

**THE RESOURCES CONTRIBUTION OF LOCAL AND EXTERNAL
NGOs IN PRIMARY EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS
IN SOUTHERN NATIONS, NATIONALITIES AND
PEOPLES' REGIONAL GOVERNMENT (SNNPR)**

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of this study was to investigate the role of local and external non governmental organizations (LNGOs and ENGOs) and its resources contribution to the primary education development projects (PEDPs) in Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples' Regional Government. To conduct this study, a descriptive survey was employed. For this purpose samples are taken from 3 zones, 7 woredas, and 41 schools. The research study involved two categories of sample population: NGOs and GOs. Questionnaire survey, interview, documents, and personal observation were the main instruments used to collect the data. Data analysis was made by using statistical tools such as percentage, chi-square and rank order correlation coefficient to identify whether there are differences and agreements in the judgement of the respondents regarding the various variables on the role of NGOs in PEDPs.

The results obtained suggested that both the LNGOs and ENGOs are involved in providing assistance programmes for different developmental projects implemented in the region. Nevertheless, it was found that there is high concentration of NGOs and their projects on the previous drought prone areas without analyzing the current problems of the region. The findings indicated that the majority of the NGOs gave more emphasis to the projects on capital investment having only limited amount of their projects spent on recurrent expenditures. Based on the need assessment of the communities, assistance was channeled through the local government, the NGOs, and through handing over operational projects to the respective beneficiaries. However, it was found that NGOs could never encouraged the local community to choose the type of assistance/service they need in terms of their priorities in their respective areas.

The study further revealed that though efforts have been made in setting up coordinating committees for organizing the various activities of NGOs in PEDPs, they were entangled with many difficulties and did not make an effort to bring about close work relationships among key power actors. It was also found that there is no formal relationships among the NGOs and never share information regarding their intervention activities. The results obtained generally indicated that all the problems cited by the findings are closely related to lack of coordination which the local government has not incorporated NGOs into its policies and structures; and NGOs on their part are not organized to help the local government to further collaboration. On the other hand, even though attempts have been observed to monitor and evaluate educational projects, they were concentrated more on monitoring physical dimension or evaluation of infrastructure projects and ignore the sustainability, social dimension, and impact of expenditures. In addition, it was observed from the study that there are significant differences among the NGOs' project performance in different target areas of the region. Finally, based on the findings and conclusions, recommendations were made to address the problem under study.

Acronyms

ADA	Amhara Development Association
BESO	Basic Education System Overhaul
CBOs	Community Based Organizations
CSAP	Community School Activities Programme
DONGOs	Donor-Organized Non Governmental Organizations
DPPC	Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Commission
DPPB	Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Bureau
ENGOS	External Non Governmental Organizations
EPRDF	Ethiopian Peoples' Revolutionary Democratic Front
ETP	Education and Training Policy
GDA	Guraghe Development Association
GDP	Guraghe Development Programme
GOs	Government Organizations
GONGOs	Government-Organized Non Governmental Organizations
HAD	Hadiya Development Association
HDI	Human Development Index
ILO	International Labour Union
INGOs	International Non Governmental Organizations
KAT	Kenbatta Alaba Tenbaro (Zone)
LNGOs	Local Non Governmental Organizations
LVOs	Local Voluntary Organizations
MOE	Ministry of Education
NDAs	Nationalities Development Associations
NFE	Non Formal Education
NGOs	Non Governmental Organizations
NNGOs	Northern Non Governmental Organizations
NPDPM	National Policy on Disaster Prevention and Management
ODA	Oromo Development Association
PEDPs	Primary Education Development Projects
PHRDP	Policy on Human Resources Development Project
REB	Regional Education Bureau
REC	Regional Executive Committee
REST	Relief Society of Tigray
RPEDB	Regional Planning and Economic Development Bureau
RRC	Relief and Rehabilitation Commission
SAC	School Administration Committee
SDA	Sidama Development Association
SDAs	School Development Agents
SDP	Sidama Development Programme
SEPDA	Southern Ethiopia Peoples' Development Association
SIDA	Swedish International Development Authority

