

**THE PRACTICES AND PROBLEMS OF THE LOCALIZED  
MANAGEMENT OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN SOUTH  
WOLLO AND OROMIYA ADMINISTRATIVE  
ZONES OF THE AMHARA REGION**

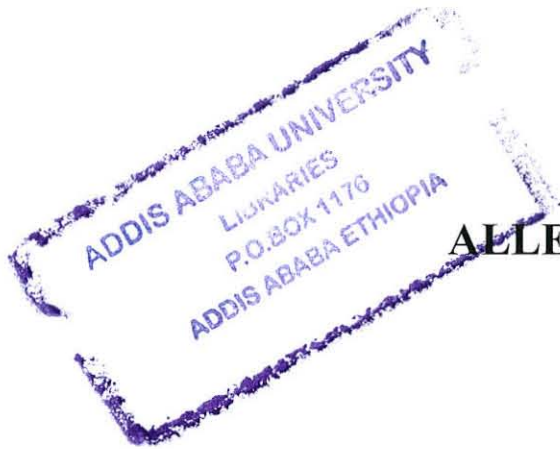
**BY  
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**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY  
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

**JANUARY 2004**

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## ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ANRS	Amhara National Regional State
AAU	Addis Ababa University
AREB	Amhara Regional Education Bureau
EDAd	Educational Administration
EMPDA	Educational Materials Production and Distribution Agency
ETP	Education and Training Policy
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
LGB	Local Governing Body
NGOs	Non-Government Organizations
ONAZ	Oromiya Nationality Administrative Zone
ONAZED	Oromiya Nationality Administrative Zone Education Desk
ORGEB	Oromiya Regional Government Education Bureau
REB	Regional Education Bureau
MOE	Ministry of Education
SWAZ	South Wollo Administrative Zone
SWAZED	South Wollo Administrative Zone Education Desk
TGE	Transitional Government of Ethiopia
WED	Woreda Education Desk
WEO	Woreda Education Office
WEOs	Woreda Education Officials
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
USA	United States of America
ZED	Zonal Education Department/Desk
ZEO	Zonal Education Office
ZEOs	Zonal Education Officials

## ABSTRACT

*Inadequacy of resources is the major potential impediment of decentralization, particularly in developing countries like Ethiopia. A successful decentralization should, among other things, be accompanied by the incremental empowerment of operational management with the necessary expertise and basic inputs like finance and legal provisions. It is on such a basis that this study questioned on the implementation of decentralization of education in this poor nation with a long tradition of highly centralized governance system.*

*A descriptive survey method was employed to examine the feasibility of the educational decentralization with particular reference to the localized management of primary schools in two zones of the Amhara National Regional State (ANRS). After the consolidation of the data and information, obtained through questionnaire and follow-up interviews, it was found that the decentralization process was hampered by the inadequacy of resources and formal empowerment of the management at the grassroots level.*

*In spite of certain attempts made at empowering the Woreda Education Desks with such formal authorities as budgetary control and personnel functions, the interventions of the upper level management bodies and the local community were inadequate. Low emphasis was given to raise management expertise. The disparity among rural and urban areas, especially in terms of educational expansion was increasing. The local community had a low contribution in the reduction of government budget and in facilitating the learning progress of pupils. Coupled to the inadequacy of compensation benefits, excessive and inappropriate intervention of the local governing body (LGB) in schooling had resulted in deteriorating the work motives of teachers and operational managers.*

*It was, consequently, recommended that the REB and Zonal Education Desks maintain high intervention in such functions as school expansion plan, allocation of resources, training and supervision. This would reduce the problems of disparity, inadequacy of the operational management to utilize resources and the complaints of teachers on the interference of LGB in the teaching-learning process. Besides, the participation of local community in schooling could be raised if the real desires of such poor agrarian society were addressed rather than a mere assignment of managerial burden on parents.*

## CHAPTER ONE

### THE PROBLEM AND ITS APPROACH

#### 1.1. Background of the Study

Achievement of increased productivity and quality of outputs are the explicit concerns of any work establishment or government. The point of departure lies on how and to what extent can organizations achieve such developmental desires. To this end, literature provides the application of various management forms or designs that are distinguished on the basis of power (authority) concentration or dispersion across the hierarchy of management and/or governance of a system.

Centralization and decentralization are, thus, broadly explained as the major alternative models of governance of systems or nations in the world. The main distinction between these two extreme managerial forms lies in that the former stresses on central decision-making in order to uphold consistent, secured, quality and valid decisions through the adequately trained and well-committed officials, experts or policy makers who are often acquainted with global perspective and holistic development of a nation (Florestal and cooper, 1997: 16; Thompson, 1995: 53-4; Bray, 1985: 185-6). On the other hand, the latter model enlarges the power of operational managers and implementers at the grassroots level so as to raise relevance and creativity of localities (Hunt, 1992: 233-4; Ivancevich and Mattesson, 1990: 520-1; Aggarwal, 1997: 49).

Nevertheless, the degree of power concentration (or dispersion) varies along with different contexts and motives of governments (Conyers, 1981: 107-8; Carnall, 1995: 545). Consequently, there can be a number of different management forms including an eclectic model and/or somewhere in between the highly centralized and decentralized designs (Hallak, 1990: 10-1; Carnall, 1995: 23). Various authorities explain multifaceted factors, concerning the rationale for the choice of a certain governance (management) model. A synthesis of these attributes includes political, ideological, social, technological and economic conditions of a system (Fiske, 1996: 10-1; Carnall, 1995: 23). Hence, there are no definite patterns of experiences and limited universal justifications for decentralization (Conyers, 1981: 53; Malpica, 1995: 7-8).

In spite of certain contextual variation, however, the issues of relevance, local creativity, cost reduction, responsiveness to local needs and increased popular participation are frequently explained as the main rationales behind the use of decentralization (Levacic, 1995; Bove, Ball and Gold: 1992; Bray, 1985; Rondnelli and Nellis, 1986; and Florestal and Cooper, 1997). Maintenance of national standard, balanced development and better quality of outputs are often presented to justify the worth of centralization (Ayalew, 1995a; Levacic, 1995; Malpica, 1995).

On the basis of the experiences of many developing nations, the limitations of centralization and decentralization are also usually presented as diametrically opposite notions. Hence, the hindrance role of centralization in promoting local responsiveness,

creativity and increased budgetary support of the public, on one hand, and the problems of educational decentralization including inadequacy of resources, poor infrastructure, low quality and inequitable access to education, on the other, are mainly indicated as the major pitfalls of such management systems or forms (USAID, 1997; Fiske, 1996; Bray, 1985; Hesse, Ced., et.al., 2000; Govinda, 1997). Yet, this may deserve further on site investigation, particularly concerning how and what functions should be centralized or decentralized for better outcomes of a given system.

Carnal (1995: 24), for instance, explains that "planning, budgeting, resource acquisition and development strategies of a business" should be the prime concerns of the central (top) management. Similar functions, which mainly require conceptual skills, are also presented depending on the experiences of educational decentralization in a significant number of African and Latin American governments.

Accordingly, the major responsibilities of the central ministries can be summarized as policy formulation, school organization, pre-service training, and determination of accreditation standards and basic contents of curriculum. In the practices of the mentioned nations, tasks of financing the recurrent expenditure for primary education, promotion, examination, supervision and provision of local construction materials were mostly devolved to the localities and or districts (USAID, 1997; Govinda, 1997).

With the introduction of the Education and Training Policy (ETP) of the Transitional Government of Ethiopia (TGE), in 1994, decentralization has been chosen as a suitable strategy to address the needs for increased relevance, and equitable access to education through the active involvement of the community (TGE, 1994). For this purpose, every region is responsible to carry out almost all functions associated with primary education (FDRE, 1995). Unlike their backward development, the administrative regions of this nation are, thus, more authorized than the practices of some unsuccessful developing nations (such as Venezuela, Tanzania and Papua New Guinea), especially with respect to the functions of budgeting (capital), recruitment and pre- service training of first cycle primary school teachers (Bray, 1985; and Bishop, 1989).

Consequently, a great challenge or failure may be expected as the shortage of finance, inadequacy of teachers and educational administrators, and a wide range of regional disparities are critical in this poor country (Ayalew, 1989; MOE, 2000). The problem may also be aggravated along with the current effort of the government to dissolve the structure of zonal education departments and thereby devolving additional authority down to the Woreda and school management levels.

However, proponents of decentralization contend that decentralization strategy should not be accommodated nor neglected for mere reasons associated to resource capacity. This is because of the fact that the turbulent environment of the world may call for highly variable design with respect to the peculiarities of a system and occurrence of new

phenomena. Thus, careful planning, gradual move, continuous training and empowerment, taking the probability of certain ups and downs into account should, among others, be accomplished to implement decentralization for further change and development (Govinda, 1997; Malpica, 1995).

Hence, the implementation of decentralized management in education at the grass root level, in our country, may deserve an on-site investigation as far as local variation with respect to resource capacity and management expertise and long tradition of centralization are concerned.

The study has, therefore, examined the opportunities and problems to implement the expectations of the ETP through decentralized management of primary schools in two adjacent administrative zones (SWAZ and ONAZ) of the Amhara Region. In assessing the status of the decentralized administration, emphasis was given to the following issues:

- 1) Ability of local administrative bodies and communities to generate income, 2) competency of local management units (including Woreda Education Desks and schools) to utilize resources in relation to such managerial functions as planning, organizing, directing and controlling, and 3) different roles of stakeholders in schooling.

## 1.2. Statement of the Problem

Eventhough it appears to be a recent phenomenon in under- developed countries, decentralization has been a matter of great concern in many African countries. A study in some Sub- Sharan states, for instance, has indicated certain adverse effects of this governance system. Accordingly, the problems such as lack of infra- structure, poor communication, effort duplication and chaos have been identified as the major hindrances of decentralization practices in Mali, Niger, Tanzania and Senegal (Hesse, Ced., et.al., 2000).

Similarly, an on-going survey study concerning the effects of decentralized primary education in Ethiopia has revealed such key drawbacks as lack of trained teachers; weak curriculum integrity; and insufficiency of laboratories, workshops and reference materials (MOE, 2000). In this sense, the realization of the ETP expectations comprising increased entrepreneurship, problem- solving learning and quality may fail in question since the case is becoming like what Vengroff and Ben Salem (1992: 475) explained - "The correlation between 'formal' decentralization and successfully implemented decentralization is unfortunately low, or in some cases in existent."

The real and felt needs for decentralization also appear to be mixed thereby distorting the perspective and introspect of such governance system. For example- two studies (conducted in Tigray and in Amhara, Oromiya and SNNP Regions) have revealed that regions have become the destination of the decentralization (Girmay, 1998; and Derbessa, 1999). This shows the mis- conception (mis- use) about the role of localized (on- site)

management in materializing the intentions for self- autonomy and competitive culture of schools. Thus, an educational management "... should be extra- cautious so that what is supposed to be a remedy should not be worse than the disease" (Seyoum, 1996: 29), especially if the expected power or authority is really devolved as per the governing principle of decentralization- self- management of schools and free competition in the market (Bowe, Ball and Gold: 1992).

Besides, some management units like that of ONAZ Education Desk in the Amhara Region are politically (linguistically) delineated as distinctive departments while they may not have considerable difference (in social, economic and cultural life) from the adjacent zones. This practice could help to promote progressive learning of children (as Papua New Guinea experienced) through the use of vernacular languages in the process of instruction (Bray, 1985). But, if the localities (nationality zones) had merely copied the curriculum of other sub-national units with identical language, the ETP drives for raising relevance and creativity through the active involvement of localities in schooling would be futile.

Apart from this, there are observable complaints of teachers on such administrative practices as assignment, supervision, appraisal and compensation benefits. Thus, it can be proposed that the feasibility of the current intention to devolve authority down to the Woreda and local management level is questionable interms of both the adequacy of formal provisions to empower operational management and competency of management

to exploit the existing opportunities. The following basic questions were raised to verify such hypothesis:

- 1) Do the primary schools have sufficient resource- base to sustain their educational program?
- 2) Are the school management bodies capable of utilizing available resources in their localities?
- 3) To what extent do principals and teachers participate in the management of schools in the light of achieving the ETP expectations?
- 4) To what extent do the WEO and the upper level management in the hierarchy intervene in the task performance of the schools?
- 5) What are the roles of local (Kebele) governing bodies and communities in schooling?
- 6) What is the rate of expansion of primary schools and enrollment in relation to the growth of education budget?
- 7) What are the attitudes of teachers towards the decentralized management of primary schools and interventions of both WEO and LGB?

### **1.3. Purpose of the Study**

In response to the influences of global democracy and worthwhile outcomes of participatory decision-making, the ETP of TGE has introduced the decentralization strategy so as to raise local responsiveness and competitive culture in the light of achieving increased relevance, quality, equity and access to education. However, some studies have indicated

that there are various obstacles to attain these ends. The case is supposed to be crucial as far as the disparities among regions and nationalities are concerned (Ayalew, 1989). Yet, such research works have given less emphasis on the role of local management of primary schools in implementing the decentralization.

Hence, the study was basically intended to investigate the formal power- base and competency of the educational management at the grassroots level in realizing the objectives of the ETP, particularly along with the current effort of the government to devolve the authority of REB and ZED down to the Woreda and school levels. To this end, the study had the following specific purposes:

- 1) to look into the actual status of decentralization of primary education in the two adjacent zones which are delineated as distinctive management units.
- 2) to evaluate the extent to which decentralization results in reduced budget of government and increased expansion of primary education through public support.
- 3) to synthesize the major opportunities, practices and challenges to effectuate the ETP objectives through decentralization and thereby recommending possible suggestions depending on the findings of the study.

#### **1.4. Significance of the Study**

World experiences have showed that resource inadequacy is a major potential impediment to promote decentralization, particularly in under developed nations like ours. Nonetheless, successful implementation of this management design has been varied for

multiple and specific contextual attributes (USAID, 1997). Thus, an on-site investigation is crucial to find out what opportunities and challenges have been persisting in the light of addressing the real needs of the concerned beneficiaries. The study can, therefore, have the following benefits:

- 1) Studies with regard to decentralized management of primary schools in this country, particularly about those adjacent administrative zones demarcated mainly on the basis of language are insufficient. Thus, the study may, to a significant extent, provide information concerning the potential and real managerial capacity of such localities in the light of realizing the intentions of the ETP.
- 2) With sufficient awareness on managerial problems and opportunities of primary schools, the concerned governmental and educational leaders may reconsider the policy decision on the educational decentralization in view of promoting quality, relevance and, access to education.
- 3) Top-level managers will be able to plan for resource allocation or supportive activities to maintain equity and standard.
- 4) Finally, the study will add concrete data and information to the existing literature.

### 1.5. Delimitation of the Study

The scope of decentralization is wide because it is related to how and what management functions of any kind of organization in various contexts (national, regional, district or local level) are shared and/or executed (USAID, 1997). To make the topic manageable, therefore, the study focused on the role of educational managers and/or professionals at

the grassroots management level in such managerial functions as planning, organizing, directing and controlling in the setting of primary schools of two adjacent zones in the Amhara National Regional State (ANRS). Relationships of WEO, LGB, community, school management committee and the upper administrative bodies in the organizational hierarchy were also considered to assess the overall process of the decentralized management of primary education in the region. Decentralization is a relative concept that requires certain extent of intervention of various stakeholders in designing and managing the system (Malipica, 1995; Govinda; Bray, 1985).

In dealing with the above issues, the study examined the process of decentralization in the management of government primary schools of Oromiya and South Wollo Administrative Zones of the Amhara Region for three major reasons. First, the goal of universal primary education by the end of 2015 is the crucial concern of the ETP. Second, the assignment of untrained educational managers (principals) has been frequently practiced in primary schools, which in turn, might have considerably influenced the efficiency of resource utilization. Finally, an appealing case may arise when, for example, preparation of curriculum and training of teachers for the ONAZ are mainly undertaken by Oromiya Regional Government Education Bureau (ORGEB) while the Bureau has little knowledge or intervention in such concurrently desirable tasks as human resource development plan, research, supervision, assignment and appraisal of teachers in the ONAZ.

## 1.6. Limitations of the Study

The major problem of the study was associated to the current program of the Amhara Regional Education Bureau (AREB) to re-organize Zonal and Woreda Education Offices. Most of the education officials were busy to perform this task. Documents were being replaced from ZED's to WED's. Similarly, the overall staff (primary schools) meeting for two weeks, during the schedule of this fieldwork had limited to collect the necessary data on time. This, in turn, had restrained the researcher to enlarge the size of sample Woredas in SWAZ and to obtain additional information from the upper most authorities in the AREB as well. Yet, these problems had no significant impact on the adequacy of the data and information since the sample areas represent diversified population and views, which could accommodate variations in terms of space, organizational size, and managerial authorities and responsibilities of the major stakeholders of primary education in the region.

## 1.7. Research Design and Methodology

The research methods, procedures and techniques that were adopted to undertake the study are presented below.

### 1.7.1. Method

The main purpose of this study, as described earlier, was to find out what opportunities, practices and problems have existed in the design and implementation of decentralized management of the primary education, especially, in the setting of the two adjacent zones

in the Amhara region. To this end, the descriptive survey method was employed to discover and describe the implementation status of localized management of primary schools. This was accompanied by an analysis of world experiences and perspectives on decentralization combined with follow-up interviews and surveys on selected respondents. This method was, thus, employed because, as indicated by authorities, it would help to acquire a wide range of information for planned and specific settings or situations (Seyoum and Ayalew, 1989; Sharma, 1986).

### *1.7.2. Sources of Data and Information*

The following sources were considered to get sufficient information for the study:

- a) Primary school personnel including principals, assistant principals, unit leaders, department heads and subject teachers; members of parent's committees (or parent-teacher union); executives of Kebele or local governing bodies (LGB); and education officials at Woreda, Zonal and Regional levels were the major sources of primary data or information. Eventhough education is pervasive, teachers as the major role players in the teaching-learning process, members of management bodies in the educational echelons in the Amhara Region, and executives of local (Kebele) government and parents were thought to serve as adequate sources of data regarding the roles of various stakeholders (such as policy makers, planners, operational managers, donors, implementers, users and employers) of primary education.

b) Related and relevant policy and plan documents, reports, books, journals, magazines and bulletins were consulted for secondary data. The main documents consulted include: the ETP at national and regional levels and educational plans, directives and abstracts as well.

### *1.7.3. Sample Population and Sampling Techniques*

Oromiya Nationality Administrative Zone (ONAZ) has four Woredas while South Wollo Administrative Zone (SWAZ) consists of eighteen Woredas. The distribution and grade level of the government primary schools were not uniform across the whole twenty- two Woredas of the concerned zones. For this reason, the researcher had employed both purposive and simple random sampling techniques in order to acquire adequate data from fairly represented samples.

On this basis, six Woredas were selected; of which four of them represent the SWAZ while the remaining two constitute the sample areas from ONAZ (see Appendix 2). Three top executives from each of the management committees at Woreda and Zonal levels were chosen since all members of the committees do not have direct relationship or responsibilities with the issues of management raised in the study. Accordingly, seventeen educational officials, who act as the section head, department head and/or manager of their respective organization, were selected as constituents of the sample population.

