issue of [the TVET] bursary, it is very important and this package helps the needy students who are not able to raise funds. The government through the ministry should set aside this package.” The student respondents seemed to be convinced that by enforcing stakeholder involvement through government policies, stakeholders would become more active and involved and the government would use the policy for close monitoring of the implementation of the policies. They seemed to hold the view that this kind of involvement would guarantee them a better learning environment and learning outcomes.

According to the students, the involvement of external stakeholders had led to increased “transparency in the way things are run, increased accountability and increased commitment in terms of funding as well as sponsorship.” By way of illustration, the respondents cited the execution of various projects and the proper implementation of budgets.

Regarding the effect of the involvement of internal stakeholders, the students stated, “There is a sense of ownership, flow of information through the available channels and respect of the rules and regulations in place.” However, some of the student respondents were rather sceptical of the outcomes of student involvement in the management affairs of institutes. They indicated, “Sometimes we are not really involved. However much we want to be positive, sometimes we are in the dark when it comes to decision- making as we are ambushed [sic] with already made decisions which we cannot question.”

4.6.5 Parents

According to the parents who were interviewed, stakeholder involvement should definitely be enforced by means of government policy because that would facilitate effective monitoring by the government. They seemed to hold the view that stakeholder involvement had enhanced the general teaching and learning performance in their respective institutes. They were therefore positive about the involvement of both external and internal

stakeholders. One of the respondents expressed his view in the following manner, “Every stakeholder is rich in their own way [sic] and the input they bring is very important for the development of the institute. As a parent, I give financial support, but I cannot do the lecturers’ work. So we, as different stakeholders, need to work together as a team.”

This marks the end of the fourth chapter of the dissertation, which comprises a data presentation, analysis and findings. The data was gathered by means of individual and focus group interviews from a sample consisting of respondents from three public technical training institutions. As this was a qualitative research project, the descriptive method of data analysis was applied to the data in order to derive the findings.

The chapter that follows is the last part of the dissertation and it consists of a summary, conclusions derived from the findings and recommendations based on the conclusions.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This is the final chapter of the dissertation, which comprises a brief summary of the origin of and approach towards the investigation, the study's findings and presents conclusions drawn from the findings. It also contains recommendations as derived from the findings and conclusions and themes identified for further investigation.

5.2 ORIGIN OF AND APPROACH TOWARDS THE INVESTIGATION

An institutional management approach, in which relevant stakeholders are involved in the relevant affairs of the institution, was perceived by the researcher as significant for the achievement of the goals of a TTI. Therefore, the researcher chose to conduct an empirical study on the manner, type, extent and effects of stakeholder involvement in the management of public technical training institutions in Kenya. The main question the study set out to answer was: "What does stakeholder involvement in the management of the Kenyan public technical training institutions entail?" The sub-questions that guided the study were the following:

- Who exactly are regarded as key stakeholders?
- Which stakeholders are actively involved at the time of the study?
- To what extent are they involved respectively?
- What is the relationship between the problems experienced by the institutions and stakeholder involvement?
- In which ways can the efficiency of management of technical training institutions in Kenya be enhanced through stakeholder involvement?

The research methodology adopted by the researcher to carry out the study was a predominantly qualitative design. This entailed the selection of a sample population of three (3) of the 19 public technical training institutes in the country at the time of the study. The tool applied for the study was an interview schedule, which the researcher developed and administered to the respondents.

Forty-five respondents participated in the interviews, which comprised both internal and external stakeholders to each of the three sampled institutions. The participants were principals, teachers, students and chairpersons of BoGs (internal stakeholders), as well as parents on behalf of the local communities (external stakeholders). The required data were obtained from the participants by means of focus group interviews with teachers and students, and individual interviews with the rest of the participants. The researcher also used observation and a literature review for further data gathering.

The fieldwork was conducted during May and June 2011, within a period of one month. The researcher completed the data analysis manually. The salient findings of the study are summarised below:

5.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

5.3.1 Identification of stakeholders: Who exactly were regarded as key stakeholders of technical training institutes?

The majority of the participants provided a list, which included students, teachers, and members of BoGs as internal stakeholders. External stakeholders included parties such as parents representing the local community, local industries, church and financial sponsors, relevant government and professional bodies.