SNGOs	Southern Non Governmental Organizations
SNNPR(G)	Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples' Regional (Government)
TGE	Transitional Government of Ethiopia
TTIs	Teacher Training Institutes
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UPE	Universal Primary Education
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WEO	Woreda Education Office
WLI	World Learning Incorporated
ZEC	Zonal Executive Committee
ZED	Zonal Education Department
ZPEDD	Zonal Planning and Economic Development Department

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CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS APPROACH

1.1. Background of the Problem

The history of economic growth and development in education are strongly interrelated to one another. Several scholars explain that no country has scored sound economic growth without sound development in its education (PHRDP, 1996:1). That is why, they argue, education has become an important sector and national life of several countries. Thus, large amount of public funds are consumed by educational institutes to perform their activities. In other words, human, material, and financial resources play an important role to develop and enhance the educational system of a country.

Generally speaking, educational projects are mostly financed by national budgets: the state budget in countries where education management is centralized, regional or local budgets elsewhere. However, these projects take up only a limited share of educational budgets (Magnen, 1991:81). This is particularly true of many developing countries which are crushed by heavy external debt, slow economic growth, and fast demographic expansion. These difficulties have given a new impetus to the search for alternative sources of financing for educational projects.

Hence, there are several sources for financing education at different levels in developing countries. The most important type of non-budgetary resource for the funding of educational projects is the collective effort of local communities. In some countries, local communities have contributed to the costs of school construction and other projects through self-help efforts and donations in kind. However, such projects are often impossible to implement without resorting to external sources of financing. In this regard, the very nature of education needs a combined efforts of various individuals, organizations, national and international involvement.

Accordingly, owing to their inadequate resources, many countries approach external sources for financing part of their educational investments and to procure necessary foreign currency. According to Magnen (1991:86-87), the origin of such aid may be a state (bilateral aid) or an international organization or community of states (multilateral aid), or a private sector, foundation or other NGOs (private aid). Based on this, many NGOs have been operating

particularly in developing countries in the last two decades and contribute to development by providing different assistance or services.

Regarding this point, Edwards and Hulme (1994:7) indicated, the new emphasis on NGOs (at grassroots level) requires that NGOs recognize the need to analyse how they can progress from improving local situations on a small scale to influence the wider systems that create and reinforce global poverty. To accomplish the tasks the existing relationship of NGOs, including donor-recipient relationship for the cause of education in any country should be based on mutual understanding of both parties.

This collaboration may involve the question of need identification plus the administration of the projects after the aid is obtained. For that reason, several multilateral and bilateral donor agencies as well as a number of NGOs are currently participating in the education sector. However, though great its potential, in most developing countries, primary education is underdeveloped; in-service or teacher training programmes are poorly designed and equipped; and the percentage of unqualified or insufficiently qualified teachers is high.

If we further examine the existing school environment rate, Ethiopia is one of the countries with the lowest participation ratio at the various levels of education in the world. The gross enrolment ratios as a proportion of the official school age population are 34.6 and 30.1 per cent for grades 1-6, and 1-8 respectively with a greater disparities among regions and urban-rural areas (MOE, 1997:1-2). The educational systems are also suffering from low educational supplies and scarce resources. As a result, educational systems are still on a sluggish developing.

Thus, Ethiopia is currently restructuring its educational system with the intent of providing a higher quality and more relevant education to a greater percentage of its population. Besides, because of the recent rehabilitation and reconstruction work the number of school and educational facilities increased to some extent in the last few years. However, the pace of improvements can easily be superseded and the recent gains will be lost unless this momentum of expansion of school facilities is kept up accordingly.

Effective solution of the problem requires, therefore, clear understanding and intelligent participation of all, i.e., communities, LINGOs and ENGOS, and the government at large. Thus, these strategies have to be matched by specific measures and programmes aimed at

PEDPs if the positive role of local and external NGOs and the necessary relationships are to be realized.