In determining the sample primary schools, lots were drawn to select from among schools with similar level (above grades 1-4) of education. Schools below grades 1-5 were proportionally (a minimum of 1/3) represented from each sample Woreda so as to examine the process of decentralization in the 1<sup>st</sup> cycle of primary education. Besides, most of the primary schools (1-4) around the boundaries of the two zones were included as the constituents of the sample areas in order to assess the co-influences of schooling in the adjacent settings. Thus, a total of 35 primary schools were chosen as the sample areas of the study among which 12 of them were situated in ONAZ.

Likewise, the size of sample population (teachers) in the selected schools was determined by purposive sampling technique. Accordingly, all teachers working in the schools with less than 6 sections were embodied as sources of the data while teachers in the relatively big schools were selected on the basis of their membership in school management committee. Hence, 335 teachers were represented from the sample primary schools in both zones.

In order to get a glance of community attitudes and participation in the existing educational system (primary education), 16 members of school-parent committee were selected randomly from the sample schools by drawing lots. In doing so, more chance was given to the members of parent-teacher unions in the sample schools of two Woredas (Bati and Dewachefa) in ONAZ to examine the attitudes of parents towards the educational organization and management in this nationality administrative zone

organized as a different unit from the adjacent (SWAZ) Education Desk. Similarly, twelve 'Kebele' chair persons and/or executives of education were chosen on the basis of their formal responsibilities in the administration of the primary schools existing in their localities. Finally, two members of the regional education management committee were represented to provide information regarding the role of REB in managing primary education, particularly with respect to the formal education and human resource development programs in the region. Hence, the data and information required for the study were mainly drawn from a total of 382 respondents among which 335 of them were members of the sample schools- the academic staff.

#### *1.7.4. Instruments and Procedures of Data Collection*

Apart from the secondary data obtained, a questionnaire and interviews were designed to gather first- hand information from the respondents. Observation of physical plant of the schools was also accomplished to assess the situations of class size, laboratories, pedagogical centers and libraries.

Having sufficient and appropriate review of literature, items of the mentioned instruments were developed. The questionnaire, by and large, had closed-end items, including some rank order items that could help to determine the preferences of the school respondents and education officials at Woreda and Zone level. Some open-ended items were also included to gather general opinions from the respondents.

Some (24) copies of the designed questionnaire were, thus, presented to 16 teachers (in Harbu and Kemisse primary schools) and 8 WEO's in Kalu and Dewa Chefa Woredas to check the clarity of the items. On the basis of feedback obtained from the pilot test, items of the questionnaire were refined particularly, by modifying the limited explanation of some of the items concerning classroom supervision. Four hundred copies were then distributed to the respondents. Among these, 352 (88%) copies were filled while the rest were incomplete.

Besides, follow-up interviews were conducted with regional education officials, Kebele chairpersons and parents, depending on the fundamental items designed to direct the suggestions of these respondents about the central purposes of the study.

The regional education officials were primarily interviewed to acquire an over all picture of the decentralization process in the region. Subsequent interviews were then conducted with parents and members of local (Kebele) government bodies (LGB). In particular, the task of data collection from 7 members of LGB and 12 members of school parents' committee in 2 Woredas in ONAZ was assisted by interviewer who had been translating the Amharic version items into Oromiffa and then (the responses) into Amharic. In the end, the data and information were categorized and integrated with global perspectives on decentralization and observable situations of the schools as well.

### *1.7.5. Data Analysis*

The major contents of the data and information drawn from the respondents were translated and analyzed in relation to global concepts and practices of decentralization. In doing so, the following statistical tools were employed. These comprise: percentiles and simple mean to present the highlights of the information, rank correlation to compare the power of the major stakeholders in school management and, the chi- square test to examine significance of difference among the data gained from the different categories of the respondents.

### **1.8. Definition of Operational Terms**

**Administration and management:** Both are used interchangeably to denote management of educational institutions in promoting teaching and learning process (Campbell et al., 1983: 1).

**Authority and power:** In an organizational setting, both refer to the prescribed roles of individuals, groups or institutions to guide or influence the beliefs and actions of others towards the fulfillment of organizational objectives (Wehrich and Koontz, 1993: 292; and Invanchevich and Mattesson, 1990: 347).

**Local management:** A site- based management whereby authority is delegated or devolved to local governing body or schools in a decentralized form of government (Levacic, 1995: 3-4).

**Parents' Committee:** A form of association of beneficiaries in the community to ensure active participation of parents in development and execution of projects and in management of schools (MOE, 1999: 14).

**Primary School:** An institution, which is organized to provide pupils with an eight-year basic and general education; the school level comprises two cycles: first cycle (grades 1-4) and second cycle (grades 5-8) (TGE, 1994: 6).

**Teachers' turn over:** All forms of withdrawals from the school such as resignation, transfer, demotion, promotion, etc. due to various reasons associated with the conditions of work place, management and reward system (Stinner, 1970: 38).

### **1.9. Organization of the Study**

This paper consists of four main sub- divisions. The first part comprises the background upon which the hypothesis and purposes of the research are based. Following an overall design of the research, various perspectives and practices of centralized and decentralized systems are reviewed under the second chapter. The third one involves the presentation and analysis of the empirical data obtained from the fieldwork and secondary sources as well. Finally, summary of the findings and their implications to the basic propositions are embodied in the last unit of the study.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This part of the paper provides a theoretical framework to the conception of centralization and decentralization. A synopsis of global experiences and trends regarding decentralization of education are also reviewed so as to deduce lessons for examining the status of decentralized management of primary schools in the Ethiopian context.

#### 2.1. The Concepts of Centralization and Decentralization

The ideals of centralization and decentralization are closely associated with the extent of authority dispersion and control drives of those concerned about a work organization, which, in turn, have been major issues of argument among the proponents of organizational management theories. In general, the classical administrative theory and human relations theory hold extreme positions regarding the degree of control and decision-making authority of subordinates. The former emphasizes on strict control and limited involvement of employees in decision-making while the latter tends to favor the laissez-fair administration for optimum workers' satisfaction and organizational effectiveness (Owens, 1998: 7-15; Bush, 1986: 31-2; Miner, 1985: 64-7; Tyson and York, 1996: 28-9; Organ and Bateman, 1991: 11-3).

In the contemporary development of organizational studies, the systems theory takes a mid-point between the earlier extreme managerial trends. This approach recognizes the need for the discretion of authority to lower level management with basic standards to

control the overall direction and development of a system. (Bush, 1994: 20; Davies and Ellison, 1998: 10). Finally, though specific situations are basic determinants for an organizational design, the contingency approach insists on the vital role of subordinates and consumers in deciding school issues and directing (controlling) work behaviors. An educational manager, from this perspective, is expected to design adaptable organizational structure and thereby raising the creativity of his/her organization to accommodate the dynamic environment (Webb and Norton, 1999: 56; Daft, 1992: 360). Hence, the degree of authority discretion and empowerment of operational employees in educational institutions decreases orderly from the extreme humanistic perspective through systems and contingency management theories, and upto the highly formalistic and rigid trends of the classical management theory.

### *2.1.1. Centralization*

Centralization of authority, according to Sharon and Muncey (in Freiberg, 1999: 108), is described as "the locus of authority to make decisions affecting the organization." In this perspective, centralization is directly associated to a rigid formal structure of organization which restricts the freedom of subordinates in deciding and performing their task.

Another perspective, in dealing with the current demands of organizations to manage change, defines centralization as the design of an organizational structure in such a way the central (top level) management executes the key tasks of the organization towards the fulfillment of prescribed missions and objectives of the institution. Thus, basic issues like

"finance, business development, resource acquisition, and corporate strategy and management development" are the responsibilities of top executives (Carnall, 1995: 23-4). In this regard, authority is not absolutely concentrated at the center. When it does, in special demanding situations, technical experts at the operational level would be authorized to make functional or professional decisions about day-to-day routine activities (Ferry in Hall, 1982: 115).

### *2.1.2. Decentralization*

Decentralization, in a narrow sense, is associated to the distribution of responsibilities and/or accountability among organizational members with an increment of specialization and expansion of the organization. But, the concept of decentralization should include deliberate delegation of authority to lower level units of any organization so that they can make their own managerial decisions autonomously (Rashid and Archer, 1983: 153; Weihrich and Koontz, 1993: 301-9).

In the above definition, the decisional role of other stakeholders (from the social, economic and political milieus) are not indicated though a sense of political aspirations is implicitly addressed when the higher management body intends to empower employees at the grassroots level.

In a broader sense, decentralization refers to "any transfer of the authority to plan, make decisions and manage public functions" from central government to any lower level unit

with a relatively independent organizational autonomy" (Rondinelli, 1981: 137). The term is explicitly defined in the USAID (1997: 3) document as:

*The transfer of legal, administrative and political authority to make decisions and manage public functions from the central government to field organizations of those agencies, subordinate units of government, semiautonomous public corporations, area-wide developmental authorities, functional authorities, autonomous local governments, communities or non-governmental organizations.*

These definitions indicate that decentralization requires an overall reform in which the multitudes of internal and external variables of an open system (like schools) do play their part in the decision-making process to a certain degree (Ayalew 1995a: 10; Conyers, 1983: 103-4).

#### *2.1.2.1. Types of Decentralization*

Variations of decentralization are generally attributed to the extent of authority discretion and the levels or sections to which such accounts are assigned (Rondinelli, 1983; Fiske, 1996; Conyers, 1983).

Political and Administrative decentralization constitutes one category of decentralization types. **Political decentralization**, on one hand, refers to the shift of decision-making power from the center down to the grassroots level so as to create semi-autonomous government sections. It aims at empowering both the operational employees and the local government including the public in the localities. The focus of this innovation is, thus, to gain public support and thereby strengthening the governance

power of the nation. **Administrative decentralization**, on the other hand, emphasizes on delegating managerial authority and responsibilities to subordinates or partially authorized units within a given system. In this form of decentralization, political authority remains in the hands of top executives of a particular system with little intervention of local politics and community in designing and implementing organizational tasks (Ayalew, 1995b: 9-10).

Another classification of decentralization consists of three different forms that are distinguished by the degree of authority and/or responsibility dispersion from a central government or a particular system to any sub-system. These comprise: **deconcentration**, **delegation** and **devolution**. **Privatization** is also taken as another variation of devolution (Rondinelli, 1981: 137-8; Hanson, 1996: 25; Conyers, 1984: 187).

**Deconcentration** is the transfer of administrative responsibility from the top to the lower levels of the hierarchical structure of government agencies or organizations. It often relates with the expansion of branch offices mainly for the purposes of reducing burden on the center and enhancing the efficiency of a complex system. In this kind of decentralization, execution of decisions and controlling remain mainly as the responsibilities of the top-level management while the deconcentrated units are limited to follow-up the implementation of tasks. Hence, authority, in real sense, is not dispersed in such form of decentralized management (Bray, 1985; Hanson, 1989: 42; Malpica, 1995: 9; Conyers, 1983: 102).

**Delegation** refers to the shift of decision-making authority from higher to lower level of managerial hierarchy. While the delegated institutions or units of a system are ultimately accountable to the outcomes of decisions, they have internal autonomy to execute the tasks assigned to them by maintaining direct report relationships with the top management. Politics of government sections (in parallel to the delegated authorities) do also take part in decisions to the extent the delegated institutions are authorized. Decision-making authority in this form of decentralization is, thus, meaningful unlike the mere assignment of workloads in a deconcentrated management system (Hanson, 1996: 25; Ayalew, 1995b: 10).

The third and, probably the most, pervasive form of decentralization is **devolution**. It often resides with comprehensive changes of both organizational structure and authority in a highly decentralized management system. Establishment of sub-national units of governance with extensive and legally devolved responsibilities and authorities are the major distinguishing features of this form. Autonomous units, like regional states in a decentralized form of a system, are thus, authorized to operate almost all functions in their localities without violating national policy, directives and standards (Rondinelli, 1981: 137-8 and 1983: 189; Ayalew, 1995b: 10; Hanson, 1996: 25-6; Govinda, 1997: 6-7; Rondinelli, Nellis and Cheema, 1983: 24-5; Conyers, 1983: 102).

**Privatization**, as a variation of devolution, is another feature of decentralized systems in which private and public organizations compete under broad national frameworks and

free market economy (Caldwell and Spinks, 1992). Yet, some writers underestimate its application in education, particularly in developing nations for various reasons associated to economic, political and social conditions of a system (Govinda, 1997: 7; Hanson, 1996: 25-6; Ayalew, 1995<sub>b</sub>: 10; Madden, 1992: 21). Poor economic background of clients is, for example, the major impediment to employ such market mechanism to education. Because parents couldn't afford the cost of education mostly determined by private investors to gain profit and to compensate the heavy expenditure of school construction as well (Govinda, 1997).

Related models of highly decentralized (devolution) educational systems are also indicated on the basis of world experiences in the late twentieth century. Some of these include the market model, the charter model and the local support model. These forms of governance are essentially reflecting the idea of self-management of schools with substantial autonomy of the schools depending on local needs and broad national goals (Caldwell and Spinks, 1992: 192-3). In spite of certain variation among such forms of management, school-based management (in the USA), local management of schools (in the UK) and self-management of schools (in the Australia and Newzealand) have been devised in order to ensure increased efficiency, curriculum relevance and effectiveness of schooling through the active involvement of teachers and clients in the decision-making process.

### *2.1.3. Centralization Versus Decentralization*

In general sense, there is little disagreement regarding the importance of decentralized management of systems. Indeed, extreme notions of centralization and decentralization have had nothing to do in the history of real management practices even in the traditional thinking as there has been a sort of delegation to lower level experts or managers, particularly when industrialization and size of organizations have remarkably increased since the early twentieth century. Yet, the degree of centralization /decentralization, especially with respect to efficiency, quality, equity and effectiveness are still crucial matters of argument among theoreticians and practitioners (Govinda, 1997; Thompson, 1995).

#### *2.1.3.1. The Rationale for Centralization*

Various justifications for the widely use of centralization are presented in different contexts. However, the claim for better standard, managerial efficiency, equity, unity and quality are often taken as the main reasons to retain power at the central (top) level of management. Maintenance of equitable distribution of resources, expansion of schools, national standard and educational quality are, thus, supposed to be promising when top management with its adequate expertise perform nation-wide planning, budgeting curriculum development and controlling functions. It is when the central ministry timely regulates the educational functions that efficiency for higher productivity is achieved. Otherwise, delegating such roles to the lower (local) levels is wastage and thereby resulting in regional disparity, paternalism and decline of educational quality as a

consequence of weak and inexperienced personnel in the localities (Ayalew, 1995<sub>b</sub>:3; Aggarwal, 1997: 49; Holmes, 1985: 10; Werline, 1992: 229).

Therefore, the arguments in favor of centralization can be coined with two major points including maintenance of balanced development across the whole nation and effective utilization of resources with grater accountability and reduced wastage. This, intum, indicates the importance of centralization as a cost- effective management strategy through the central competent personnel often acquainted with a wider global perspective and well-aware of organizational (educational) missions in the light of the socio-economic and political systems of the whole country (Weiler, 1990; Carnal, 1995).

#### *2.1.3.2. The Rationale for Decentralization*

The argument between the proponents of centralization and decentralization are often reflecting a diametrically opposite views (though some take the medium position) regarding the issues of equity, efficiency and quality. Nonetheless, the arguments for more decentralization of education are baldly attributed to the motives of nations (systems) with respect to ideological, political, economic, administrative and pedagogical issues (Ayalew, 1995<sub>a</sub>: 4-5; Malpica, 1995: 7-8).

Regardless of various reasons emphasized by advocates and/or writers in different contexts, the justifications for decentralized management are essentially conveying similar messages. Thus, the major motives to claim for increased decision-making

autonomy (devolved authority) of lower or local level management in the light of organizational effectiveness and development can be synthesized as follows:

1. Decentralization can minimize burden from the top managerial positions, particularly in complex organizations. This will give the senior management the opportunity to deal with developmental activities or strategies so as to enhance growth and creativity of the organizations along with the progress and impact of the supra system on the functions and outputs of the work concerns.
2. Delegation serves as a training ground for managers thereby promoting sustainable management system. It dissolves the dependency feeling of implementers (at the grassroots level of organizations) and helps them to put more effort to adapt the changing situations.
3. In a decentralized management, decisions will be flexible, adaptable and nearer to the real needs of clients since the operational managers and professionals are continuously and directly involved in realizing the desired objectives. This will enhance better achievement for there is significant difference between the notion of what should be (principle or theory) and what is happening (reality or practice)-mainly confronting or resting on the shoulder of the incumbents or implementers.
4. Higher degree of discretion of decision-making authority may help contribute to both consolidation of governmental authority and satisfaction of subordinates. Thus, open communication; group decision-making and collegial supervision (mutual coordination) in a democratic atmosphere of decentralized management

system can enhance creativity and commitment of employees towards their profession and organizational objectives.

5. Decentralized structures can facilitate managerial efficiency since they give the operational managers the opportunity to deploy the easily available local resources and to execute decisions rapidly unlike the delayed dictatorial directives of individuals at the apex of the organizational hierarchy. When authority is devolved, inputs from the consumers (community) can enhance developmental endeavors of government thereby facilitating the implementation of tasks (Bray, 1985 and 1984; Rondinelli, 1981; Carnall, 1995; Rashid and Archer, 1983; Florestal and Cooper, 1997; Conyers, 1983; Govinda, 1997; Aggarwal 1997; Greenberg, et.al., 1995; Winkler, 1989; Preston, 1995).

However, the argument whether decentralized or centralized model of management is commensurate to effectiveness of schools is underway in searching for the proper mix of local autonomy and accountability (Malpica, 1995: 160).

#### *2.1.3.3. Finding the Balance*

Successful achievement of organizational objectives is not merely attributed to decentralizing a system for there is no centralization in absolute sense (Bray, 1985: 194).

The issue is maintaining balance between these extreme forms of management depending on the existing circumstances in a given context (Malpica, 1995: 160; Hallak, 1992: 10-1, Carnall, 1995: 23; Werline, 1992: 233; Fiske, 1996: 10-1). "Hybrid system which

gradually divided responsibilities between the central systems, the local administration and the users appear the most attractive" (Hallack, 1990: 274).

Carnal explains that centralization and decentralization appear as a "cyclical process" depending on demanding condition. He states:

*In good times when markets were growing, organizations decentralized to encourage local initiative in what might be varied local markets and circumstances. In tougher periods when markets were 'tight' and income generation a problem, organizations centralized in order to gain greater control over expenditure, employment policies and so forth (Carnall, 1995: 23).*

In this notion, decentralization, when there is low demand on output or when resources are scarce, may lead to wastage unless resources are wisely utilized by the better expertise of the central management. The intervention of top-level executives in controlling the decisions of subordinates (or localities) is supposed to be vital to maintain standard and to control wrong decisions of localities, particularly where there are inadequate expertise and resources (Florestal and Cooper, 1997: 6).

Greater autonomy (self-management) in schools can bring about improvement in teaching and learning as it, for instance, did in Australia. In the experiences of some states in this country, the commitment of teachers towards their profession has raised as a result of the decision-making autonomy provided to them, especially in developing specific educational programs in their localities depending on national policies and contractual

agreement between the central ministry and school governing body (Caldwell and Spinks, 1992: 71-2). However, the overall effectiveness (success) of schooling is significantly dependent upon broad and specific attributes in a particular context. These among other things, may include continuous training and monitoring by central agencies as well as collaboration of a wide range of stakeholders. Thus, self-management requires a coordinated efforts of those concerned in education in the processes of goal formulation, planning, organizing, directing, evaluating and controlling (Govinda, 1997: 31; Reynolds, 1997: 25; Murgatroyd and Morgan, 1993: 60-1; Cummings, 1998: 474).