The findings, however, seem to indicate that the perception of the respective participants regarding the legitimacy and level of involvement of the different stakeholder parties, whether internal or external, are influenced by the participant's background. For instance to teachers, internal stakeholders, of which they are part, are more important than external

stakeholders, to principals, it is the financiers and BoGs that are important and only students and their parents tend to concur that students and parents are of critical importance as they are beneficiaries and providers of finances respectively. While teachers appear convinced that each type of stakeholder has a unique role to play, they also tend to presume that stakeholders' importance largely depends on the respective stakeholders' perceived level of contribution. As for BoGs, it seems as though their being overall managers responsible for policy and critical decision-making has shaped their perception of stakeholder involvement leading them to recognise a larger number of groups as legitimate stakeholders than the other categories of respondents. One can possibly infer that this category of stakeholders is influenced by the broad based issues of governance and management it regularly deals with on behalf of the government that is the appointing authority. However, it is interesting to observe that none of the groups interviewed regard the principal as a legitimate stakeholder.

The findings seem to correspond with the literature, as discussed under section 2.2 (with specific reference to Gross & Godwin, 2005:1), where education's stakeholders are identified as parents, students, alumni, administrators, potential employers and communities. Gross and Godwin state, "These stakeholders in education have various influences on the outcome of education and the purposes of learning, thus affecting how educational institutions are structured, learning defined, and the nature of the student understood." In the same section, the views of Amaral *et al.* (2002: 11) regarding two types of stakeholders, namely internal and external stakeholders, are discussed. The findings of this study also confirm their views.

5.3.2 Actively involved stakeholders: Which stakeholders were actively involved at the time?

The respondents in this study maintained that a variety of stakeholders were involved in the management of TTIs in one manner or another. The respondents indicated that, for example, students and teachers were provided with various opportunities to contribute to the management of their respective institutions. However, their involvement in decision-making aspects of institute management appears to be limited. The BoGs were regarded by the majority of respondents as the managers of the respective institutions. However, surprisingly, some respondents, including teacher respondents, seemed to have lost track of the BoG's

primary mandate, namely that of policy formulation. The involvement of the BoG appeared to be understood quite well by the majority of the respondents, namely the way in which it was involved in financial matters, budget approval, expenditure authorisation, staff matters and exercising executive authority. However, their roles in the core mandate of the institutions, which comprise academic advancement, curriculum development and research, were not mentioned by the majority of the respondents. The BoGs themselves seemed to value inclusivity and were not concerned about the influence that different stakeholders could exert on management decisions. This is in concurrence with the information supplied in section 2.7.1 regarding the role of the BoGs in the management of an institute.

The involvement of local industries appeared to be understood only in the light of industrial attachment and the employment opportunities they provided to students. The fact that these industries were expected to be incorporated in the BoG was apparently not recognised by any of the other stakeholders. Indeed, during a scrutiny of the BoG appointment records of the three institutions, the researcher was unable to trace any member of the BoGs formally nominated by any local industry as its representative. This represents a transgression of government policies with regard to the composition of BoGs. However, it could not be determined whether it was the institutions that did not pay sufficient attention to this matter or members of the industries, who were unwilling to sit on the boards.

Of special interest is the fact that PTAs, which are generally associated with schools, were mentioned as legitimate stakeholders in institutes by several of the respondents. A section of the students seemed to have limited knowledge of the BoG's specific mandate. According to them, industries provided feedback to institutions. However, mere feedback can hardly be regarded as proper involvement in the management of institutes. The researcher observed some indication of dissatisfaction among a section of stakeholders regarding their lack of involvement in decision-making, especially if decisions were taken that affect these particular stakeholders.

The above responses by participants on internal and external stakeholder involvement seem to correspond well with the views of Amaral *et al.* (2002: 11) who argue that not long ago,

internal stakeholders played an important role in the governance of higher education, where groups of students monitored the activities of professors and the quality of their teaching, and even imposed fines based on professors' poor performance (see section 2.2). This study's findings on external stakeholders also confirm the argument put forward by Amaral *et al.* (2002: 12) that the role of external stakeholders should be to represent the broader and long-term interests of society and should correspond with the notion of higher education serving the public good.

5.3.3 Extent of involvement: To what extent were the various stakeholders involved respectively?

It appears that except for the BoGs that are perceived to be either "much" or "very much" involved in the majority of specific management issues, the involvement of the rest of the stakeholders left much to be desired. Respondents appeared to recognise the BoG as playing a critical role in nearly all the institutional management issues perceived to be essential for effective teaching and learning. The perceived crosscutting role of the BoG confirms their legitimacy and importance as the overall managers in accordance with the Education Act, Chapter 211 of Kenya and government circulars as outlined in section 2.5.2 (a) and (b).