Viewed together, all the above reasons and a number of questions pertaining to the above factors justify the need for resources of local and external NGOs in primary education development projects. This study is, therefore, intended to answer some of the questions outlined above and contribute to primary educational development project studies in Ethiopia.

1.2. Statement of the problem

The quality of education can significantly be affected by the quality of school projects and the learning environment in general. However, due to shortage of material and human resources, developing countries could not by themselves stand continuous rise of educational costs and the necessary qualified personnel required for the sectors.

In response to this problem, it is evident nowadays that different local and external NGOs are participating in providing educational services in different developing countries. The rise in number, scale of operation and importance of NGOs in the development field has been accompanied by increasing interest in their organization, management, strategies, and on the general effectiveness of these NGOs and have been studied extensively by Drabek (1987); Cernea (1988); Clark (1991); Magnen (1991); Oakley and Others (1991); and Hallak (1995).

In Ethiopia, however, despite the recognition of the contribution of NGOs in development, almost no study has been made both by the Ethiopian government and local and external NGOs on how to tap the grassroots and participating potential for educational development projects at the local level. Many of the studies conducted in our country focused only on a certain aspect of the role of NGOs in other developmental projects.

For instance, the study made by Mulugeta Abera (1994) based on the role of NGOs in urban development planning whose recommendations are mainly focused to benefit the existing metropolitan centres. The study made by Tegegne Teka (1994) is on rural development and focused on the effect of international NGOs in rural development, not specifically on the educational development projects. Another study by Abraham Alaro (1995) undertaken on the role of NGOs in the administrative development focused on NGO and government relationships.

A recent study made by Tadelle Hagos (1996) on the role played by multilateral assistance to Ethiopian Education attributed the problem of co-ordination on both donors and recipient sides. This research emphasizes on the general educational activities not specifically on the primary educational development projects.

In general, very little is known about the practice of local and external NGOs in primary educational development projects. Especially their potential roles in primary education projects, degree of involvement in the local community, their strategies and evaluative schemes have not been recognized with sufficient concern.

In relation to educational support inputs, the new education policy also lays down the basis for an active participation of development organizations in education thus creating an interactive mechanism between theory and practice (TGE, 1994). More over, the government has given priority particularly to primary education as outlined in its various policy statements. However, the policy does not provide specific guidelines of how and where donor organizations can contribute to the education sector. Primary education in Ethiopia, at the same time, faces many problems both in terms of quantity and quality of provision. Hence, it requires an appropriate direction to set a new process in motion and change the alarming situation.

Therefore, from the above statements and other reasons, the PEDPs is an area which requires innovative approaches and the participation of different sectors of the community. In this regard, local and external NGOs can play an important role. For that reason, different local and external NGOs are participating in financing and administering different educational programmes and projects to meet the pressing educational needs of the country. Especially after the fall of the Derg reign in 1991, a number of local and external NGOs are participating in different developmental activities of the country. According to the report of Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Commission (DPPC), there are more than 278 Associations and NGOs, where 222 are local and international NGOs, participating in the different sectors of the country. Among these, more than 75 NGOs are involving in education sector and related activities in different regions of the country. Nevertheless, so far no concrete study was made on the nature, magnitude, strategies, managerial capacity, and policy intervention to be used as a basis for the contribution of NGOs in the primary education development projects.

1.3. The Purposes of the Study

The major purpose of this study is, therefore, to investigate, through an extensive review of related literature and empirical evidence, the role of local and external NGOs and their resource contribution to the development and expansion of primary education projects. In addition, the study is aimed at examining, through field investigation, the manner in which the specific variables related to management of these NGOs, their efficiency in the co-ordination of their activities, and sustainability of educational projects against the achievement for further development.

With this in mind, the specific objectives of the study are the following.

1. How NGOs in the study area are developed and organized, and what type of functions, strategies, intervention programmes do they perform to increase educational participation in primary educational development projects ?
2. What are the degree or level of involvement of the NGOs, the local government and the community in all phases of the primary educational projects ?
3. How effective and capable are the NGOs in serving the education sector and in making efforts to integrate their projects with regional planning efforts to effectuate the co-operative efforts of these NGOs ?
4. What are the type and the extent of existing evaluative schemes to determine the need, adequacy and relevance of the projects to meet the country's educational objectives ?
5. What managerial skills are needed for facilitating efficient administration and coordination of these NGOs that should be in place to enhance the capacity building in different areas for implementation of educational programmes ?