Important implications of the eclectic model to the management of education in Ethiopia can, thus, be noted along with the peculiarities of educational institutions. On one hand, the conservative nature of schools to preserve social culture, long tradition of bureaucratic system, and the pervasive value of education for an overall national development (Campbell, et.al., 1983) may impede to immediately implement highly flexible and decentralized model in schools.

On the other hand, the dynamism of techno-science and market situations may call for adaptable structure and management of schools along with the specific desires of diversified localities and professional autonomy of the main actors (teachers) of teaching and learning (Marks and Louis, 1999). Assessment of global experiences can, therefore, help to deduce (acquire) lessons for what appropriate models ought to be applied to address such dilemmas.

## 2.2. Global Experiences of Decentralized Educational Management

The influences of global democracy and development aids, political instability, motives to gain public support and academics from various social and behavioral sciences have, by and large, initiated many countries to adopt decentralization since 1970s (Govinda, 1997). Yet, the forms employed and outcomes achieved were not, as such uniform across these nations (USAID, 1997; Brint, 1998; Govinda, 1997; Malpica, 1995; Weiler, 1989; Conyers, 1983; McCourt, 2000; Florestal and Cooper, 1997). Thus, the experiences of different countries, particularly those which were not well- advanced in terms of economic development and decentralized management are reviewed in order to deduce lessons to the governance of this poor nation- Ethiopia.

### **Mexico, Venezuela, Columbia, USSR and Hungary**

The decentralization of education in Mexico was initiated from the top in order to increase managerial proefficiency at the operational level of administration. This reform was announced by the federal government to the public on the basis of "coordination and agreement" signed by both the central and regional states in 1987. Nevertheless, the process of decentralization was hampered by the economic difficulties and rejection of the change by the National Union of Education workers. It was suspended until subsequent public discussions and the 'Education Act' made approvals in 1993. "Step-by-step transfer of responsibility, proprietorship and financial power of regional governments" were the basic legal provision of this act along with the progress of school management and community role in the process (Malpica, 1995; Fiske, 1996). As a result of improved

communication and closer supervision, efficiency of schools (in terms of minimizing dropout and repetition rates) increased (Fiske, 1996).

Decentralization in **Venezuela** was initiated mainly for political reasons after the end of the dictatorial regime in 1958. Twenty state governments were, thus, established to gain public support to the power of the central government. These units of the nation (Including the seven relatively better authorized territories) were limited to routine activities as a result of their poor economic background and little provision of authority, which in turn, made them dependent upon the national government (Hanson, 1989: 43).

Major decisions such as the assignment (recruitment) of educational officials and experts in regions and districts as well as key functions like planning, budgeting and controlling were being executed by the central ministry of education. Coupled to this, the interference of politicians and their claim for more power accelerated instability in the nation. These problems, in addition to the financial constraints of the regions, had no vital outcome in education with the exception of some political achievement during the ten-years reform effort through decentralization (Ibid, 44).

In **Columbia** too, decentralization was driven by the desire of national government to control the pressure of powerful tribal traditions and chaos created in the political system. Decentralization was thus, publicly announced which paradoxically intended for local efficiency with strict administrative control by the newly designed regional structure.

Thus, the ministry of education established 'Regional Education Funds Program' whereby authority is devolved to the partial- autonomous states of the nation. (Ibid: 45-6).

However, the implementation of this reform had confronted a lot of problems like lack of finance, underemployment and unqualified teachers and hostility among politicians. In response to such impediments, consensus between contradictory political parties was made in sharing power for smooth functioning since 1980. Consolidation of the previous structure rather than removing at once was one vital practice to reduce wastage. Step-by-step change was recognized as a promising mechanism to maintain sustainability. Recruitment of teachers emphasized on professional competency rather than mere political assignment. As a result, the education structure was easily manageable as opposed to the uncontrollable various pieces of educational offices in Venezuela (Ibid, 47).

Hence, non-revolutionized decentralization and political consensus are vital issues to accelerate educational functions and to reduce wastage. The revolutionized reform in the former USSR is another counter-evidence to this fact. The hasty political measures of decentralization taken in the USSR have had significant contribution to induce a lot of problems in most of the dissociated states. Shortage of finance and political instability are among the major hindrances, which had created disorder in the educational system of such government (Ayalew, 1995b: 12).

Hungary, like the motives of Colombia, made an overall reform in the nation so as to alleviate the political crisis and consolidate the power of the central government through decentralization. Local governments are, thus, legally and/or formally authorized to specify and/or establish their own educational programs and school systems. Most schools were to be administrated by the local authorities with the support of central government's fund in the 'form of block grants'. The assignment of principals was to be done on the basis of teachers' choice. Regulative role of inspection turned towards the collaborative and supportive role of supervision (Ibid.).

Nevertheless, financial dependency of the schools on the central government restrained them to address their priorities and they were simply directed by the national requirements associated to funding. Consequently, unfair competition among local administrators to gain more amount of money had, at the same time, facilitated managerial inefficiency and quality decline. In this sense, the effectiveness of self-management of schools would be better if schools were empowered in terms of capacity of expertise and revenue generation and allocation independently (Govinda, 1997: 44).

### African Countries

In spite of certain variation in priorities as well as capacity of resources and infrastructure, most African nations with decentralized system of education have significant extent of common opportunities and difficulties. Thus, a document about decentralization in eleven African countries including Ethiopia has demonstrated that the functions of policy

formulation, basic contents of curriculum, accreditation standards, recruitment and pre-service training are often retained as the main responsibilities of the central management (USAID, 1997).

According to the synthesized information of this document most of these nations were not in a position to promote the decentralization process in the desired frequency due to lack of infrastructure, inadequacy of resources and trained professionals, and political instability. Delayed and disorganized practices were partly created because of ambitious plans (like in Ghana) and regional disparities interms of resources, tradition and expertise (like in Ethiopia and Uganda). Problems of personnel structure (as in the case of Zimbabwe, Ghana and Uganda), limited power and involvement of community in schooling (Guinea and Namibia) were other mentionable impediments of decentralization. Apart from this, the reform in Benin and Mali appeared to be in a good status interms of structure, community involvement and integration of national and local governments which, inturn, positively affected localized management of schools for increased efficiency (USAID, 1997).

Another study performed on **Tanzanian** education reform revealed that the general frameworks of national curriculum is set at the center while "inter-curricular essences and coverage" are commonly designed by both the upper and school level management on the basis of contractual agreement. This involves the integration of local needs and national expectations and standards (Bishop, 1989).

In the experience of Tanzania, expansion of primary enrolment was reported as a substantial achievement of the decentralized management of education. However, considerable adversary effects were indicated. These include; lowering of quality, the use of unqualified teachers, shortage of school equipment and an increase in class size. Besides, decentralization in this nation "has resulted in the creation of local bureaucratic machineries for control rather than in greater participation in decision-making." (Ibid.: 195).

As regards to the practical problems of 'top-bottom' initiated decentralization, it was indicated that devolution (delegation) of authority to the local management level had been inadequate in many African nations and other developing countries during the 1970-1980. In these nations, the decentralized units were explained as an extension of the central governments having deconcentrated tasks without real decision-making power. They were more or less serving as disseminators or translators of centrally decided issues since they had little control over important resources like finance (Conyers, 1983).

Illustrative countries (in Africa, Asia and Latin America) experienced with such limited decision-making autonomy of localities, in the name of devolution, were reported. These include: Ghana, Tanzania, Srilanka (Conyers, 1981), Costarica, Philippines, Papua New Guinea (Bray, 1985) and some states of South Asia and Latin America, Nepal, and Brukinafaso (Govinda, 1997).

## Lessons Gained

Experiences of different countries with decentralized system of education have showed that neither centralization nor highly devolved authorities are by themselves adequate to achieve effectiveness and development. Successful decentralization, in general, resides with the capacity of systems to exploit, direct or modify multitude of opportunities and challenges along with the determination of processes and outcomes that should be subjected to innovation and development (Malpica, 1995; Bray, 1985; Caldwell and Spinks, 1992; Conyers, 1983; Govinda, 1997; Lewin, 1991).

The fundamental problem to implement and sustain educational decentralization often begins at its outset. In many nations, decentralization is initiated from the top to address mainly political motives (such as in Venezuela, Columbia, USSR, Hungary, Chile and Brukinafaso) (Hanson, 1989; Ayalew, 1995<sub>b</sub>; Govinda, 1997). While this practice had helped (these and other countries) as a legal framework to strengthen local authority, its implementation was greatly challenged by the dissatisfaction and/or reaction of subordinates, politicians and clients. The claim for more power and hostility among political parties (in countries such as Columbia and Venezuela), the rejection of the change by the National Education workers and tribal governors in Chile and greater opposition from teachers in Argentina (Malpica, 1995) are some illustrations which impeded the desired progress of the top-bottom introduced decentralization.

However, careful planning by policy makers has had vital lessons to maintain standards and national integrity (like in Tanzania, Mexico, Mali and Benin) unlike the chaos experienced by Brazil, Ghana and Uganda (Bishop, 1989; Fiske, 1996; Malpica, 1995; USAID, 1997). Yet, involvement of implementers (and others who take stakes in education) and open communication are vital to secure acceptance and implementation of the introduced educational reform. Infact, public discussion and consensus among different stakeholders were important inputs to facilitate the implementation of central government's plan for decentralization in such countries as Tanzania, Columbia and Spain (Hanson, 1989).

Related to the top-bottom initiated reform, the mis-match between responsibility and devolved authority to lower level management had limited the power of implementers to address local priorities. Coupled to this, decentralization was nominal for there was little involvement of beneficiaries in the management of schools in the experiences of many developing countries like Guinea, Zimbabwe, Uganda (USAID, 1997), Papua New Guinea (Bray, 1985) and Venezuela (Hanson, 1989). Thus, the operational management and clients had hardly participated in such important functions as curriculum development, budgeting and recruitment of teachers which, inturn, would widen the gap between the contentions for local autonomy and centralized management of education.

Another problem of decentralization-which often impeded the sustainability of decentralization in many countries such as Tanzania, Columbia, USSR, Hungary, Chile,

Argentina, Brazil, Papua New Guinea and Uganda- resides with the inadequacy of resources, shortage of finance, poor infrastructure, lack of equipment and unqualified teachers and other personnel. Nonetheless, in spite of the fact that scarcity of resources are the potential hindrances of decentralization across the world, many authorities contend on the need for continuous redesigning efforts of government (like some of the South Asian and Latin American countries did) rather than restricting basic means to empower localities for mere reasons of insufficiency of resources (Govinda, 1997; Malpica, 1995; USAID, 1997); Malpica, 1995; Bray, 1985).

A third, probably the most crucial problem- which could create disorganized efforts (outcomes) of stakeholders and, as a result, might have aggravated the potential hindrance role of scarce resources in developing countries- is the revolutionized (hasty) innovation plans of nations to induce decentralization of education once for all. The experience of former USSR in terms of both political dissociation of regions and economic crisis is a typical example to the negative effect of hastily adopted reform (Ayalew, 1995b). The redesigning efforts of Chile and Brazil to induce the change on a small-scale basis are other lessons, which demonstrated better progress of the non-revolutionized decentralization (Malpica, 1995).

In the decentralization process of some countries (including Argentina, Columbia, Papua New Guinea and Ghana) regional disparity was another impediment to realize equity and quality of education. Besides, lack of consensus between the needs for professional autonomy

and political intervention had hindered the positive felling and efforts of teachers and school administrators. This problem together with uncontrollable expansion of schools had resulted in the decline of educational quality in countries such as Tanzania, Venezuela and Chile (Hanson, 1989, Malpica, 1995; Bray, 1985; Bishop, 1989, USAID, 1997).

As regards to the effectiveness of decentralized management (self-management) of schools, considerable achievements are reported. Among these, better administrative performance in the payment of teachers salary and increased expansion of schools (enrolment) were attained through the decentralization practices of Papua New Guinea and Mexico (Fiske, 1996).

Improved operation of the new structure and better educational progress of pupils, through the use of local languages as a medium of instruction in the lower level of primary schools of Papua New Guinea, were reported as other positive impacts of decentralization (Bray, 1985). Like wise, increased test scores was achieved as a result of the adoption of decentralization into the education systems of Brazil and Newzeland (Fiske, 1996).

In general, experiences of many countries have shown that successful educational decentralization depends on miscellaneous attributes. Eventhough specific situations may matter, the following pre- requisites can be synthesized depending on the works of different authorities.

- 1/ Real decentralization involves the delegation of responsibilities with equivalent authorities so that localities or semi-autonomous units would be able to make or execute decisions on their preferences. This primarily requires legal provisions with respect to structure, functions and power of localities to control over finance and other resources.
- 2/ Excessive organizational structures and local authorities can aggravate wastage of resources, administrative inefficiency and paternalism. Thus, to alleviate these problems, the central ministries or state government need to establish clear guidelines and boundaries with significant intervention in such functions as curriculum development, planning, training supervision and evaluation.
3. Changes need to be induced step-by-step (like Columbia and Spain did) to make adjustments before crises (as Venezuela faced) is created through revolutionized reform.
- 4/ In designing school systems, emphasis should be given on educational matters rather than mere political reasons. The success of educational decentralization is more likely when schooling is relatively free from the imposition of political bodies (governing political party) and when consensus is formed among various stakeholders. Unnecessary intervention of local politics in schooling can create chaos and dissatisfaction of professionals at school level like in Ghana and Srilanka.
5. Decentralization is helpful for educational expansion (Stewart, 1992: 20). Adversely however, the issues of quality decline and disparity have been reported

as the problems of many developing countries (like Tanzania and Papua New Guinea). As regards to this, Brint (1998: 24) stated "Schools, in affluent communities, can usually draw on the active support and participation of parents to a greater degree than when they are located in poorer communities."

6. ✓ The support of central or regional state to the less-resourced localities (or schools) would reduce disparity. But, then, without suppressing the preferences of localities to address the requirements associated to the aid (grant) provision

7. ✓ Successful decentralization requires the commitment of politicians, delegates, planners, implementers (school administrators and teachers), and community. To this end, carefully planned activities accompanied by transparency and participatory decision-making involving all stakeholders of education are vital strategies.

8. ✓ Adequate rewards need to be designed through the active involvement of principals, teachers, parents and other stakeholders so as to secure acceptance of decisions. (Thompson, 1995: 57; USAID, 1997: 304; Govinda, 1977: 53-7; Hanson, 1989: 52-3; Conyers, 1981: 115-8; Conyers, 1983: 103-7; Bray, 1985: 188-194; Malpica, 1995: 260-9; Florestal and Cooper, 1997: 16; Dimmock, 1993: 3).

Yet, effectiveness of decentralization requires more than these generalized indices for there are ample diversities and dynamic changes in the world with respect to political, socio-economic, and technological development. Thompson (1995: 56-7), for instance,

quotes Lauglo and Mclean to illustrate that "decentralization in many countries has not improved either efficiency or local participation in management."

### **2.3. Development of Decentralization of Education in Ethiopia**

This topic involves a brief historical review of educational management in Ethiopia under two broad eras: 1) prior to 1991 and 2) since 1991 because, the history of educational management in the country had no basic variation prior to 1991. It was characterized by highly centralized system (Tegegn in Girmay, 1998).

#### *2.3.1. Prior to 1991*

The history of modern education in Ethiopia is traced back to the early 20<sup>th</sup> century during the reign of emperor Menelik II. It had been mainly explained as a highly centralized system since the secular western type of education is adopted in 1908. Beginning from the establishment of the then Ministry of Education and Fine Arts in 1930, the Ministry had taken the responsibilities of school organization and construction, administration, inspection and controlling government schools in the whole country (Pankhrust, 1980). Daily follow-up and operational administrative tasks of the schools had been given to the provincial and Awraja Educational Offices as per the order of 1943 and Amendments of 1966 which extended the tasks and the responsibilities of the modified form of Ministry of Education without significant change in the authority of provincial and Awraja Educational Office (Teshome. 1979).

Similarly, there were no clear policy statements or directives to demarcate the responsibilities of the deconcentrated (Provinces and Awrajas) units. The public had little knowledge and contribution to the schooling process with the exception of paying education tax laid by the government of the nation before and during the reign of Emperor Haileselassie. In characterizing the educational system during this period, a perspective stated: "Administration was highly centralized, flexibility and local community participation were inhibited in curriculum planning, personnel and budget allocation and control" (Teshome, 1979: 183).

In the course of time, the western type of education was unable to meet the increasing demand of education by the public, which, in turn initiated different scholars of the nation to complain on the irrelevance of the curriculum and inefficiency of the educational system in the mid 1950's. The complaints of these scholars were mainly associated to the low contribution of the borrowed curriculum, which focused on liberal education, to the actual life of the agrarian society. Besides, the education was an elitist in which children of the poor mass were unable to get the opportunity of learning, particularly to join higher educational institutions. The imperial government, thus, designed the Education Sector Review (ESR) in 1971 to resolve the tension created (Tekeste, 1990: 9; Seyoum, 1996: 14).

The objectives of the ESR were pervasive. Seyoum (1996) added:

*They ranged from the provision of basic education to all, to the development of scientific outlook, to equality of access to education; to the creation of an integrated society and to narrowing down the generations gap (Ibid., p. 13)*

However, the ESR remained ideal like the disintegrated efforts of scholars to change the obsolete educational system. The failure of this educational reform was mainly attributed to the camouflage exhibited by the imperial government and the non-involvement of the major incumbents of the educational process including teachers, administrators, parents and other scholars which, in addition to other socio-economic crisis, had led to the overthrow of the imperial regime in 1974 (Seyoum, 1996; Tekeste, 1990).

With the coming of the Military government to power, the educational system of the country was influenced by the eastern socialist democracy which significantly initiated and extended committee work in order to raise community participation and indirect suppression of the public servant. Determination of school fees or budget and appraisal and punishment of teachers, for example, were the major responsibilities of the school governing committee which include representatives of such associations (often guided by verbal directives' of executives of the Ethiopian workers' Party) as peasants, youth, town dwellers and teachers (MOE, 1977 in Girmay, 1998).

The 'Evaluative Research of the General Education System in Ethiopia (ERGESE) was supposed to be a major attempt at educational reform during the consolidated governance period (1980's) of the 'Derg' regime (Seyoum, 1996). This was a research project initiated in response to the educational crisis, which had persisted in the country since long time. Ethiopian scholars mainly from the AAU and MOE were the main actors to conduct the

study for the purpose of improving educational quality in the light of creating an 'all-rounded socialist personality' (Ibid., p.20).

To this end, teachers, and students and, to some extent, parents had participated in identifying the problems of schooling at both primary and secondary education level. Nevertheless, such effort was taken to be ineffective because the public, including the professional educators, had limited opportunity to make open discussion and determine the education policy of the nation. Furthermore, the recommendation of the study- to ensure active participation of the poor peasant society in the education system- was explained as an ambitious strive or attempt made by the ERGESE project (Ibid., pp. 20-2).

The formation of some "autonomous regions" in the latter development of the regime was indicated as another attempt to decentralize education and other sectors. However, the management had been characterized as highly centralized and politicized system whereby the Regional and Awraja educational offices and the school governing committee were enforced only to implement the imposed policy, curriculum and operational tasks within the boundary of strict (usually verbal) directives of members of the workers' party of Ethiopia and/or the guidelines of the MOE in the Socialist Democratic Republic of Ethiopia until the downfall of the government in 1991 (Tegegn in Girmay, 1998).