The extent of involvement of other stakeholders was apparently moderately rated with nearly all the respondents indicating that employers were not involved at all in the majority of the specific issues. Although the students were the direct beneficiaries of the management functions, their low level of awareness of the extent of involvement of the various categories of stakeholders may be attributed to their (students') limited exposure to operational and managerial details at their respective institutions. This is evident from their generally very low ratings for most of the stakeholders in respect of the issues of management. This may also be tantamount to exclusion of a key stakeholder group, taking into account that students are directly affected by both short and long-term management decisions.

Another important aspect of stakeholder involvement that is relevant here is the conspicuous difference between principals' and teachers' views of the involvement of teachers in management issues, which seemed to point to a lack of communication between principals

and teachers (see chapter 4, section 4.4.2). Furthermore, the low involvement of industry or potential employers seems to concur with the theoretical views presented in section 2.6.1.

5.3.4 Relationships: What was the relationship between certain problems experienced in the institutions and stakeholder involvement?

The views of the majority of participants appear to indicate that the involvement of the various stakeholders would lead to teamwork and a sense of ownership of decisions, resulting in effective running of the institutes and rapid development. They seemed to hold the view that the principal needed to be accessible, a flexible team player and an accountable person with good communication and interpersonal skills in order to overcome challenges and realise positive results. A section of the respondents attributed relatively minor problems, which institutes experienced, such as a few cases of indiscipline among staff and students, infighting for power or influence, resistance to change, a lack of commitment or cooperation among teachers and a few cases of misunderstanding between stakeholders, to a lack of stakeholder involvement. From such pronouncements, it can possibly be concluded that stakeholders require a clear understanding of their respective roles if the aims and objectives of the institutions are to be achieved. The diversity of the stakeholders' backgrounds should provide a pool of knowledge that should be associated with value addition in institutional management.

Although the majority of respondents perceived that positive results such as better academic performance, increased discipline among students, higher morale among teachers, reduced chances of conflict and improved running of the institutes all arise from stakeholder involvement, their own level of involvement appeared wanting. Their responses contained indications of a low level of participation in the management issues of the institutes to which they were attached. This may in future lead to dissatisfaction and frustration.

In section 2.1, it was stated that the function of education management is to reassure teachers and students that clear policies, goals and objectives of education have been set and that the methods of teaching and learning are geared towards the achievement of these aims and

objectives. In addition, it was indicated that it was the responsibility of managers to carry out the procurement of resources, to administer funds, physical facilities and human resources and to organise and coordinate the activities of the institution with the prime aim of achieving the set objectives with maximum efficiency and effectiveness. Managers are expected to influence and stimulate the human resources available, as well as to provide an appropriate organisational climate. The fact that principals were not fully recognised by many of the respondents as legitimate stakeholders in institutes is, therefore, a cause for concern.

5.3.5 Enhancement of efficiency: In which ways can the efficiency of management in the technical training institutions be enhanced?

An overwhelming majority of the participants seemed to support the idea of enforcement of stakeholder involvement by means of government policies. They argued that this would facilitate effective monitoring, provide regulation and protection from stakeholders with bad intentions and that those policies would encourage stakeholders to play a more active role in the management of TTIs. Only a few respondents held the opinion that this would stifle innovation and create unnecessary bureaucracy. Most participants viewed the role of the government as critical in addressing the developmental challenges that faced the institutes and also in providing a better learning environment and improved outcomes. They further seemed to underscore the essence of policies in linking up institutions with national policies. According to them, such policies would ensure standardisation and provide a good platform for creating harmony amongst stakeholders by improving stakeholder relationships, fostering teamwork and enhancing effectivity. All the respondents held the view that the involvement of both external and internal stakeholders contributed to the achievement of institutional goals as it enhanced partnerships between them.