1.4. Significance of the study

In a country like Ethiopia where disaster is intrinsically linked to the general socio-economic and political features, the efforts of local and external NGOs have greater roles in the economy of the country in general and in the education sector in particular. In view of the constraints of financial, physical, and human resources in the sector, the need to make most

effective use of whatever resources are available is urgent. The rates of these NGOs, however, are frequently being challenged by different ambiguous policy framework of the government.

Thus, this situation requires different mechanisms and some other measures specifically applicable to the sector for co-ordinating the activities of various departments, groups, and individuals who contribute to its execution, so as to achieve the established objectives. Among these, a clear definition of responsibilities participating agencies as well as adequate guidelines for each of them need to be required to implement the project objectives effectively. This paper, therefore, hopes to contribute solutions and creates a stage for discussions and develops more effective educational planning strategies aimed at defining tasks to be taken ahead.

From the policy point of view, its goal is to provide information to both the local and external NGOs and the regional educational bureau in order to craft policy regarding the NGOs intervention programmes and participation which will expand educational opportunities, especially for rural children and encourage community participation in educational projects. It is, therefore, the task of this study to clarify the problem and associated phenomena in such a way that it will enable the policy makers and development planners to find a solution in the project operations of the NGO.

The study also seeks to contribute better theoretical understanding of the impact of different local and external NGOs on the development of education in general, and primary education in particular. By doing so, this study is believed to open the way for subsequent activities touching on more varied aspects of the field under study.

Generally, for these and other reasons, proper evaluation of the type and extent of existing relationships between NGOs and their impacts in PEDPs and the potentials for enhancing appropriate patterns of linkages for the mutual development of the NGOs and the region is believed to help planners and policy makers at different levels of the country.

1.5. Delimitation of the Study

Resource contribution of NGOs has a number of dimensions in terms of human, material, technical, and financial assistance on a specified sector of any developmental project. However, as employed in this study, the operational dimension of the role of NGOs was

delimited to the impact of NGOs in primary education sub-sector development projects in Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples' Regional Government (SNNPR).

It is also important to note that the study mainly attempts to validate NGOs development practices at the local level, i.e., in what condition and status do we find the conventional claims of NGOs like working with the grassroots level, identifying the felt needs of the community, formulating and implementing participatory development, empowering the community, being effective and efficient helping to create sustainable development activities in the region.

The concerned NGOs for the study were selected according to their level of involvement and proximity to the primary education development projects found in the region. To make it more manageable, the scope of the study was focused on seven NGOs (3 ENGOs and 4 LNGOs), which the writer assumes fulfil the above criteria, namely :

1. WLI - USAID/ BESO Project, under CSAP;
2. SDP and GDP - Irish Aid Development Projects;
3. SEPDA : SDA, HDA, and GDA (Local NGOs found in the region).

1.6. Limitation of the study

The most serious limitation to the study was the difficulty to get available data, accompanied by the lack of immediate accessibility to the educational authorities and NGO representatives subjected to this study.

Data on the amount of resources contributed by NGOs, information about their projects, and other related information in the education sector in general and PEDPs in particular in different levels of the education sector of the region were not available. Such problems were observed not only in government offices but also was manifested among different levels of NGO officials.

More over, some of the technical offices in higher levels of government, particularly in REB, did not have update information even on the number of NGOs participated in education sector, let alone to know their projects executed by NGOs in their sphere of administration, though they are the sole concerned, responsible and approved project sites to the executing

bodies. In some instances, few educational authorities at the regional level were reluctant and at times suspicious to give available information regarding the participation of NGOs in the region. However, technical expertise found at RPEDB and its branch at zonal level more often cooperate and have had relatively full information regarding this issues. Nevertheless, even the data obtained from these government organizations still suffer from the limitation of inclusive information that unfold the number of NGOs, type or kind of assistance, and their total projects in the region's overall development programmes and in particular to PEDPs.