### *2.3.2. The Present Case (Since 1991)*

With the establishment of Transitional Government of Ethiopia (1991), fourteen regional states were created through proclamation No. 7 of 1992 (TGE, 1992). It is after this political measure, initiated by the motives of freedom, equality and self-determination that decentralized educational organization and management have been legally introduced. In this design, sub-regional administrative units, including zonal departments, Woreda and Kebele offices would be established on the basis of language and other socio-economic criteria. Regions are authorized to formulate administrative structures as well as to plan, direct and supervise social and economic programs without violating national policies, standards, and laws.

In line with the political initiative, every region has, thus, been provided a great deal of decision-making authority to enhance educational relevance, equity, access, quality and problem-solving learning using mother tongue as medium of instruction in primary schools (TGE, 1994: 29-30).

Currently, there are nine Regional Education Bureaux under the governance of the nine modified forms of Regional states in the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE, 1995a). Each Regional Education Bureau (REB) has organized Zonal Education Departments (ZED's) and Woreda Education Offices (WEO's) to guide and direct the tasks of both primary and secondary schools.

On the basis of classification of responsibilities among the educational echelons in this nation, the Federal Ministry of Education has limited intervention in the educational process with the exception of policy and standard formulation and technical collaboration with regions when requested. The central ministry has limited supervisory role in schooling at both primary and secondary levels. Regional Education Bureaux are generally authorized to manage educational programs excluding tertiary education which, in turn, might have widened the variation of regions in terms of educational access and administrative capacity (Ayalew, 1989).

Practically, some studies showed that Woredas and schools were hardly participating in such developmental functions as development of curriculum and planning educational programs which, in turn, dissolves the worth of decentralization to address the real and peculiar demands/interests of localities at the grassroots level. For instance, Girmay (1998) has mentioned the findings of one study made in Tigray in 1995. He states that decentralization was merely transferred from the center to the region. There was an imposition on the lower level management and the public. Another study performed in three regional states (Amhara, Oromiya and SNNP) has also indicated that the regional education bureaux had become the destination of decentralization (Derbessa, 1999).

Furthermore, it was demonstrated that regional disparity has been aggravated as a result of decentralization. Poor economic development, weak infrastructure and administrative inefficiency were becoming severe impediments to enhance educational access, equity

and relevance across considerable amount of regional states in Ethiopia and other African countries (USAD, 1997). These problems may, thus, lead to the failure of decentralization and wastage as confronted by Columbia and Uganda. Quality decline as observed in Tanzania can also be expected as far as the inadequacy of resources and/or limited capacity of the localities in this nation are concerned.

However, such studies conducted in Ethiopia had given less emphasis to assess the status of decentralization at the school level which have been, at least, theoretically claimed by advocates of self-management of schools mainly to foster relevance of education, local initiatives and accountability through the involvement of various stakeholders, in general, and active execution of decisions by school professionals, in particular (Reynolds, 1997).

The Amhara National Regional State (ANRS) is one of the autonomous governments in Ethiopia (FDRE, 1995). Currently, the region consists of 12 administrative zones among which three of them represent the minor nationality governance units. The education structure in this region is organized in parallel to such governance system so that each unit could manage schooling in his own sphere (AREB, 2002).

In designing the education system in this region, two attributes were considered. These include: (1) professional or task identity, and (2) space dimension. Depending on task resemblance, the education Bureau is subdivided into three departments and seven service provision sections. On the basis of space dimension, three major management levels

(including REB, WED and School), three Nationality Education Desks, Bahirdar Special Education Office, and seven zonal education branch offices are established. The Nationality Zone Education Desks and Bahirdar Special Zone are authorized to manage the educational programs (1-10) in their respective zones while the remaining zonal education offices are limited to perform such routine activities as consolidation of information, report and distribution of education materials (AREB, 2002) (Details in Appendix 3). Whether such organizational design has had real ground and importance for development in this region is dealt under the next two chapters.

## CHAPTER THREE

### PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This section presents the analysis of the actual status of educational decentralization at the operational management level in comparison to the interventions of various stakeholders in schooling, with particular reference to the management and organization of primary schools in two adjacent zones of the Amhara Region. Global experiences on decentralization and the Education and Training Policy (ETP) of Ethiopia are the basic considerations in analyzing and synthesizing the empirical data mainly obtained from a total of 382 respondents considered in the study.

#### 3.1. Characteristics of the Respondents

The background of the respondents might have influenced the data as they do, for instance, vary with respect to their roles and expectations from schooling. Some of the salient characteristics of the respondents, particularly that of civil servants in the primary schools and Woreda Education Offices are presented below (details in Appendix 7).

As regards to the educational dimension considered in the study, most (82.7%) of the school personnel and 75% of the Woreda Education Officials (WEO's) were TTI and diploma graduates respectively. Only 5 (26%) principals and 3 (25%) WEO's were, in their respective order, qualified at diploma and bachelor degree level, which in turn, invalidates the minimum education requirement to hold the managerial positions in the 2<sup>nd</sup> cycle of primary schools (diploma) and WEO- (1<sup>st</sup> degree).

In fact, the REB interviewees also explained that the Bureau was unable to acquire adequately trained manpower, particularly for the Woreda Education Offices.

The data concerning years of service (see Appendix 7), indicates that 69% of the management bodies at school and Woreda level had insignificant (0-5 years) service in their current job as compared to the large majority (93.3%) of teachers who had been teaching for 6 and above years. This in turn, may lead one to raise a question whether the assignment and functions of educational managers have been accomplished on the basis of the professional competency and experience. Suggestions of the head of department of human resource development in the AREB, obtained during the follow up interview, have addressed this issue.

Accordingly, frequent turn over of principals and, to some extent, managers of WED's had been observed in the region mainly due to the previous ambiguity of directives for assigning educational managers. In the mean time, however, explained the interviewee, selection and recruitment of principals and WEO's were being accomplished on the basis of definite criteria, associated to professional competency. Yet, this couldn't be practical in a situation where professional decisions were influenced by LGBs (see Tables 2 and 3). It is, therefore, implicitly indicated that the problem of instability of managers has had its own negative consequence on the development of institutional capacity like what Venezuela experienced (Hanson, 1989).

### 3.2. Responsibilities of the Academic Staff

The main responsibilities of teachers are associated with classroom instruction. Yet, teachers, as per the ETP, are expected to play a comprehensive role in the whole process of schooling. These include: curriculum development, maintenance of strong school-parent liaison, teaching and research, and participation in the management of schools. The responses of school personnel, i.e., the academic staff, regarding their actual role in such issues are consolidated as follows.

The teaching load of the staff in the sample schools of the two zones was generally similar as the average weekly periods of teachers were 27 and 25 in south Wollo and Oromiya Nationality Administrative Zones respectively. Likewise, most teachers in both zones were loaded with optimum periods (30 periods per week) expected from a subject teacher (see Appendix 8).

The data consolidated under Appendix 8 also shows that 29-30 periods were assigned to 37.5% and 54.5% of the principals in Oromiya and South Wollo Administrative Zones respectively. Similarly, 37.5% of the principals in the former zone and 18.2% of them in the latter held less than 15 periods. In this respect, principals in the ONAZ might have had better opportunity to accomplish their managerial tasks than principals in SWAZ had.

However, the teaching burdens of principals are excessive in both zones in so far as the mode and average periods are 23 and 27 respectively. Besides, the average load of other members of school management committee (including vice principals, unit leaders and department heads) in the two zones was 26, which, in turn, exceeds far beyond the maximum periods (10-15 periods per week) expected from them as managers. Consequently, time constraints might have hindered managerial roles expected from teachers and principals, or else promoted at the expense of the instructional activities. In fact, the lower involvement of teachers in management could, still, be attributed to the low interest of teachers (59% on average) in the managerial responsibilities assigned to them mostly without any compensation benefit (details in Appendix 9).

### **3.3. Financial Capacity**

Matching the responsibilities of employees and/or participants of a work establishment with an equivalent authority is a major issue of decentralization. A financial resource is, among others, an essential input to empower personnel at the grassroots level of a system (Hanson, 1989). Sustainability of autonomous decision-making power of localities and/or schools cannot be ensured without a reliable source of income. The following data illustrates whether the primary schools, under consideration, have had adequate revenue from both internal and external sources.

Table 1 Revenue of Primary Schools by Source

No	Source of Income	Zone	Extent of Income											
			Nothing		Low		Medium		High		Unknown		Total	
			No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	School fee	SWAZ	179	65.6	51	18.7	8	2.9	16	5.8	19	7	273	100
		ONAZ	57	72.1	10	12.7	3	3.8	-	-	9	11.4	79	100
		<b>Total</b>	<b>236</b>	<b>67</b>	<b>61</b>	<b>17.3</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>3.2</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>100</b>
2	Self-help	SWAZ	81	29.7	117	42.8	40	14.7	23	8.4	12	4.4	273	100
		ONAZ	19	24	47	59.0	6	7.6	-	-	7	9	79	100
		<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>164</b>	<b>47.0</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>100</b>
3	Government budget	SWAZ	-	-	74	27.1	145	53.1	37	13.6	17	6.2	273	100
		ONAZ	-	-	25	31.7	43	54.4	5	6.3	6	7.6	79	100
		<b>Total</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>188</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>100</b>
4	Community labor contribution	SWAZ	19	7	83	30.4	156	57.1	6	2.2	9	3.3	273	100
		ONAZ	8	10.1	16	20.3	52	65.8	-	-	3	3.8	79	100
		<b>Total</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>4.9</b>	<b>99</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>208</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>1.7</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>3.4</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>100</b>
5	Community monetary contribution	SWAZ	31	11.4	120	44	75	27.4	17	6.2	30	11	273	100
		ONAZ	3	3.8	67	84.8	1	1.3	-	-	8	10.1	79	100
		<b>Total</b>	<b>34</b>	<b>9.7</b>	<b>187</b>	<b>53.1</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>21.6</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>4.8</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>10.8</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>100</b>
6	Aid from NGO's	SWAZ	13	4.8	174	63.7	38	13.9	1	0.4	47	17.2	273	100
		ONAZ	7	8.8	24	30.4	33	41.8	-	-	15	19	79	100
		<b>Total</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>5.7</b>	<b>198</b>	<b>56.2</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>20.2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>0.3</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>17.6</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>100</b>

The internal revenue of the primary schools since 1994, as per the suggestions of 80% of the respondents in both zones, was meaningless to effectively run the educational activities. Apart from this, governmental fund and community labor input were supposed to be the major sources of income of the schools in both zones (refer to Table 1). Yet, it was indicated that the schools did rarely get more than an average extent of support from such sources. Therefore, successful decentralization without both adequate financial input and capacity of schools to generate their own internal revenue would remain ideal as some nations in South Asia confronted (Fiske, 1996; Malpica, 1995).

Further aspects of financial capacity of the schools, raised in items 5 and 6 (Table 1) were related to the volunteer grants of community members and NGO's. In this regard, the primary schools in the two zones did not receive sufficient support from both sources as 54.6% of the respondents indicated. Therefore, unlike the expectations of the ETP, the local community has had little role in supporting schools with salient resources like finance. Such problem might have been attributed to the poor attitude of parents towards the value of primary education or poor economic capacity of commonly members to support schools.

#### **3.4. Decision-Making Autonomy**

The central issue of decentralization is intertwined with the extent of decision-making power of implementers and beneficiaries as compared to the roles of upper level management bodies of a system. On this basis, different items were designed to assess the interventions of various stakeholders in the management and organization of primary schools (see Tables 2-6).

Table 2 Bodies and Their Functions in Planning and Curriculum Development

No	Function	Intervening body	Extent of intervention															
			SWAZ								ONAZ							
			Nothing		Low		Medium		High		Nothing		Low		Medium		High	
			No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Choice of instructional medium	REB	-	-	-	-	25	9.2	248	90.8	72	91	7	9	-	-	-	-
		ZED	219	80.2	54	19.8	-	-	-	-	73	92.4	6	7.6	-	-	-	-
		WEO	268	98.2	5	1.8	-	-	-	-	74	93.7	5	6.3	-	-	-	-
		LGB	259	94.9	14	5.1	-	-	-	-	68	86.1	11	13.9	-	-	-	-
		School	273	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	79	100	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Determination of curriculum content	REB	-	-	-	-	13	4.8	260	95.2	69	87.4	10	12.6	-	-	-	-
		ZED	215	78.8	58	21.2	-	-	-	-	74	83.7	5	6.3	-	-	-	-
		WEO	218	79.9	55	20.1	-	-	-	-	79	100	-	-	-	-	-	-
		LGB	273	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	79	100	-	-	-	-	-	-
		School	255	93.4	18	6.6	-	-	-	-	75	95	4	5	-	-	-	-
3	Selection of teaching method	REB	15	5.5	44	16.2	69	25.3	145	53	40	50.6	39	49.4	-	-	-	-
		ZED	78	28.6	114	41.8	52	19	29	10.6	64	81	15	19	-	-	-	-
		WEO	178	65.2	95	34.8	-	-	-	-	66	83.6	13	16.4	-	-	-	-
		LGB	273	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	79	100	-	-	-	-	-	-
		School	199	73	74	27	-	-	-	-	71	89.9	8	10.1	-	-	-	-
4	School expansion plan	REB	-	-	19	6.9	111	40.7	143	52.4	-	-	6	7.6	23	29.1	50	63.3
		ZED	-	-	59	21.6	105	38.5	109	39.9	-	-	16	20.3	24	30.4	39	49.3
		WEO	-	-	65	23.8	108	39.4	100	36.6	14	17.7	22	27.9	43	54.4	-	-
		LGB	-	-	22	8	119	43.6	132	48.4	-	-	11	14	41	51.9	27	34.1
		School	27	9.9	215	78.7	31	11.4	-	-	15	19	60	75.9	4	5.1	-	-

Determination of medium of instruction, curriculum content and teaching methods were almost the exclusive responsibilities of the AREB in the primary education of SWAZ. The REB had also significant extent of intervention in school expansion plans in both zones. In contrast, the Bureau had little role in the choice of medium of instruction, and development of curriculum for lessons conducted through Oromiffa language in ONAZ. Almost all (95% on average) of the respondents in this zone showed that any management body in the region had hardly participated in these functions. (See Table 2).

Similar response was given by both the REB and parent interviewees as regards to their little involvement in the process of curriculum formulation and choice of medium of instruction in ONAZ. The curriculum for social science and language subject, explained the formal education section head in the AREB, were merely copied from Oromiya National Regional Government for the simple reason that most pupils in the nationality zone and Oromiya region have identical vernacular language.

Above all, the deconcentrated management level (ONAZED), in the light of the ETP desires, for self-management of nationality zones, had done nothing in the process of curriculum development though poor involvement of ZEO, WEO and school management in this issue was also an inherent problem in SWAZ (refer to Table 2). Consequently, organization of the special education zone (ONAZ) has had no value to ensure relevance of education and public involvement upon which advocates of decentralization contend (Fullan, 1991).

The mentionable participation of the lower level management bodies, excluding school management, was associated to the expansion of primary schools. In general, medium extent of decisional role of ZEO, WEO and LGB in school expansion plan was indicated by significant percentage (30-50) of the respondents in both zones. However, school expansion plan was, to a large extent, influenced by the demand (or political directives) of LGBs and approval of the plan by the REB.

As a consequence, different impacts of this intervention of LGBs in schooling can be raised. First the goal of universal primary education can either be facilitated or hindered depending on the demands/attitudes of both the LGBs and community towards education there by aggravating the problem of inequitable development among different societies. Second, the limited financial capacity of both government and the community may not enable to build more schools furnished with adequate equipment and teaching materials, which in turn, would lead to the decline of educational quality as it, for instance, did in the experience of Tanzania. Finally, critical shortage of trained teachers would impeded both the quality and quantity of education when visionary management is lacking and/or if schools are expanded for the mere reasons of universal primary education and political motives.

Thus, some schools with very low enrolment rate and inadequate facilities of teaching equipment (such as Hedo primary school in ONAZ, Abahalme primary schools in SWAZ and many other schools in rural areas), on the one hand, and very large class size (like in Kidame Gebeya complete primary school and Etegemenen primary school in SWAZ) as a result of shortage of teachers and classrooms, on the other, might have been attributed to the lack of both visionary plans and integration of various needs and real opportunities existing in the system. Decentralized

management of schools requires a collaborative input of professionals, implementers and clients in the processes of planning, directing, organizing, evaluating and controlling (Reynolds, 1997; Murgatroyd and Morgan, 1993; Lilyquist, 1998).

The degree of control over the school personnel by the different management bodies, was not uniform (see Table 3 below). The chi-square test ( $p < 0.05$ ,  $\chi^2 = 0.2$ ) did also show such variation, particularly with respect to the recruitment function at Regional, Zonal and Woreda level. Accordingly, authority over recruitment of teachers was generally decreasing down the organizational hierarchy unlike the current formal authority provided to the WED. This in turn, indicates that the higher management body had low commitment to empower the local management units. Successful implementation of decentralization without the provision of adequate authority to the operational management would remain ambitious like what Venezuela, Guinea and Namibia confronted (Hanson, 1989; USAID, 1997).

As regards to the role of the management bodies in the training of teachers, the REB took the upper hand followed by significant extent of authority of Zonal and Woreda Education Offices in the two zones. But, the role of the REB in this function seems to be reduced in ONAZ, may be, due to the trend to make this zone more autonomous than the other deconcentrated Zonal Education Desks. Infact, a reflection of this notion could be illustrated by the formation of research and training section in the structure of Nationality Zones. Nevertheless, whether such zones were in a position to do so remains in question for they had inadequate manpower.

**Table 3 Bodies and Their Functions in Personnel (Human Resource) Management**

No	Function	Interveining bodies	Extent of Intervention																							
			SWAZ									ONAZ														
			Nothing			Low			Medium			High			Nothing			Low			Medium			High		
No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%			
1	Recruitment and selection of teachers	REB	-	-	20	7	64	24	189	69	-	-	6	7.6	11	13.9	62	78.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		ZED	-	-	19	7	115	42	139	51	-	-	9	11.4	12	15.2	58	73.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		WED	8	2.9	103	37.7	117	42.9	45	16.5	11	14	8	10	45	57	15	19	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		LGB	211	78	39	14	23	8	-	-	-	43	54.4	33	41.8	3	3.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	Transfer of teachers	School	262	96	11	4	-	-	-	-	72	91	7	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		REB	-	-	60	22	96	35	117	43	-	-	19	24	35	44	25	32	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		ZED	-	-	69	25.3	80	29.3	124	45.4	-	-	10	12.7	37	46.8	32	40.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		WED	-	-	21	8	102	37	150	55	-	-	11	13.9	21	26.6	47	59.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
3	Training of teachers	LGB	261	96	12	4	-	-	-	-	50	63	29	37	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		School	252	92	21	8	-	-	-	-	75	95	4	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		REB	-	-	14	5	98	36	161	59	-	-	12	15	42	53	25	32	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		ZED	-	-	25	9	96	35	152	56	-	-	-	-	34	43	45	57	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
4	Appraisal of teachers	WED	-	-	97	35.5	133	48.7	43	15.8	-	-	24	30	49	62	6	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		LGB	194	71	79	29	-	-	-	-	43	54	36	46	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		School	153	56	120	44	-	-	-	-	33	42	46	58	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		REB	75	27.5	174	63.7	24	8.8	-	-	7	9	53	67	19	24	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		ZED	-	-	124	45	105	36	44	16	-	-	50	63	26	33	3	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		WED	-	-	24	9	41	15	208	76	-	-	6	7.6	32	40.5	41	51.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		LGB	-	-	61	22	212	78	-	-	-	-	19	24	38	48	22	28	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		School Management	-	-	109	40	103	38	61	22	-	-	10	12.7	40	50.6	29	36.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		Department	-	-	203	74.4	64	23.4	6	2.2	14	18	57	72	8	10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
		Teachers	150	58	110	37	13	5	-	-	73	92	6	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	

Organization of local administrative structures and/or authorities with inadequate managerial expertise can aggravate wastage of resources and managerial inefficiency as well (Carnal, 1995).