5.4 CONCLUSIONS

This section comprises brief, generalised statements that provide answers to the general research question and to each of the specific sub-problems. These statements are derived from the findings of the study and can be regarded as the conclusions of the study:

- 5.4.1 Stakeholder involvement in the management of public technical training institutions may be said to entail the participation of individuals or groups of individuals who affect or are affected by the affairs of the respective institution.
- 5.4.2 Public technical training institutions in Kenya have a variety of individuals and groups who are regarded as stakeholders, with some categorised as internal and others as external. They all exert some kind of influence.
- 5.4.3 Only some stakeholders are considered actively involved in the management of the institutions while others are not. Boards of governors are perceived as the stakeholder that is most actively involved in the affairs of management.
- 5.4.4 Stakeholders are involved in TTIs to a varying extent. Whereas BoGs are involved in most management activities, students and parents have a relatively small share in the various aspects of management, while local industries the smallest degree of involvement. A number of problems experienced by institutes can be linked positively to the extent of stakeholder involvement and can possibly be attributed to a lack of comprehensive analysis and full understanding of the roles of the various stakeholders.
- 5.4.5 The effectivity of stakeholder involvement in the management of an institute could be enhanced through the promulgation of government policies that are directed at the regulation of stakeholder involvement.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings and conclusions presented in the preceding sections, the following recommendations are made:

5.5.1. An analysis should be carried out on the role of various stakeholders, including teachers and students, with a view to confirming their legitimacy and identifying the specific aspects of institutional management where they should be involved.

5.5.2 All legitimate stakeholders should be represented on the board of governors to ensure that they have a say in central decision-making.

5.5.3 Increasingly principals should be willing and ready to open up communication channels in order for legitimate stakeholders such as teachers to broaden their awareness of the management issues of their respective institutions.

5.5.4 Various mechanisms, including merit awards, should be utilised to attract and retain principals who have the ability to identify legitimate stakeholders and to motivate them to be actively involved in the management of TTIs.

5.5.5 The effectivity of stakeholder involvement in the management of TTIs should be enhanced through the introduction and enforcement of relevant government policies.

5.5.6 Systems for effective monitoring and evaluation of the involvement of different stakeholder groups in the management of TTIs should be devised and applied.

It seems that limited studies have been carried out on areas related to the provision of technical training in the country. Therefore, in addition to the above recommendations of this study, the following themes are suggested for further investigation by future researchers:

- Participation of local industries in the management of technical training institutions.
- Appointment, grading and reward criteria for principals of technical training institutions.

- Reward mechanisms for responsible student leadership in technical training institutions.
- Stakeholder contribution to learner outcomes in technical training institutions.

5.6 FINAL WORD

This dissertation investigated the manner, type, extent and effects of stakeholder involvement in the management of public technical training institutions in Kenya. One major finding is that many parties are perceived to be legitimate stakeholders but the manner, extent and effect of their involvement are as varied as the respondent groups. A key conclusion is that BoGs are the most involved, while the rest have a relatively small share or degree of involvement in the various aspects of management. Some problems experienced are attributed to a lack of analysis and understanding of roles, hence this study recommends an analysis of the role and legitimacy of the various stakeholders to facilitate their appropriate involvement and functioning.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Interview schedule

This interview is intended for the purpose of data generation for partial fulfillment for the award of a master's degree in education. The data obtained will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

	Stakeholders are those entities that can affect the success of an organisation either positively or negatively. I would like us to start by identifying the stakeholders of a technical training institute
1.1	Whom do you regard as the legitimate stakeholders in the management of a technical training institute?
1.2	Please consider the list, which you have compiled. Whom would you regard as the three most important stakeholders? Please rank these three in the order of importance.
1.3	Why did you place them in this particular order?
1.4	Of the remaining stakeholders on the list, you have compiled, who would you regard as the three least important stakeholders?
1.5	Why do you regard these stakeholders as less important than the others mentioned?
	Let us now briefly consider the involvement of specific groups irrespective of whether you have mentioned them or not. In each case, please provide examples of such involvement if at all possible.
2.1	In what manner are students provided with an opportunity to be involved in the management of this institute?
2.2	In what manner are teachers provided with an opportunity to be involved in the management of this institute?
2.3	In what manner are members of the board of governors involved in the management of this institute?
2.4	In what manner are members of local industries involved in the management of this