Furthermore, the school management had no significant participation in the training function. Thus, low emphasis was given to the share of experiences and on-the-job coaching among and in between members of schools in both zones. This practice is, therefore, contradictory with the worth of decentralization to empower the local management thereby exploiting the existing opportunities with minimum government intervention (Malpica, 1995).

Unlike the experiences of the stakeholders in the previous personnel functions, appraisal of teachers was mostly executed at Woreda management level and, to some extent, at school level. Yet, the role of departments and teachers in the appraisal process was insignificant in both zones. This, in turn, may indicate that self-appraisal has little formal basis upon which most incumbents could claim for autonomy. Indeed, Such complaints of teachers on external influence could reside with the significant extent of engagement of the LGBs in appraising teachers in the two Zones. In such situation, where excessive intervention of local politics persist, sustainability of localized management and satisfaction of the incumbents and/or implementers could not be ensured like what Chile and Brukinafaso experienced (Govinda, 1997).

**Table 4 Degree of Involvement of Educational Authorities in Controlling Primary Schools**

No	Function	Inter veining body	Extent of Intervention															
			SWAZ								ONAZ							
			Nothing		Low		Medium		High		Nothing		Low		Medium		High	
			No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Budgetary control	REB	-	-	23	8.4	92	33.7	158	57.9	-	-	18	22.8	41	51.9	20	25.3
		ZED	-	-	102	37	120	44	51	19	-	-	27	34	17	22	35	44
		WED	59	22	69	25	87	32	58	21	8	10	39	49	26	33	6	8
		LGB	100	38.4	122	44.7	46	16.9	5	1.8	38	48	23	29	18	23	-	-
		School	232	35	41	15	-	-	-	-	75	95	4	5	-	-	-	-
-2	Evaluation of teacher-made test	REB	255	93	18	7	-	-	-	-	78	987	1	1.3	-	-	-	-
		ZED	258	81	25	9	-	-	-	-	72	91	7	9	-	-	-	-
		WED	227	83	46	17	-	-	-	-	74	94	15	6	-	-	-	-
		LGB	273	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	79	100	-	-	-	-	-	-
		School Management	148	54	125	46	-	-	-	-	43	54.5	36	45.5	-	-	-	-
		Department	-	-	82	30	132	48	59	22	-	-	23	29	39	49	17	22
		Teachers	-	-	-	-	55	20	218	80	-	-	-	-	11	14	68	86
3	Monitoring performance of schools	REB	125	46	79	29	69	25	-	-	71	90	8	10	-	-	-	-
		ZED	137	50	95	35	41	15	-	-	47	60	20	25	12	15	-	-
		WED	-	-	57	21	120	44	96	35	-	-	18	23	33	42	28	35
		LGB	-	-	191	69	82	31	-	-	-	-	50	63	29	37	-	-
		School	-	-	212	78	61	22	-	-	-	-	23	29	36	46	20	25
4	Controlling performance of principals	REB	247	90.5	26	9.5	-	-	-	-	76	96	3	4	-	-	-	-
		ZED	217	79.5	56	20.5	-	-	-	-	68	86	11	14	-	-	-	-
		WED	-	-	83	30	70	26	120	44	-	-	19	24	22	28	38	48
		LGB	59	22	94	34	120	44	-	-	14	18	20	25	45	57	-	-
		School Management	-	-	103	38	150	55	20	7	-	-	12	15.2	58	73.4	9	11.4
		Department	16	6	222	81	35	13	-	-	8	10	71	90	-	-	-	-
		Teachers	251	92	22	8	-	-	-	-	75	95	4	5	-	-	-	-
5	Promotion policy	REB	-	-	-	-	120	44	153	56	-	-	20	25	19	24	40	51
		ZED	-	-	151	55	56	21	66	24	-	-	48	60.8	22	27.8	9	11.4
		WED	-	-	166	61	55	20	52	19	-	-	59	74.7	14	17.7	6	7.6
		LGB	253	93	20	7	-	-	-	-	68	86	11	14	-	-	-	-
		School	171	63	102	37	-	-	-	-	59	75	20	25	-	-	-	-

Table 5 Approaches Adopted to Decision- Making When School Management Encounters with Conflicting Interests

No	Final measure of school management to execute tasks	SWAZ								ONAZ							
		Not at all		Sometimes		Mostly		Always		Not at all		Sometimes		Mostly		Always	
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Implement the decisions made by teachers' conference	209	80	54	20	-	-	-	-	59	82	13	18	-	-	-	-
2	Implement the decisions of school management committee	217	82.5	46	17.5	-	-	-	-	56	78	16	22	-	-	-	-
3	Principal makes final decision individually	252	96	11	4	-	-	-	-	65	90	4	6	3	4	-	-
4	Apply the directives of WED	-	-	70	26	176	67	17	7	9	2.5	5	7	51	70.8	7	9.7
5	Perform on the basis of political directives	-	-	20	7	196	74	47	18	-	-	-	-	66	73	6	8
6	Implement what school board decided	-	-	202	77	61	23	-	-	-	-	52	72	17	24	3	4
7	Delay the decisions until consensus is made among different stake holders	-	-	77	29	174	66	12	5	-	-	27	37.5	45	62.5	-	-
8	Open discussion and decision collectively with school community and external beneficiaries	187	70	76	30	-	-	-	-	54	75	18	25	-	-	-	-

Teachers' conference was not employed as a mechanism to influence actions as the large majority (81%, on average) of the respondents affirmed (refer to table 5). Like wise, both the school management and principal were supposed to have little power to execute decisions alone. Decisions, as per the responses of 71% (on average) of the school personnel, were mostly translated into actions depending on the directives of local political leaders and Woreda Education Officials.

In the recent modified directives for the organization and management of schools in the region, school board is the upper governing body of its respective school. In practice however, its decisional role was undermined as most (75%, on average) of the respondents asserted (see table 5 above). The internal management bodies formally authorized to manage schools were, thus, under high pressure of the local government (political) bodies.

Moreover, it was indicated that decisions were mostly delayed until consensus was reached among various stakeholders. Nevertheless, real consensus remains in question for there had been little experience to make transparent and collective decision-making. With the exception of 27% of the school personnel, the remaining respondents affirmed that this experience of decision-making did not exist in both zones. Hence, decisions might have been delayed until the local influential leaders (LGB) received guidance from their bosses. This, in turn, may indicate a motive for decentralization without real decentralization. For a successful decentralization of education, schools should be the basic management units where by principals and teachers are authorized to develop and implement education programs within national policies and directives (Caldwell and Spinks, 1992; Govinda, 1997; Malpica, 1995).

**Table 6 Rank Order of Power Actors Depending on their Influence in the Execution of School tasks**

No	Power actors	SWAZ						ONAZ					
		School Personnel			Zonal and Woreda Officials			School Personnel			Zonal and Woreda Officials		
		No	%	Rank	No	%	Rank	No	%	Rank	No	%	Rank
1	School board	141	54	7	9	90	2	59	82	5	4	57	2
2	School management committee	95	36	1	8	80	4	27	38	2	6	86	4
3	Principal	140	53	2	9	90	3	67	93	3	5	71	3
4	Vice principal	122	46	5	5	50	7	42	58	6	4	57	6
5	Departmental meeting	97	37	4	6	60	8	51	71	7	6	86	8
6	Teachers' (staff) meetings	81	31	3	7	70	6	31	43	4	5	71	7
7	Subject teacher	155	59	9	8	80	9	65	90	9	6	86	9
8	Students' conference	252	69	10	7	70	10	68	94	10	7	100	10
9	Parents' committee	99	38	8	6	60	5	63	88	8	5	71	5
10	LGB	108	41	6	5	50	1	28	39	1	4	57	1

As shown in Table 6, the two categories of the respondents generally reflect similar idea regarding the power of local management bodies in both zones. The only departure in this regard, was demonstrated by the two categories of the respondents in SWAZ, which might have been attributed to the emphasis given to the formal authority rather than the actual influence of the power actors. Yet, such variation is insignificant taking the ranking similarity among the three groups- school personnel in both zones and education officials in ONAZ- into account. Thus, an average value of ranks, as per the responses of all groups across the two zones, could represent the overall ranks of each power actor in deciding school issues.

Accordingly, LGB was the upper most powerful body at the grassroots management level while the school board, formally authorized to govern schools, was ranked as the 4<sup>th</sup>

influential body following the (2<sup>nd</sup>) rank of principal and school management committee. This, in turn, may indicate that approvals of school decisions are merely accomplished by the school board on behalf of the governing system. Unnecessary interference of local political bodies had been considered as the source of chaos and dissatisfaction of professionals at school level in the experiences of Ghana and Srilanka (Conyers, 1983).

The decision-making power of parent-teacher union, which was organized to control the day-to-day performance of the school community, was lowered down after the rank (6<sup>th</sup>) of vice principals. Thus, the intention to raise school-community liaison through this body is still impractical. Furthermore, involvement of departments and teachers in the management process was considered to be very low. Better progress of schooling need to be accompanied by substantial engagement of incumbents and/or professionals in the decision-making process: otherwise, authority dispersion to district or Woreda level would result in dissatisfaction of workers and inefficiency of operations as some Latin American nations experienced (Malpica, 1995).

### 3.5. Participation of Clients in Schooling

There is little disagreement with regard to the importance of parental involvement in schooling for it empowers schools in terms of resources and learning progress of pupils. Thus, no teacher or administrator can normally stand against such support.

The point of departure arises due to the problem of role ambiguity and its consequences on the professional autonomy and instructional outputs (Fullan, 1991: 227-8). How are, then, the complaints of some teachers on the evaluation role of the major clients (parents and students) verified in relation to such trend? Do these complaints have a real ground? An analysis regarding these issues follows below.

**Table 7 Degree of Importance of The Role of Parents and Students in Teachers' Performance Evaluation Process**

No	Item	Response	SWAZ						ONAZ					
			Totally unnecessary		Sometimes necessary		Mostly necessary		Totally unnecessary		Some times necessary		Mostly necessary	
			No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Parents' role	School personnel	89	34	164	62	10	4	22	31	50	69	-	-
		ZEO's and WEO's	-	-	8	80	2	20	-	-	7	100	-	-
		Total	89	33	172	63	12	4	22	28	57	72	-	-
2	Students' role	School personnel	28	11	207	79	28	10	9	12.5	55	76.4	8	11.1
		ZEO's and WEO's	-	-	4	40	6	60	-	-	3	43	4	57
		Total	28	10	211	77	34	13	9	11.4	58	73.4	12	15.2

The suggestions of the respondents about the involvement of parents in evaluating the performance of teachers across the two zones were similar as the chi-square test ( $p < 0.05$ ,  $\chi^2 = 0.0008$ ) showed statistically insignificant variation (see Table 7). Infact, an average percentage (62.5%) of both the school personnel and education officials expressed their agreement on the need for occasional engagement of parents in the process of evaluation. The main reasons provided by the respondents to such limited parental role were the poor

school-community linkage and/or little knowledge of the parents on what teachers had been performing. Hence, as reported by the school personnel, parents should not be allowed to assign the ratings for teachers. It would suffice if they forward comments on the general performance of schools, in addition to their vital role in supporting schools with material inputs and in controlling the behaviors of children towards better learning outcomes.

In contrast, the responses of the two groups in both zones to the evaluation role of students have statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ,  $\chi^2 = 0.8$ ) difference. Indeed, 81% (on average) of the school personnel maintained the view that students should have very limited participation in the process. Whereas, 59% of the education officials in both zones espoused their believe in the importance of frequent involvement of pupils in evaluating teachers. Nevertheless, significant amount (41%) of the education officials did share the idea reflected by the school personnel. Hence, inspite of these extreme notions, significant extent of engagement of students in the evaluation of teachers performance seems to be recognized by both groups. Infact, the justifications to underscore learners' participation were associated to the doughty of the respondents on the consistency and reliability of the evaluation by the children, particularly at the first cycle of primary schools. Moreover, the procedures of evaluation, mostly exposed to the pressure of chairman, and some criteria outside the actual teacher-learner relations in classroom were severely criticized by the school personnel.

### 3.6. Instructional Supervision

Supervision is one of the variables upon which a distinction between advocates of centralization and decentralization is based. In a decentralized form of management, the incumbents in the instructional process, to a large extent, carry out instructional supervision (Bray, 1985; Malpica 1995). Yet, there is no clear-cut demarcation between the supervisory roles of external and internal bodies which commensurate improvement in the educational process and outcomes (Malpica, 1995). Hence, it would be important to examine the practices and attitudes of both implementers (teachers) and supervisory bodies towards supervision at a specific site in order to provide value judgment on their performance and outputs. The data and information concerning these issues are consolidated under Tables 8-10.

**Table 8 Rank Order of Supervisors on the Basis of their Role in Lesson Supervision**

No	Supervisors	SWAZ						ONAZ					
		School Personnel			ZEOs and WEOs			School Personnel			ZEOs and WEOs		
		No	%	Rank	No	%	Rank	No	%	Rank	No	%	Rank
1	Regional supervisors	248	94	7	9	90	9	49	68	10	7	100	10
2	Zonal supervisors	241	92	5	8	80	8	65	90	5	6	86	8
3	Woreda supervisors	260	99	3	6	60	6	51	71	3	6	86	5
4	Principals	179	68	1	6	60	4	31	43	1	5	71	3
5	Vice principals	97	37	2	4	40	3	59	81	2	5	71	4
6	Department heads	98	37	3	5	50	2	47	65	4	6	86	2
7	Colleagues (teachers)	94	36	6	3	33	1	25	35	6	2	29	1
		35	13	0	2	20	0	10	14	0	-	-	-
8	Members of school board	92	35	8	4	40	5	28	39	8	2	29	6
		34	13	0	-	-	-	9	13	0	-	-	-
9	Members of Woreda administrative council	95	36	10	3	33	10	38	53	9	5	71	9
		29	11	0	2	20	0	0	11	0	1	14	0
10	Members of Kebele executive committee	87	33	9	5	50	7	24	33	7	2	29	7
		58	22	0	2	20	0	10	14	0	1	14	0

Inspite of certain variation in the amount of respondents, considerable agreements between the responses of the two categories, in raking the role of supervisors, were showed by high correlation coefficients of 0.7 and 0.9 in SWAZ and ONAZ respectively. Accordingly, the supervisory role of colleagues, members of school board, Woreda administrative Council and Kebele executive committee were insignificant (see Table 8). Hence, these individuals can be excluded from the rank order of supervisors though their interference, except collegial supervision, in that extent would still be a matter of critiques by professional interest for self-autonomy.

On the basis of the principle of majority and average frequency of the ranks assigned to each actor by the four categories of the respondents, the internal supervisors including principals, vice- principals and department heads were ranked at the 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> level respectively. In contrast, the role of supervisors in the education hierarchy was supposed to be decreasing from Woreda to Region level. Thus, professionals at school level, to a large extent, accomplished classroom supervision. Yet, the supervisory role (collegial supervision) of the major incumbents, subject teachers, in the actual teaching-learning process were undermined. The direct inspectoral roles of external bodies in the instructional process are less likely to initiate the work motives and confidence of teachers in their profession (Green III and McCall, 1998: 231-2).

**Table 9** Justifications About the Supervisory Roles of Different Bodies in Classroom Instruction

No	Item	Response	SWAZ								ONAZ							
			Highly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Highly agree		Highly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Highly agree	
			No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Classroom supervision without the expertise of teaching methods is futile	School respondents	-	-	-	-	246	93.5	17	6.5	-	-	-	-	66	92	6	8
		Z/EOs and W/EOs	-	-	2	20	8	80	-	-	-	-	1	14	6	86	-	-
		Total	-	-	2		254		17		-	-	1	1.3	72	91.1	6	7.6
2	External supervision limits the professional autonomy of teachers	School respondents	-	-	15	6	248	94	-	-	-	-	6	8	66	92	-	-
		Z/EOs and W/EOs	1	10	7	70	2	20	-	-	-	-	5	71	2	29	-	-
		Total	1	0.4	22	8.4	250	91.2	-	-	-	-	11	14	68	86	-	-
3	Woreda supervisors emphasis on control rather than support	School respondents	-	-	84	32	179	68	-	-	-	-	21	29	51	71	-	-
		Z/EOs and W/EOs	-	-	6	60	4	40	-	-	-	-	4	57	3	43	-	-
		Total	-	-	90	37	183	63	-	-	-	-	25	32	54	68	-	-
4	Principal stress on filling the performance appraisal form	School respondents	-	-	60	23	63	24	140	53	-	-	19	26	53	74	-	-
		Z/EOs and W/EOs	-	-	2	20	8	80	-	-	-	-	5	71	2	29		
		Total	-	-	62	23	71	26	140	51	-	-	19	24	58	73.5	2	2.5
5	Department heads have better expertise	School respondents	-	-	100	38	163	62	-	-	-	-	27	38	45	62	-	-
		Z/EOs and W/EOs	-	-	4	40	6	60	-	-	-	-	3	43	4	57	-	-
		Total	-	-	104	38	169	62	-	-	-	-	30	42	42	58	-	-
6	Collegial supervision motivates teachers	School respondents	-	-	-	-	-	-	263	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	72	100
		Z/EOs and W/EOs	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	100
		Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	273	100	-	-	-	-	-	-	79	100
7	Collegial supervision is exposed to favoritism	School respondents	-	-	203	77	60	23	-	-	-	-	57	79	15	21	-	-
		Z/EOs and W/EOs	-	-	2	20	8	80	-	-	-	-	1	14	6	86	-	-
		Total	-	-	205	75	68	25	-	-	-	-	58	73.5	21	26.5	-	-
8	Government should assign external supervisors	School respondents	-	-	74	28	189	72	-	-	-	-	20	28	52	72	-	-
		Z/EOs and W/EOs	-	-	-	-	8	80	2	20	-	-	-	-	5	71	2	29
		Total	-	-	74	27	197	72.3	2	0.7	-	-	20	25	57	72.5	2	2.5

The data consolidated under table 9 shows that the opinions of the respondents about classroom supervisory experiences in the study areas are generally similar, particularly between the school personnel, on the one hand, and education officials on the other. Such similarity was consistently observed except the disagreement of 71% (on average) of the education officials in the view that external supervision limits the professional autonomy of teachers.

Ofcourse, 93% (on average) of the school personnel and 82% (on average) the WEO's depicted that classroom supervision should necessarily be accompanied by adequate expertise in teaching methods.

Inspite of their agreement on the preferability of internal supervisors to the external ones, on average amount (71%) of the education officials indicated that collegial supervision was exposed to favoritism. Yet, 60% of the education officials and 100% of the school personnel recognized the motivating role of collegial supervision and the better position of departments to supervise as well.

However, the responses of the school personnel in both zones appear to be inconsistent and, sometimes contradictory. For example, 74% (on average) of the school respondents complained on the non-supportive role of principals and Woreda supervisors. Similarly, most of the school personnel contended for professional autonomy while, at the same time, they explained the need for external supervisors assigned by government so as to

reduce the weaknesses of the internal supervision. Hence, the general tendency of the respondents denotes that lesson supervision should be accomplished by collaborative inputs of internal and external professionals with more authority to departments and subject teachers. Indeed, successful implementation of decentralization has been related to the empowerment of the operational management through continuous training and supporting inputs of the upper managerial expertise and thereby allowing the implementers to execute decisions/ tasks on a small-scale basis (Govinda, 1997; Green III and McCall, 1998).

Table 10 Constraints to Promote Collegial Supervision

No	Item	Response	SWAZ				ONAZ			
			School respondents		ZEOs and WEOs		School respondents		ZEOs and WEOs	
			No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Heavy teaching load	No	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Yes	182	69	6	60	48	67	3	43
		Average	81	31	4	40	24	33	4	57
2	Unwillingness of teachers to take the responsibility	No	145	55	2	20	40	55.5	1	14
		Yes	79	30	4	40	25	34.8	3	43
		Average	59	15	4	40	7	9.7	3	43
3	Incompetency of teachers to evaluate	No	184	70	7	70	49	68	5	71
		Yes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Average	79	30	3	30	23	32	2	29
4	Inadequacy of school management to coordinate efforts of teachers	No	82	31	4	40	22	31	2	29
		Yes	114	43	2	20	18	56	1	14
		Average	67	26	4	40	32	44	4	57
5	Absence of clear guidelines	No	-	-	2	20	-	-	-	-
		Yes	258	98	8	80	72	100	5	71
		Average	5	2	-	-	-	-	2	29

Whether collegial supervision has perished or not in the primary schools of the two zones was diagnosed on the basis of some variables (see the above table) that would restrain the

process. Accordingly, the respondents generally agreed that high teaching load, inadequacy of school management and guidelines have substantially impeded the collegial supervision. Besides, the problem of ambiguity of guidelines could indicate the poor commitment of upper education officials to devolve the supervisory authority in the name of inadequacy of trained manpower at the operational level. This in turn, might have hindered to facilitate the collegial supervision since empowerment of the incumbents without such preliminary inputs is meaningless in the light of decentralization (Govinda, 1997).

Therefore, refraining from providing the basic arrangement to promote collegial supervision, would take the overall accountability to the failure of collegial supervision in both zones. Continuous training and empowerment of the implementers, taking certain ups and downs into consideration, are the basic features of a decentralized system (Malpica, 1995).

### **3.7. Managerial Capacity**

One of the major rationalizations to centralize or devolve authority down the organizational hierarchy is associated to the degree of local expertise. Despite the variation in gentility of delegate's, the capacity of operational management is commonly considered as a vital pre-requisite for successful decentralization (Govinda, 1997; Hanson, 1989). On this basis, it was attempted to examine the capacity of management at Woreda and school (local) level in comparison to the empowerment endeavors of the upper level management. The data obtained regarding these issues are presented under Tables 11 and 12.

Table 11 Efforts of the WEDs and Schools to Utilize Resources

No	Management function	Management level	Efforts to Execute tasks															
			SWAZ								ONAZ							
			Nothing		Low		Medium		High		Nothing		Low		Medium		High	
			No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Arrangement to facilitate or coordinate share of experiences	WED	-	-	189	69	84	31	-	-	-	-	61	77	18	23	-	-
		School	-	-	186	68	87	32	-	-	-	-	57	72	22	28	-	-
2	Timely allocation of the necessary resources	WED	-	-	211	77	62	28	-	-	-	-	49	62	30	38	-	-
		School	-	-	174	64	99	36	-	-	-	-	54	68	25	32	-	-
3	Use of easily available local resources	WED	50	18.3	162	54.3	61	22.4	-	-	-	-	48	61	31	39	-	-
		School	-	-	144	55	129	45	-	-	-	-	40	51	39	49	-	-
4	Timely decision to avoid wastage	WED	-	-	205	75	68	25	-	-	-	-	52	66	27	34	-	-
		School	-	-	171	63	102	37	-	-	-	-	51	64	28	36	-	-
5	Fast communication to facilitate the implementation of policy directives	WED	-	-	199	73	71	27	-	-	-	-	51	68	25	32	-	-
		School	-	-	162	59	111	41	-	-	-	-	49	62	30	38	-	-
6	Balancing expense with the actual service of clients	WED	-	-	169	62	104	38	-	-	-	-	49	62	30	38	-	-
		School	-	-	162	59	111	41	-	-	-	-	45	57	34	43	-	-
7	On-time maintenance	WED	-	-	327	87	36	13	-	-	-	-	65	82	14	18	-	-
		School	-	-	229	84	44	16	-	-	-	-	67	85	12	15	-	-
8	Continuity of supervision and support	WED	-	-	248	91	25	9	-	-	-	-	68	86	11	14	-	-
		School	51	19	107	39	115	42	-	-	-	-	40	51	39	49	-	-
9	Establish adequate reward system	WED	48	18	225	82	-	-	-	-	27	34	52	66	-	-	-	-
		School	59	22	214	78	-	-	-	-	33	42	46	58	-	-	-	-

According to the contentions of decentralization, the main potential impediment of a system- scarcity of resources- can be alleviated through appropriate organization and use of the available resources in such a way that multiple inputs of the locality are coordinated (Caldwell and Spinks, 1992; Malpica, 1995). However, neither the schools nor the WED's attempted to integrate various experiences and local resources within and outside their span of control (see Table 11).

The preliminary resources required for schooling were not allocated timely in both zones. Most probably, this problem might have arisen as a result of the poor communication and delayed decisions experienced by the management bodies at Woreda and school levels. Infact, the weak infrastructure, particularly in the rural areas might have also influenced fast communication and distribution of resources to the site level.

The visionary consideration of the management bodies about the 'trade-offs' of school expansion and maintenance was supposed to be low. Supportive evidences to such position of the respondents (60%, on average) can be illustrated by the poor physical plant of the schools and the excessive intervention of LGBs in school expansion plan than that of the ZED's and WED's. Thus, 3-5 teachers were assigned in some schools (like in Hedo and Kelo primary schools in ONAZ) with a total of 25-47 students and inadequate material resources. Other schools (such as Etege Manem in Desie town and Kemise 01 complete primary school in ONAZ) were crowded (1 : 8<sup>9</sup> section student ratio) with insufficient amount of teachers. In this sense, neither expansion nor quality of education could be realized except wastage of

resources. Excessive local government authorities without the real decision-making power of professionals were the main problems to aggravate quality decline in the past experience of Tanzania (Bishop, 1989).

The managerial capacity of the WED's and schools in both zones was insufficient as the large (69%, on average) portion of the respondents asserted (refer to Table 12 below). Indeed, this had been consistently affirmed earlier in relation to their educational qualification and performance of the operational managers in the utilization of resources.

Likewise, principals' and schools, as institutions, were supposed to have insufficient authority to execute decisions. But, there is a significant difference ( $p < 0.05$ ,  $\chi^2 = 0.3$ ) between the views of the school personnel and education officials, at Woreda and zonal level, on the authority of principals and schools. In particular, the formal power of principals, as per the responses of 70% (average) of the education officials, was sufficient though the principals lacked the necessary managerial expertise. Nonetheless, this wouldn't be justifiable in a situation where schools have little resource- base (such as finance) accompanied by a significant extent of influences of the LGB and WED (Bray, 1985; Campbell, 1993).

Training is one of the basic inputs to empower operational management and teachers so that they could execute their tasks autonomously (Malpica, 1995). For this purpose, explained the head department of human resource in the AREB, different programs have been devised in the region.

Table 12 Managerial Capacity Vs Authority of both WEDs and Schools

No	Item	Response	SWAZ						ONAZ					
			School respondents		ZEO's and WEO's		Total		School respondents		ZEO's and WEO's		Total	
			No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Capacity of WEO/WED	Sufficient	14	5	4	40	18	7	28	39	2	29	30	38
		Insufficient	249	95	6	60	255	93	44	61	5	71	49	62
2	Capacity of primary schools	Sufficient	109	41	2	20	111	41	30	42	1	15	31	39
		Insufficient	154	59	8	80	255	59	42	58	6	85	48	61
3	Capacity of principals	Sufficient	70	26	3	30	162	23	16	22	1	14	17	21.5
		Insufficient	193	74	7	70	73	77	56	78	6	86	62	78.5
4	Authority of school management	Sufficient	29	11	4	40	200	12	4	6	2	29	6	8
		Insufficient	234	89	6	60	33	88	68	94	5	71	73	92
5	Authority of principals	Sufficient	57	21.7	6	60	240	23	23	32	5	71	28	35
		Insufficient	189	71.8	3	30	62	70	49	68	2	29	51	65
		Excess	17	6.5	1	10	192	7	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	Authority of teachers	Sufficient	61	23	8	80	19	25	-	-	6	86	6	8
		Insufficient	202	77	2	20	204	75	72	100	1	14	73	92
7	In service training provided to upgrade managerial capacity of schools	Nothing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14	1	1.0
		Sufficient	79	30	4	40	127	47	23	32	2	29	25	32
		Insufficient	184	70	6	60	146	53	49	68	4	57	53	67
8	In-service training to raise academic competency of teachers	Nothing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Sufficient	130	49	5	50	135	49	34	47	3	43	37	47
		Insufficient	133	51	5	50	138	51	38	53	4	57	42	53

Special training departments and units were established at Regional and Woreda level to carry out variety training programs. The ONAZ had also this structure to conduct training, especially in relation to schooling through the nationality language- Oromiffa. In practice, however, training sessions provided to the school management and academic staffs were inadequate in both zones. Principalship was, above all, undermined in comparison to the considerable efforts to upgrade the academic proficiency of teachers.

Authority discretion to the operational management level without empowering the personnel with the necessary expertise would be no more than inefficiency and wastage (Florestal and Cooper, 1997).

### **3.8. Implementation of the ETP**

The general objectives of the ETP, as described earlier, revolve around the issues of equity, quality and access to education. To this end, decentralization would be employed so that universal primary education can be achieved thereby raising community participation and competency of teachers. Pupils, in this process, would acquire and experience practical knowledge through their vernacular language. Whether these situations are, on the way are examined as follows in relation to some indicators mentioned in the Education Sector Strategy (MOE, 1999).

**Table 13 Degree of Implementation of the ETP Expectations**

No	Item	SWAZ						ONAZ					
		Low		Medium		High		Low		Medium		High	
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Expansion of primary schools												
	a) Rural	170	62	76	28	27	10	54	68	25	32	-	-
	b) Urban	32	12	142	52	99	36	12	15	42	53	25	32
	<b>Total</b>	<b>202</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>218</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>126</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>67</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>16</b>
2	Arrangement of educational setting for practical knowledge and entrepreneurship	269	98.5	4	1.5	-	-	71	90	8	10	-	-
3	Reduction of governmental budget or expenditure on education	170	62	88	32	15	6	54	68.4	20	25.3	5	6.3
4	Supportive role of LGB in schooling	221	81	40	15	12	4	70	89	9	11	-	-
5	Parents' satisfaction in education of their children	213	78	60	22	-	-	71	90	8	10	-	-
6	The role of vernacular language in the progress of pupils' achievement	20	7.3	69	25.3	184	67.4	4	5	25	32	50	63
7	Competency of teachers	33	12	195	71.5	45	16.5	12	15	56	71	11	14
8	Job satisfaction of teachers	166	61	80	29	27	10	51	65	19	24	9	11

Expansion of schools was generally increasing in the two zones with the exception of the large disparity among the urban and rural areas (refer to Table 13). But, whether this is educationally viable may still require further verification interms of the real enrollment rate of pupils and other vital inputs to promote access and quality of education.

The pupil-school ratios in SWAZ were 644, 706 and 744 during the last three academic years. Where as, these ratios in ONAZ were 361, 733 and 322 since the year 1999. This shows that greater number of pupils have been enrolled in a primary school in the former zone than in the latter. Besides, the pupil- teacher ratio (1: 38) in ONAZ was very low in comparison to the ratio in SWAZ (1: 64) and Regional average (1: 69) during 2002/03 (1995 E.C) (ANRS Education Bureau, 2002/03, 2001 and 2002). Therefore, organizing the nationality zone

(ONAZ) as a distinctive management unit has had little contribution to expand primary education.

Apart from this, the operational management bodies (WED's and Schools) in both zones were supposed to have weak experiences in organizing the educational setting for practical knowledge and skills on which the ETP emphasizes. Coupled to this, the competency of teachers was questioned as per the responses of 85% (on average) of the respondents in both zones. Above all, the satisfaction of teachers in their job was largely taken to be low which, in turn, could aggravate the decline of educational quality as some developing nations (such as Chile, Venezuela and Tanzania) confronted (Malpica, 1995; Hanson, 1989; and Bishop, 1989).

The major drawbacks of the decentralization and, thus, negative feeling of the incumbents in both areas considered in the study were also reported. Some of these include: low authority of schools and teachers, poor working conditions, inadequate reward system and managerial expertise, frequent turn over of principals, and interference of local political bodies (LGBs) in professional decisions (Details in Appendix 10-B).

Furthermore, the interventions of LGBs and parents in schooling were said to be insignificant in the light of the ETP expectations (See Table 13). They did little to reduce government expenditure, School community liaison was loose though the REB has, recently, re-organized a modified structure (parent- teacher union) so that such relation and schooling outcomes could be improved through the frequent intervention of this union or the public in controlling the day-to-day behaviors of the school community (AREB, 2002/03).

## CHAPTER FOUR

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 4.1. Summary

Organizational design in some systems emphasize on centralizing the decision-making power at the apex of the organizational hierarchy while others favor the extreme management strategy-highly decentralized system. Still others contend for an eclectic model in between these extreme management strategies in which the authority of the participants in the system is determined by specific contingencies.

On the basis of such perspectives and global experiences, the researcher has reviewed various pre-requisites for successful decentralization so as to deduce lessons that would help to examine the implementation status of education decentralization in Ethiopia, with particular reference to the primary education (1-8) in two adjacent zones of the Amhara National Regional State. For this purpose, a descriptive survey method was employed to gather the necessary data mainly from the deliberately and randomly represented stakeholders of schooling in SWAZ and ONAZ. In spite of certain variation related to their position and expectations from education, the respondents have generally reflected similar opinions on most of the various issues raised in the study. The major findings are, therefore, summarized as follows.

1. Teachers in general have had much teaching burden as a result of shortage of manpower and large class size, particularly in urban areas. This, in turn, was

conceived as one of the main impediments to raise participation of teachers in the management of primary schools in both administrative zones.

2. The majority (54%) of the teachers in both zones have had low interest to carryout the managerial responsibilities assigned to them mostly without compensation benefit.
3. Management expertise at Woreda and school level was inadequate. These management units were generally dependent upon governmental (REB) intervention in the execution of most decision issues with the exception of day-to-day operational activities. Nevertheless, such inputs were inadequate to enhance the efficiency of the operational management bodies to utilize resources. This would be a crucial problem since both the primary schools and WEDs had little internal revenue and local community support as well.
4. The management bodies in the educational echelons and the beneficiaries at the local level have had little engagement in the development of curriculum for primary education provided through Oromiffa language in ONAZ, which had been accomplished by ORGEB.
5. The functions of appraisal and controlling performance of schools and principals were, to a large extent, executed at Woreda management level. Nonetheless, professional decisions were subjected to the influences of Woreda and/or local government (political) bodies, particularly in the determination of school expansion and evaluation and control of the school personnel and WEOs as well. But, the LGBs had inconsiderable engagement in financing schools and controlling

- students' behavior for which the education policy focuses on.
6. The supervisory roles of principals and Woreda professionals have been associated with controlling rather than support. However, the assignment of external supervisors was supposed to be vital to reduce unfair supervisory practices of the internal ones and/or collegial supervision.
  7. Parents had hardly participated in most of school issues except in evaluating performance of teachers and supporting school construction through their labor occasionally. Yet, that extent of parental involvement in the evaluation process had low acceptance by the majority (67%, on average) of the respondents in both zones.
  8. There was an average increase in school construction in both zones. But, expansion of schools in rural areas was low, particularly in ONAZ with the lowest gross enrolment ratio (32) in comparison to the averages in both SWAZ (65) and Region (64) during the 2002-03 (1995 E.C) academic year.
  9. In general, poor working conditions, inadequate resources and expertise in management, lack of clarity of guidelines, frequent turn over of principals, poor reward system and career development of teachers, weak professional autonomy, and interference of local politics were supposed to be the major impediments to implement the decentralization process.

## 4.2. Conclusions

Depending on the findings summarized above, the basic assumption- the feasibility of educational decentralization for better outcomes is questionable in terms of both the formal power- base and competency of the operational management to utilize resources- was generally valid. The major aspects of such conclusion are stated as follows:

- a. First and foremost, the WED's and schools are expected to carry out multiple responsibilities without adequate resource base including finance, teaching staff and managerial expertise. It is, most probably, due to such reasons that these administrative bodies were unable to utilize even the locally existing resources. Hence, it is less likely to deploy the decentralized management strategy into the educational system without educational crises for a minimum of 10 years in both zones. Above all, the educational system may suffer from an acute problem of quality decline, particularly in an attempt to achieve the ambitious goal of universal primary education by the end of 2015.
- b. Government fund in the form of block grant is a basic and vital policy to empower the lower level management bodies. However, this policy may face obstacle as a result of poor documentation and reporting experience of the local administration thereby misleading the upper management in the allocation of resources. Therefore, equitable expansion and quality of education can't be ensured since the operational management bodies have had inadequate internal revenue and community (including NGOs) contribution to support the limited financial provision of the central (REB) management body.

- c. The administrative bodies at zonal, Woreda and school level, teachers and clients had little participation in the process of curriculum development, especially in the distinctive education unit (ONAZ) organized for the sake of promoting local autonomy of nationality zones. Therefore, organization of the education management alongside the governmental structure has had nothing to do with the actual service or demand of incumbents and beneficiaries of schooling except learning through vernacular language, which could also be possible without such design.
- d. The Woreda Education Officials and principals were not in a position to decide and execute their tasks confidently due to the excessive interference of LGBs (or political leaders) in such functions as school expansion plan, appraisal and control of teacher's performance. These hindrances, coupled with the objective problem (associated to the poor socio-economic development) of the nation to improve the compensation benefits of the employees, are aggravating the hatred of teachers towards their job. Consequently, the decentralization strategy has had little contribution to enhance the implementation of decision and professional autonomy of both teachers and educational management bodies at the grassroots level.
- e. Finally, the newly introduced parent- teacher union may not raise the supportive role of community in schooling in so far as it has had little acceptance by both the parents and school personnel. It is, therefore, meaningless to organize this structure unless the real educational demands of the beneficiaries are addressed.

### 4.3. Recommendations

The importance of devolving authority down to Woreda and school management level is not promising given the existing crucial problems of expertise and resources in the region. Nonetheless, some measures ought to be taken so that policy makers could plan for future decentralization in the light of harmonizing the ETP strives (access, equity and quality of education) with the existing opportunities and real demands of beneficiaries.