	institute?
2.5	In what manner are members of the local community (parents) involved in the management of this institute?
	I would now like to focus briefly on specific issues related to the management of a technical training institute.
	In general, to what extent are students (teachers, parents, employers, BoGs) involved in the following matters:
3.1	Financial matters (e.g. drafting or approving the annual budget, mobilising of financial resources)
3.2	Disciplinary matters (e.g. drafting policies, disciplinary action against offenders, maintenance of discipline)
3.3	Human resource issues (e.g. appointment or promotion of staff)
3.4	Issues related to planning (e.g. improving or maintaining infrastructure, compilation of exam or teaching schedules)
3.5	Curriculum matters (e.g. changes in syllabi, determining the relevance of the curriculum to potential employers)
3.6	Improving or maintaining the quality of teaching
3.7	Day- to- day running of the institute
3.8	Improving or maintaining an acceptable level of research output
3.9	Improving or maintaining sound relationships between the institute and the community it serves
3.10	Management of change
	The following questions have a bearing on the possible positive and negative experiences you might have had concerning the involvement or contributions of various stakeholders.

4.1	Please mention some of the positive aspects, which you associate with the involvement of the various stakeholders we have spoken about, in the management of your institute. What positive effect did their involvement have in the institute? (e.g. interest groups taking ownership, less resistance to change, increased cooperation, better understanding of issues)
4.2	Have you experienced any problems regarding the involvement of stakeholders in the management of your institute? Please mention some of them. (e.g. extends the process of decision-making or delays it, lack of interest, incompetent participants)
4.3	What do you regard as the most important challenge a principal (student, teacher, parent, employer, member of the BoG) has to overcome in involving stakeholders in the management of your specific institute?
In conclusion, I have a few general, perhaps more personal questions to ask.	
5.1	Do you think that stakeholder involvement in the management of technical training institutes should be enforced by means of government policies? Please explain your answer.
5.2	Does stakeholder involvement really enhance effective management of technical training institutes? Motivate your answer.
5.3	What effect does the involvement of external stakeholders (such as parents, employers, professional bodies) in the management of your institute have on issues such as academic freedom and institutional autonomy?
5.4	What effect does the involvement of internal stakeholders (such as students, teachers and BoGs) in the management of your institute have on issues such as academic freedom and institutional autonomy?
5.5	In your opinion, does stakeholder involvement in the management of an institution such as yours “make a difference”? Would you recommend it to your successor (other students, teachers, employers/members of BoGs) and why?

Appendix B: Research Authorisation letter

REPUBLIC OF KENYA



NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Telegrams: "SCIENCE/TECH", Nairobi
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Date:
6th May, 2011

James Otieno Onduru
Inoorero University
P.O. Box 60550-00200
Nairobi

Dear Sir,

RE:RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on **Stakeholder involvement in the management of public Technical Training Institutions in Kenya**, I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in all Provinces in Kenya for a period ending **30th July, 2011**.

You are advised to report to the **District Commissioners Officers, the District Education Officers and Principals of the Technical Training Institutions you will visit** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **one hard copy and one soft copy** of the research report/thesis to our office.


P.N. NYAKUNDI
FOR: SECRETARY/CEO

Copy to:
The District Commissioners
The District Education Officers
The Principals Technical Training Institutes

Appendix C: Letter of notification to principals

c/o UNISA/ Inoorero University

P. O. Box 60550-00200, NAIROBI, KENYA

e-mail: ondurujo@yahoo.com, onduru@scienceandtechnology.go.ke, Tel: 0720 013 029

20 May, 2011

The Principal,

..... Technical Training Institute,

P. O. Box,.....

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: RESEARCH INTERVIEWS

This is a follow up to our telephone conversation. My MEd research study is on the topic “Stakeholder involvement in the management of public technical training institutions in Kenya” and your institution is one of those that I have sampled for data collection. I intend to engage the various internal and external stakeholders of the institution in individual and focus group interviews, the details being as indicated in the table below:

Dates	BoG Chair	Principal	Teachers	Student Leaders	Comm'ty/ Parent	Industry CEO
.../...,2011 - .../.../2011	1	1	5	7	1	1

The individual and focus group sessions are estimated to take about one hour, and one and half hours respectively. If well coordinated, the sessions should be covered in 2-3 days; exact dates will be as mutually agreed. The purpose of this letter, therefore, is to request for your assistance in this matter as follows:

- i. To identify and make an appointment for me with a local industry/employer CEO that the institution engages with, and a parent from the local community for the interview.
- ii. To help with arrangements for and coordination of the interview sessions with you and the other respondents as may be convenient to you.

Thanking you in advance for your cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

James O. Onduru