1. It has been consistently affirmed that the managerial capacity of both WEDs and primary schools in both zones is low. Thus, it is recommended that:
  - 1.1. The REB maintains the larger share in recruitment, controlling and planning especially in expanding primary education. The intervention of the bureau and ZEDs ought to decrease step-by-step relative to the capacity development of the WEDs in terms of trained manpower and other resources.
  - 1.2. The REB, together with the implementers, revise the criteria for the assignment of Woreda Education leaders and head teachers in both the 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> cycle of primary schools so that training in educational management would be the basic requirement (with a minimum of 80% grade points) expected from nominees for the managerial positions. To this end, a comprehensive summer training program needs to be conducted in collaboration with universities and colleges in the country.
  - 1.3. The REB and ZEDs support the WEDs in organizing cluster schools in order to build the capacity of schools through share of resources and experiences and/or on-the-job coaching. To this end, emphasis should be given to empower and

coordinate departments so as to raise the future autonomous decision-making power of the incumbents/schools.

2. It is advisable that the REB modifies the prescribed roles or structure of parent-teacher union, as it is not the real remedy to strengthen the relation of school and community. Given the heavy load of teachers and low interest of both the parents and school personnel, this body cannot carry out the expected tasks. Above all, controlling the day-to-day performance of schools requires frequent follow-up, which would be very difficult for the relatively remotest and disinterested parents in schooling. Hence, open discussion and consensus on the real educational demands of the beneficiaries would be the better mechanism to increase popular participation rather than a mere assignment of managerial burden on parents.
3. The school board and principals mostly decide or operate school tasks via the indirect influences of local political leaders. Thus, to maintain equilibrium and alleviate unnecessary interference of local political bodies, the limited number (2/15) of professionals in the membership of the board need to be raised. Acceptance and quality of decisions can be increased if vice principals, unit leaders and department heads are embodied as the members of both the school and Woreda Education and Training Boards.
4. Lastly, the REB need to develop clear guidelines so that participation of the local government bodies and community in schooling would be limited to such functions as raising and execution of finance, determination of subject areas and school site, and controlling the overall work schedule of schools and students' behavior as well.

In general, the trend to authorize local government bodies at the expense of professional decisions in the educational process may critically hinder the implementation of decentralization. At the same time, however, devolving authority down to Woreda and school level on the basis of the extreme contention of decentralization for autonomous management may hurt the quality and equitable expansion of education in the region. Therefore, step-by-step empowerment of the localities and/or professionals accompanied by clearly demarcated boundaries of authorities and responsibilities would be the better mechanisms to reduce the gap between these extreme notions.

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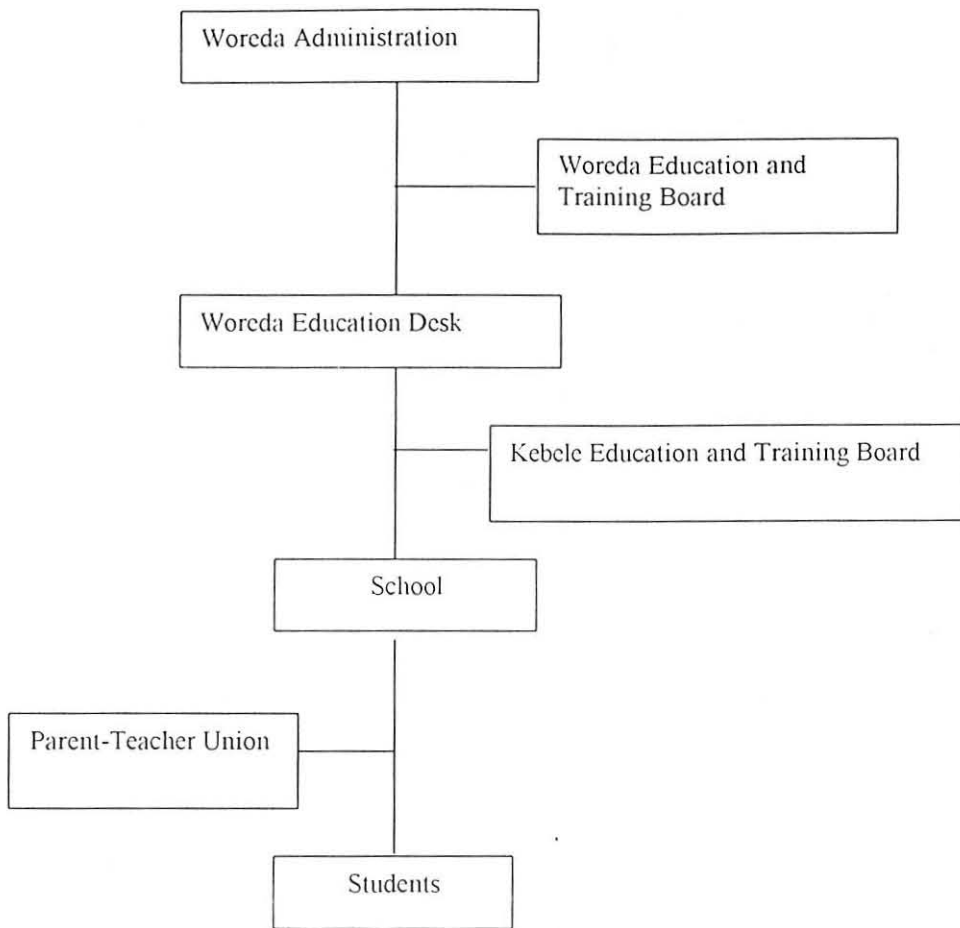
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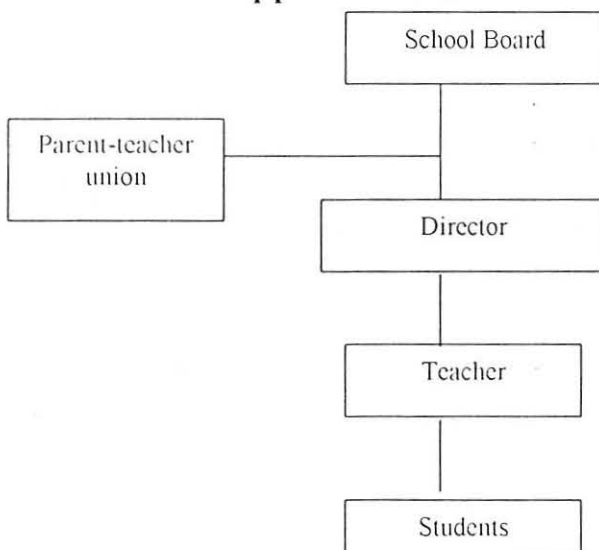
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# APPENDICES

## Appendix 1- A Organizational Chart



## Appendix 1-B



(Source: AREB, 2002: 31)

## Appendix 2

## List of the Sample Schools

## 1. SWAZ

No	Name of School	Grade Level	Number of sections	Woreda
1	Harbu general Primary	1-8	15	Kalu
2	Cherisa	1-6	10	"
3	Jerjero	1-6	11	"
4	Agamsa	1-4	5	"
5	Tulu Abajibo	1-4	5	"
6	Dawlo	1-4	4	"
7	Kedida	1-6	8	"
8	Abahalme	1-4	6	"
9	Wedajo	1-4	5	"
10	Indode	1-4	6	"
11	Tita General Primary	1-8	38	Dessie Zuria
12	Iillu	1-6	10	"
13	Serdom	1-6	17	"
14	Derekwoyra	1-6	27	"
15	Galessa	1-4	12	"
16	Antona Shiwaye	1-4	10	"
17	Silula General Primary	1-8	23	Tehuludere
18	Hayk No.2	1-6	26	"
19	Jari	1-6	14	"
20	Gedera metero	1-4	10	"
21	Hardibo	1-4	13	"
22	Kidame Gebeya	1-8	78	Dessie Ketema
23	Etege Menen	1-6	46	"

## 2. ONAZ

No	Name of School	Grade level	Number of sections	Woreda
1	Bati General Primary	1-8	29	Bati
2	Selewa	1-4	5	"
3	Kersa	1-6	7	"
4	Hedo	1-4	4	"
5	Kemisse No.1	1-8	17	Dewacheffa
6	Irensa	1-6	6	"
7	Teref	1-6	8	"
8	Shekla	1-4	5	"
9	Gerbi Babile	1-4	6	"
10	Reke	1-4	4	"
11	Jireta	1-4	4	"
12	Kelo	1-4	4	"

### Appendix 3 Major Responsibilities and Authorities of Educational Management Bodies in the Amhara Region

- a) Regional Education Bureau (REB)
- provide strategic leadership including policy formulation, planning (long term, medium and short term) and preparation of educational programs, determination of education standard, establish adequate information system and perform education research.
  - accomplish pedagogical tasks such as training of teachers, curriculum preparation, evaluation and certification and supervision.
- b) Woreda Education Desk (WED)
- provide feed back for policy formulation
  - prepare specific plans and programs
  - administer the manpower like recruitment, promotion and demotion of teachers
  - prepare educational programs for non-formal basic education
  - evaluate and control the tasks of schools (1-10)
  - organize and administer basic non-formal education centers and primary school
- c) Education Desks of Oromiya, Awi and Waghimra Nationality Zones
- lead the overall educational programs in their respective zone
  - devise strategies to strengthen vernacular language as a medium of instruction
- d) Bahirdar Special Zone
- provides feed back for policy formulation
  - recruit and assign teachers of primary school
  - organizes and administers basic non-formal education centers, primary and secondary schools, and administers the allocated budget
- e) South Wollo, North Gonder, East Gojam and North Shewa Education Desks
- serve as educational materials distribution centers
  - transfer policy guidelines, rules and manuals to WED and to the remaining zones except the nationality and Bahirdar zones
  - report the performance of WED
  - consolidate educational data
  - participate in the process of educational regarding their respective zone
- f) South Gonder, North Wollo and West Gojam Education Desks
- perform the operational tasks mentioned above (under e) except the first function
- g) School
- follow up and control the daily administrative and instructional activities
  - set training arrangement through share of experiences among teacher
  - appraise the performance of teachers

*(Source: AREB, 2002)*

Appendix 4 በአዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ  
ድህረ ምረቃ ትምህርት ቤት

በደቡብ ወሎና ኦሮሚያ መስተዳድር ዞኖች ስር ለሚገኙ የአንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶች ማኔጅመንትና መምህራን እንዲሁም ለወረዳና ዞን ትምህርት አመራር አካላት የቀረበ

**መጠይቅ**

የዚህ መጠይቅ ዋና አላማ ከ1984 ዓ.ም በኋላ በኢትዮጵያ ውስጥ ባለው አጠቃላይ የለውጥ እንቅስቃሴ ስር ያልተማከለ የትምህርት አመራር በተለይም የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርት ከማስተዳደር ረገድ በተለያዩ አካላት መካከል ያለውን የስልጣን ክፍፍል የማስፈጸም አቅምና ያጋጠሙ ችግሮችን ለማጠቃለያ የሚረዳ መረጃ በማሰባሰብ ትምህርታዊ ጥናት ለማካሄድ ነው። ስለዚህ የጥናቱ ዓላማ ስኬታማነት እርስዎ በሚሰጡት መረጃ የሚወሰን መሆኑን ሳስገነዝቡ ለእያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ ትኩረት ሰጥተው ጊዜዎንም ሰውተው ለሚሰጡት ግልፅና እውነተኛ ምላሽ በቅድሚያ በማመስገን ነው።

ማሳሰቢያ

1. በመጠይቁ ላይ የመልስ ሰጪ ስም መፃፍ አያስፈልግም
2. ለእያንዳንዱ መጠይቅ ክፍል የቀረበውን መመሪያ መሰረት በማድረግ
  - ሀ. አማራጭ ላላቸው ጥያቄዎች በተሰጠው ክፍት ቦታ ላይ የ X ምልክት በማድረግ መልስዎን ያሳዩ።
  - ለ. በደረጃ ሊቀመጡ የተፈለጉት አማራጮች በተተወው ክፍት ቦታ ላይ አሐዝ/ቁጥር/ በመፃፍ ደረጃቸውን ያመልቱ።
  - ሐ. አጫጭር መልሶችና አስተያየትዎን ለማግኘት በቀረቡት ጥያቄዎች መሰረት ያለዎትን ሀሳብ ይግለፁ።
1. የመልስ ሰጪ አድራሻ
  - ሀ. ዞን ----- ለ. ወረዳ -----
2. ዕድሜ ----- ያታ ሀ. ወንድ  ለ. ሴት
3. የትምህርት ደረጃ -----
  - ሀ. 12ኛ እና ከዚያ በታች  ለ. 12 + III
  - ሐ. 12 + I  መ. ዲፕሎማ
  - ሠ. 12 + 3  ረ. የመጀመሪያ ዲግሪ
  - ሸ. ሁለተኛው ዲግሪና ከዚያ በላይ
4. የሰለጠነበት ሙያ ----- የስልጠና ጊዜ -----
5. አሁን የያዙት ሃላፊነት /ሥራ/ ----- 6. አሁን በያዙት ስራ ያገለገሉበት ጊዜ -----

7. ሀ/የት/ቤቱ ስም ----- ለ/የት/ቤቱ ደረጃ ----- ሐ/ የያዙት ክ/ጊዜ ብዛት -----  
 /ት/ቤተ ውስጥ ለማሰሩ ብቻ/

መ. ከማስተማር ውጪ ያልዎት ተጨማሪ ሀላፊነት -----

ሠ. ለተሰጠዎት ተጨማሪ ሐላፊነት ያለዎት ፍላጎት ዝቅተኛ  መካከለኛ

ከፍተኛ  ሸ. ለተጨማሪ ሐላፊነት ያለዎት ፍላጎት ዝቅተኛ ወይም መካከለኛ ከሆነ ምክንያቱ ምንድን ነው? -----

ረ. ለተጨማሪ ሐላፊነት የሚሰጥዎት ጥቅም፤ የለም  ዝቅተኛ   
 መካከለኛ  ከፍተኛ

8. ያልተማከለ የት/ት መዋቅር ከተዘረጋበት 1987ዓ.ም ጀምሮ የወረዳ ት/ቤቶች ጽ/ቤቶችና የአንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶች የፋይናንስ አቅም በመገምገም መልስዎን የX ምልክት በማድረግ ያመልክቱ

ተ.ቁ	የገንዘብ ምንጭ	የወረዳዎችና ት/ቤቶች የፋይናንስ አቅም									
		ወረዳ					ት/ቤት				
		የ ለ ም	ዝ ቅ ተ ኛ	መ ካ ከ ለ ኛ	ከ ፍ ተ ኛ	አ ላ ው ቅ ም	የ ለ ም	ዝ ቅ ተ ኛ	መ ካ ከ ለ ኛ	ከ ፍ ተ ኛ	አ ላ ው ቅ ም
ሀ	ከተማሪዎች ክፍያ የሚሰበሰብ										
ለ	ከውስጥ እንስቅቃሴ /ክለባት፣ ትምህርታዊ ፌስቲቫል፣ ከዎርክሾፕ ውጤቶች ሽያጭ፣ ወዘተ/										
ሐ	ክልል ወይም ዞን የሚመደበው መንግስታዊ በጀት										
መ	ሕዝብ በፍቃደኝነት የሚያዋጣው ገንዘብ										
ሰ	ለግንባታ ስራ የህዝብ ጉልበት										
ረ	የአርዳታ ሰጪ ድርጅቶች ድጋፍ										



9. እታች /ከተራ ቁጥር 1-13/ የተዘረዘሩትን የስራ ሃላፊነቶች ከማከናወን ረገድ የሚከተሉት አካላት የሚጫወቱት ሚና ምን ያህል ነው? መልስዎን ጨርሶ ተሳትፎ የለውም /የ/ ዝቅተኛ /ዝ/ ከፍተኛ /ከ/ አላውቅም/አ/ በሚሉት አማራጮች ስር የX ምልክት በማድረግ ያሳዩ።

ተቁ	የስራ ሃላፊነት	የተለያዩ አካላት ሚና																											
		የት/ት/ቢሮ				የዘን ት/ት/መምሪያ				የወረዳ ት/ቤቶች ጽ/ቤት				የቀበሌ መስተዳድር				የት/ቤት ማኔጅመንት				ዲፓርትመንት				መምህራ /በግል/			
		የ	ዝ	ከ	አ	የ	ዝ	ከ	አ	የ	ዝ	ከ	አ	የ	ዝ	ከ	አ	የ	ዝ	ከ	አ	የ	ዝ	ከ	አ	የ	ዝ	ከ	አ
1	የፋይናንስ ቁጥጥር																												
2	የት/ይዘት መወሰን																												
3	የክፍል ፈተናዎችን ይዘት መወሰን																												
4	የማስተማሪያ ዘዴን መምረጥ																												
5	የማስተማሪያ ቋንቋን መምረጥ																												
6	የመምህራን ትጥር																												
7	የመምህራን ዝውውር																												
8	የመምህራን ስልጠና																												
9	የእያንዳንዱን መምህር ስራ አፈጻጸም መገምገም																												
10	የተማሪዎች ከክፍል ክፍል ዝውውር /ፕሮፎሽን ፖሊሲ/																												
11	የር/መምህራን ስራ መቆጣጠር																												
12	የት/ቤቱን አጠቃላይ እንቅስቃሴ መቆጣጠር																												
13	አዲስ ት/ቤት መክፈት																												
14	የት/ቤት ደረጃ ማሳደግ																												





ሐ/ በመምህራንና ር/መምህራን የስራ አፈፃፀም ግምገማ ላይ የህዝባዊ ማህበራት ተሳትፎ በማ.መሰከት አስፈላጊነት ያልዎት አስተያየት ባጭሩ ይግለፁ

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 -----

17. እታች (ከተራ ቁጥር 1-9) የተዘረዘሩትን አስተዳደራዊ ተግባራት ከማከናወን ረገድ የወረዳ ማኔጅመንትና የአንኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶች ማኔጅመንት የሚያደርጉት እንቅስቃሴ ምን ያህል ነው?

ተ.ቁ	ተግባር/ሃላፊነት	የወረዳ ሚና					የት/ቤት ሚና				
		የ ለ ም	ዝ ቅ ተ ኛ	መ ካ ከ ለ ኛ	ከ ፍ ተ ኛ	አ ላ ው ቅ ም	የ ለ ም	ዝ ቅ ተ ኛ	መ ካ ከ ለ ኛ	ከ ፍ ተ ኛ	አ ላ ው ቅ ም
1	ት/ቤቶች ያላቸውን ሃብት በጋራ እዳጠቀሙ ንግግራም ማመቻቸትና ማስተባበር										
2	ተከታታይ ስ-ፐርሰኒንግና ድጋፍ መስጠት										
3	የሰው ሀይልና ተሳታፊነት በወቅቱ መመደብ (ማቅረብ)										
4	ብክነት (ብልሹት) ሳይፈጠር በፍጥነት መወሰን										
5	ፖሊሲዎችንና መመሪያዎችን በወቅቱ በማስተላለፍ ተፈፃሚነታቸውን ማሳጠፍ										
6	የአዳዲስ ት/ቤቶች (ተጨማሪ ክፍሎች) ግንባታ ሲወሰን ከተጠቃሚውና ከሚያስከትለው ወጭ የማመዛዘን ሁኔታ										
7	ክፍያን (ሽልማትን) ከተጨማሪ ስራ ውጤት ጋር የማገኘትና በወቅቱ የመፈፀም ሁኔታ										
8	በተላል ወጪ የሚገኙትን የአካባቢ ቁሳቁስ የመጠቀም ጥረት										
9	ህንፃዎችንና የትተት መሳሪያዎችን በወቅቱ ማስጠገን										

18. ከላይ የተጠቀሱትንና ሌሎችንም ተግባራት ለማከናወን የሚያስችል የማኔጅመንት አቅም  
 1/ በወረዳ ደረጃ ሀ/ በቂ ነው  ለ/ በቂ አይደለም   
 ሐ/ አቅሙ እያለ የተሰጠው ስልጣን አናሳ ነው  መ/ አላውቅም   
 2/ በት/ቤት ደረጃ ሀ/ በቂ ነው  ለ/ በቂ አይደለም   
 ሐ/ አቅሙ እያለ የተሰጠው ስልጣን አናሳ ነው  መ/ አላውቅም

19. የአዲስ የተምህርትና ስልጠና ፖሊሲ ተግባራዊነት ቀጥለው ከቀረቡት የአንደኛ ትምህርት ጉዳዮች አንጻር በመመዘን መልስዎን በደረጃ ያመልክቱ::

ተ.ቁ	ጉዳይ	ደረጃ			
		ዝቀተኛ	መካከለኛ	ከፍተኛ	አላውቅም
1	የአንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤት መስፋፋት ሀ/ በገጠር ለ/ በከተማ				
2	ተማሪዎች በትምህርት ቤት ውስጥና ከት/ቤት ውጪ ለኑሮአቸው በቀጥታ የሚጠቅም ተግባራዊ ት/ት እንዲያገኙ የተመቻቹ ንግግራሞች (መረሃግብሮች)				
3	የመንግስት ወጭ መቀነስ				
4	የአካባቢ (ቀበሌ) መሰተዳደር አዎንታዊ ተሳትፎና ድጋፍ				
5	ወላጆች በልጆቻቸው ትምህርት ያላቸው እርካታና ተሳትፎ				
6	በአፍ መፍቻ ቋንቋ የሚሰጠው ት/ት በተማሪዎች ውጤት ላይ የተጨማሪ ማሳደግ				
7	የመምህራን ብቃት (ችሎታ)				
8	የመምህራን ፅርካታ (የስራ ተነሳሽነት)				



Appendix 5-A

በአዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ  
ድህረ ምረቃ ትምህርት ቤት

ለአማራ ብሄራዊ ክልላዊ መንግስት  
የትምህርት ቢሮ ከፍተኛ አመራር አካላት  
የቀረበ ቃለ መጠይቅ

1. በአዲሱ የትምህርትና ስልጠና ፖሊሲ መሰረት ክልሎች ከተሰጣቸው ስልጣንና ሃላፊነቶች ውስጥ የአንደኛ ደረጃ ትምህርትን ማስፋፋትና ማስተዳደር ዋናው መሆኑ ይታወቃል። ይህንን ሃላፊነት ለመወጣት የት/ቢሮው (ክልሉ) ያለው አቅምና ከት/ሚ/ር ያሻው ወይም ያገኘው ድጋፍ ካለ ቢገለፅ
2. የክልሉ ት/ቢሮ ካለው ሃላፊነትና ስልጣን በመቀነስ ለዘን ት/መምሪያዎች፤ ለወረዳ ት/ቤቶች ፊ/ቤቶችና ለአንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶች ማኔጅመንት ውክልና ሰጥቷል? በውክልና የተሰጠ ጉዳዮችና መመዘኛዎች ምንድን ናቸው?
3. የክልሉ ት/ቢሮ ውክልና በሰጠባቸው ጉዳዮች የሚያደርገው ድጋፍና ቁጥጥር እንዴት ይገለጻል?
4. የአንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶች የማኔጅመንት አቅምና በየአካባቢው ልዩነት መሰረት የተራራቀ እንቅስቃሴና እድገት አለ ብለው ያምናሉ? ካለ ችግሩ እንዴት ይፈታል?
5. ተማሪዎች በአፍ መፍቻ ቋንቋቸው እንዲማሩ በተቀረፀው ካሪኩለም የክልሉ ት/ቢሮ ከአሮሚያ መስተዳድረ ክልል ት/ቢሮ፤ ከመምህራን ማሰልጠኛ ተቋማት፤ ከሚመለከታቸው የዞን ት/ት መምሪያ፤ ወረዳ ት/ቤቶች ፊ/ቤት፤ ከአንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶች ማኔጅመንት መምህራንና ከአካባቢው ህብረተሰብ ጋር የነበረው (ያለው) ቅንጅት ምን ይመስላል? ለተግባራዊነቱ የሚያስፈልጉ ቅደመዝግጅቶችና ቀጠይ እንቅስቃሴዎችስ እንዴት ይገለጻሉ?
6. ያልተማከለውን የትምህርት አስተዳደር ለመተግበር ያጋጠሙ ችግሮች ምንድን ናቸው?
7. እስከአሁን ድረስ በተደረገው እንቅስቃሴ የታዩ አዎንታዊ ለውጦች ቢገለፁ
8. ከወረዳው ት/ቤቶች ጽ/ቤትና የአካባቢ የመስተዳድር አካላት ሚና ጋር በማወዳደር የአንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶችን ሃላፊነትና ስልጣን ለማሳደግ የተያዘ እቅድ (የተጀመረ እንቅስቃሴ) አለ? እቅዱን ለማስፈፀም እንቅፋት ይሆናሉ ተብለው የተገመቱ ችግሮችስ (ከሰው ኃይል አቅምና ፍላጎት፤ ከማቴሪያል፤ ከገንዘብና ከት.ት ፖሊሲው አጠቃላይ እስተራተኛ አገገር) አሉ?

Appendix 5-B Regional Interviewees

1. Ato Tewodros Shewariget  
Head, Human Resources Department Amhara Region Education Bureau (AREB), Bahirdar.
2. Ato Ayele Birkie  
Leader, Formal Education program Unit,  
AREB, Bahirdar

**Appendix 6-A በአዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ**  
ድህረ ምረቃ ትምህርት ቤት

በአማራ ብሔራዊ ክልላዊ መንግስት በደቡብ ወለግ ኦሮሚያ መስተዳድር ዞኖች ውስጥ ለሚገኙ የቀበሌ መስተዳድር አካላትና የአንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤት የወላጆች ኮሚቴ አባላት የቀረበ

**ቃሰ-መጠይቅ**

1. በአዲስ ትምህርት ፖሊሲ ቀረባ፤ በተለይም የአንደኛ ደረጃን ትምህርት በአካባቢው (በተማሪዎች እና መፍቻ) ቋንቋ ለመስጠት በተዘጋጀው ካራኩለም ላይ የነበረውን ተሳትፎና በሂደት ላይ ያለውን አስተያየት ምንድን ነው? ተማሪዎች በአካባቢው ቋንቋ መማራቸው ያለው ተቀባይነትና ውጤታማነት በተመለከተ ምን ይመስለዎታል?
2. በተለያዩ አስተዳደራዊ ጉዳዮች (ለምሳሌ፤ በት/ቤት ግንባታ፤ የትምህርት ቤት መክፈቻና መዝገያ ጊዜ በመወሰን፤ በመምህራን ግምገማ፤ በር/መምህራን ሹመት፤ መማር የሚገባቸው ተማሪዎች ብዛትና የሚከፍሉት ገንዘብ በመወሰን ላይ ያለውን ተሳትፎና እርስዎ ለመሳተፍ የሚሹባቸው ጉዳዮች ቢገልፁ።
3. የአንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶችን ስራ ለማከናወን ወላጆችና የአካባቢው ህዝብ የሚያበረክቱት የጉልበት ድጋፍና የገንዘብ መዋጮ፤ ከት/ቤቱ ጋር በመቀራረብ የተማሪዎችን ባህሪ የመቆጣጠር ደረጃና በአጠቃላይ ለትምህርት የሚሰጠው ግምት ምን ያህል ነው?
4. የትምህርትን ስራ ለማቀድና ለማስፈፀም በተላለፉ ውሳኔዎች ላይ በተለያዩ አካላት (ለምሳሌ በወላጆች፤ በህዝብ፤ በተማሪዎች በመምህራን፤ በቀበሌ መስተዳድር አካላት በት/ት አመራር) መካከል አለመጣጣምና ተቃውሞ ተፈጥሮ ያውቃል? ካጋጠመ እረሰዎ (የወከልዎት አካል) ባለዎት ሃላፊነት የወሰዱዎቸው እርምጃዎች (የወሰኑቸው ውሳኔዎች) ቢገልፁ በወሰዱት የመፍትሄ እርምጃ ሳቢያስ የተከሰተ ተጨማሪ ችግር (ለምሳሌ ጊዜ መጓተት፤ ብክነትና ብልሽት፤ የተማሪዎች አድማ፤ የመምህራን ስራ መልቀቅ፤ ወዘተ) ነበር?
5. በአንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶች አመራርና በመምህራን ሙያ ብቃት ላይ ያለውን አስተያየት ምንድን ነው?
6. የት/ቤቶችን ስራ ለመደገፍ የቀበሌው ምክር ቤት (የወረዳ መስተዳድር አካል) ሚና እና የሚሰጠው ድጋፍ እንዴት ይገለጻል?

**Appendix 6-B Local Interviewees**

**1. Local Government Bodies (LGB)**

Name	Responsibility	Kebele	Woreda	Zone
Husen Mohammed	Social service executive	Cherisa	Kalu	SWAZ
Adem Seid	Chairman	Jerjero	"	"
Assaye Belay	Vice chairman	Derek Woyra	Desse Zuria	"
Adane Gebeyehu	Social service executive	Galessa	"	"
Sisay Baye	Social service executive	Jari	Tehuludere	"
Ali Mohammed	Chairman	Silula	"	"
Abdu Usman	Chairman	Hedo	Bati	ONAZ
Seid Mahammed	Chairman	Selewa	"	"
Zinabu Muhe	Social service executive	Kersa	"	"
Desalegn Mulat	Social service executive	Irensa	Dewa Chefa	"
Tahir Ali	Social service executive	Kelo	"	"
Degu Awetahegn	Secretary	Shekla	"	"

## 2. Members of School Parents' Committee

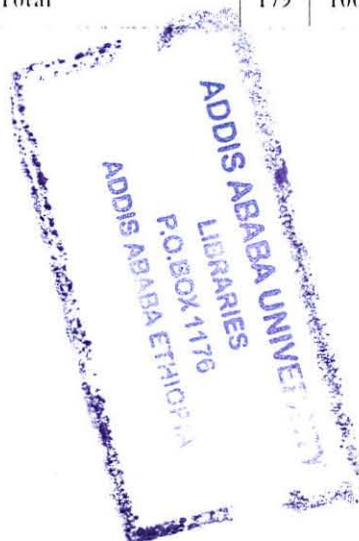
Name	School	Woreda	Zone
Muleta Ahmed	Cherisa	Kalu	SWAZ
Mulugeta Yimer	Jerjero	"	"
Getnet Melaku	Galessa	Desse Zuria	"
Ali Muhe	"	"	"
Scid Yusuf	Jari	Tehuludere	"
Masresha Getenet	"	"	"
Scid Yesin	Hedo	Bati	ONAZ
Mohammed Ahmed	Kersa	"	"
Zeyneba Hussen	"	"	"
Ferej Jidah	Selewa	"	"
Sultan Habib	Irensa	Dewa Chefa	"
Asres Lemma	"	"	"
Aziza Hayat	Kelo	"	"
Seleshi Haji	"	"	"
Kedir Ismail	Shekla	"	"
Baye Habtu	"	"	"

**APPENDIX 7      General Characteristics of the Respondents**

Dimension	South Wollo Administrative Zone (SWAZ)										Oromiya Nationality Administrative Zone (ONAZ)										
	ZEOs		WEOs		Principals		Vice principals		Teachers		ZEOs		WEOs		Principals		Vice principals		Teachers		
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	
Sex																					
Male	2	100	8	100	11	100	13	100	180	75	3	100	4	100	8	100	7	100	39	68	
Female	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	59	25	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	32	
<b>Total</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>239</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>100</b>	
Age																					
Below 20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
20-29	-	-	1	12.5	5	46	7	53.8	157	65.7	1	33	-	-	6	75	7	100	35	61.4	
30-49	2	100	6	75	4	36	5	38.5	64	26.8	2	67	3	75	2	25	-	-	17	29.8	
≥ 50	-	-	1	12.5	2	18	1	7.7	18	7.5	-	-	1	25	-	-	-	-	5	8.8	
<b>Total</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>239</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>100</b>			
Educational Level																					
12+TTI	-	-	-	-	6	56	12	92	207	87	-	-	-	-	6	75	7	100	39	68	
12+1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	8	5	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	5	
Diploma	-	-	6	75	3	27	-	-	27	11	1	33	3	75	2	25	-	-	13	23	
12+3	-	-	-	-	2	18	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	4	
1 <sup>st</sup> degree	2	100	2	25	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	67	1	25	-	-	-	-	-	-	
2 <sup>nd</sup> degree & above	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
<b>Total</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>239</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>100</b>	

## APPENDIX 8 Teaching load

Weekly periods	SWAZ										ONAZ									
	Teachers		Department heads		Unit leaders		Principals		Vice-principals		Teachers		Department heads		Unit leaders		Principals		Vice-principals	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1-5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	12.5	-	-
6-10	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	10	-	-	-	-
11-15	-	-	-	-	3	9.1	2	18.2	2	15.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	25	1	14
16-20	4	2.2	2	7.4	4	11.2	-	-	1	7.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
21-25	3	1.7	3	11.1	2	6.1	2	18.2	1	7.7	5	12.2	2	33.3	1	10	2	25	1	14
26-28	12	6.7	6	22.2	3	9.9	1	9.1	2	15.4	9	21.9	1	16.7	3	30	-	-	2	29
29-30	155	86.6	16	59.3	21	63.7	6	54.5	7	53.8	27	65.9	3	50	5	50	3	37.5	3	43
Greater than 30	5	2.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Total</b>	<b>179</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>41</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>100</b>



## APPENDIX 9 Managerial Responsibilities

No	Item	Response	SWAZ		ONAZ		Total	
			No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Managerial responsibilities assigned to teachers	Department head	27	11	6	11	33	11
		Unit leader	33	14	10	18	43	15
		Home room teacher	221	93	46	81	267	90
		Coordinator of pedagogical center	10	4	4	7	14	6
		Supervisor	1	0.4	-	-	1	0.3
		Club Coordinator						
		Member of school discipline committee	15	6	5	9	20	7
		Member of parent-teacher union	7	3	3	5	10	3
2	Benefits gained from performing the managerial responsibilities	Nothing	169	71	40	70	209	71
		Low	40	17	17	30	57	19
		Medium	20	8	-	-	20	7
		High	10	4	-	-	10	3
		<b>Total</b>	<b>239</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>296</b>	<b>100</b>
3	Interest of teachers in the managerial responsibilities	Low	126	52.7	43	57	169	57
		Medium	102	42.7	13	39	115	39
		High	11	4.6	1	4	12	4
		<b>Total</b>	<b>239</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>296</b>	<b>100</b>

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### APPENDIX 10-A

በእርስዎ አስተያየት ወላጆች በምን ዓይነት ርዕስ ጉዳዮች ላይ ቢገመገሙ ይሻላል? ለሚለው ጥያቄ በዕሁፍ ከተሰጡ መልሶች በከፊል።

በት/ቤት/መምህራን/ መላሾች የተሰጡ አስተያየቶች

- የመምህራንን ባህሪ በተመለከተ
- መምህራን በት/ቤት ውስጥ በሚያደርጉት አጠቃላይ እንቅስቃሴ
- መምህራን ከት/ቤት ውጪ በሚኖራቸው ማህበራዊ ግንኙነት በተመለከተ
- ስለመምህራን ዕውቀት ስለሌላቸው በምንም ዓይነት ጉዳይ መገምገም የለባቸውም
- ወላጆች የልጆቻቸውን ባህሪ የት/ት ሁኔታን ብቻ መሰረት አድርገው ቢገመገሙ ይሻላል
- መምህራን በባለሙያ ብቻ ይገምገሙ

በወረዳና የዞን ት/ቤት ዕ/ቤቶች መላሾች የተሰጡ አስተያየቶች

- በመምህራን ባህሪ ብቻ
- የመምህራንና የተማሪዎች ግንኙነት ላይ
- መምህራን በማህበራዊ ኑሮ ላይ ያላቸው ግንኙነት
- መምህራን ለአካባቢው ህብረተሰብ የሚያደርጉ አስተዋዕኔ
- መምህራን በስራቸው ላይ የሚያሳዩት ጥንካሬ
- መምህራን በስዓቱ ገብተው በስዓቱ መውጣታቸውን በመቆጣጠር

### APPENDIX 10-B

ት/ቤቶች የተሰጣቸውን ሀላፊነት ስልጣን በብቃት እንዳይወጡ እንቅፋት ሆነዋል የሚሉዋቸውን ዋና ዋና ችግሮች ቢገልፁ ለሚለው ጥያቄ የተሰጡ መልሶች

በት/ቤት (መምህራን) መላሾች የተሰጡ አስተያየቶች

- የአካባቢ አስተዳደር ጣልቃ ገብነት
- ከአቅም በላይ ጊዜ መጣበብ
- ጥናትና ምርምር አላደረጋችሁም በማለት ከአድገት ማስቀረት
- የት/ቤት ስልጣን ማነስ
- የኑሮ ችግር
- የር/መምህራን ጫና
- የር/መምህራን ችሎታ ማነስ
- በቂ ክፍያ ባለመኖሩ
- ወረዳ የሚያሳየው ወገናዊነት
- ለመምህራን በቂ ስልጠና አለመኖር
- ወላጆች ለት/ት ደንታ ቢስ በመሆናቸው
- ወላጆች በማያውቁት መምህራን ስለሚገመገሙ
- ት/ቤቶች ገንዘብና አስፈላጊ የት/ት መሳሪያ ስለሌላቸው
- ደመወዝ በወቅቱ አይከፍልም
- ያለምንም አበል ለስብሰባ መጠራት
- በየጊዜው ር/መምህራን ስለሚቀያየሩ

በወረዳና ዞን ት/ቤቶች ጽ/ቤቶች መላሾች የተሰጡ አስተያየቶች

- የሰው ሃይልና ገንዘብ እጥረት
- የር/መምህራን ብቃት ማነስ
- የአካባቢው ህብረተሰብ ትብብር አለመኖሩ
- የፖለቲካ ጣልቃ ገብነት
- ሀላፊነት በሙያ ሳይሆን በሽመት መፈፀም
- በየጊዜው የሀላፊዎች መቀያየር
- የት/ቤት መሳሪያዎች እጥረት
- የመምህራን የማስተማር ብቃት በእጅጉ ማነስ

ን ቢጠቀሱ ለሚለው

ምክንያቱም ስራ

ሂል ጥያቄ የተሰጡ

በከፊል



Feb. 10, 2003

EdAd/05/95

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to inform you that Allene Hagos Gashae is a Graduate student majoring in Educational Planning and Management. He is working on his thesis entitled The Practices and Problems of Localized Management of Primary Schools in South Wollo & Oromiya Adm. Zones. May I request you to provide him with the necessary information and allow him to use your documentary sources pertaining to the topic.

Thank you

Girmaw Abebe

Girmaw Abebe, Head,

Educational Planning and Management