Due to these problems, the researcher was not able to collect the data within the planned time frame making the analysis a much difficult task even for submitting the first draft copy of the study to the advisor on time. This in turn affected the study from being deep and exhaustive. Shortage of time and money was also other limitation encountered by the researcher during the study which hindered to conduct the study in depth.

1.7. Research Methodology and Sampling Procedure

1.7.1. Research Methodology

For the purpose of this study, a descriptive method of research was employed on the assumption that it could help to reveal the existing situation of the role of LNGOs, ENGOs and their resources contribution to the PEDPs.

1.7.2. Sampling Procedure and Sample Population

The study was conducted in three zones of SNNPR: Sidama, Hadiya, and Guraghe. All were deliberately selected based on purposive and availability sampling procedure because these are the areas where the participation rates and engagement of the concerned NGOs in the primary education are found. Thus, from each zone two woredas, in case of Guraghe three, were selected and totally 7 woredas were included in the study using the same technique so as to include woredas in which the concerned NGOs operate in PEDPs and the number of projects executed by NGOs were also considered in this regard.

Then, in addition to the seven woredas' offices, 41 schools were selected among these woredas using availability sampling procedures so as to include all PEDPs available in the woredas; and to some extent purposive sampling was also employed to include the PEDPs based on the duration of the NGOs operating in the respective areas (for the respective schools, woredas and zones subject to the study, please refer annex one and two).

Based on this, the necessary information for this study was obtained from two groups of respondents. The first group involved NGO employees at the regional or zonal head offices and field workers (SDAs, typically refer to CSAP) at the woreda and school level. The second group consisted of government employees found at the regional head bureaux (REB and RPEDB), zone departments, woreda offices, and at school level.

The respondents from each group were selected by purposive sampling procedure so as to include individuals with related work experience. Accordingly, the respondents subject to this study include:

- From the NGOs side - project managers, education or training experts, and monitoring sections of the organization.
- From REB - bureau head; educational programme department coordinator; planning, programming and project department head and expert; primary education unit head.
- At ZED and WEO - office heads; educational programme unit heads; administration and finance unit heads; planning, programming and project unit heads (and expert at zonal level); and educational supervision unit heads and/or primary education sub-unit heads.
- At school level - school principals; vice principals, as well as SAC and/or teacher representatives.

In general, a total of 199 respondents: 167 government employees - 5 from REB, 16 from ZED, 32 from WEO, and 114 at school level as well as 32 NGO employees filled in and returned the questionnaire prepared for this study. At the same time, 7 NGO's and 38 of government employees in education sector were interviewed. In addition to this, interview was also conducted with 7 government employees in RPEDB and its branches at zonal level working as NGO-desk and education section experts

1.7.3. Procedures and Instruments of Data Collection

In the process of data collection, questionnaire survey, interview, document analysis, and personal observation were used in the study.

A set of survey questionnaire was prepared to gather data from the officials working in the concerned NGOs and government employees ranging from REB to school level. Both respondents from the side NGOs and REB filled in the questionnaire prepared in English; while government employees of ZED to school level filled in the questionnaire after being

translated to Amharic. Based on this, the questionnaire administered to each respondent of the two groups and the items in the questionnaire were almost similar; from the total of 69 open ended and closed items, 8 items were not included in the questionnaire administered for zonal to school level (see Annex 3).

To get further information, interview was conducted with those in charge of the PEDPs (both from NGOs and GOs) in order to identify linkage patterns, general trends, and problems of these NGOs in their resources contribution to this sub-sector. For this purpose, both structured and unstructured interview methods were used to collect the necessary data from the respective interviewees (see Annex 4). In addition to this, information from documents found in offices of the concerned NGOs and GOs, particularly from RPEDB and its departments at zonal level, were used in the analysis of the study. To supplement those official statistical data and documents, personal observation was also conducted by the researcher in the target areas.

1.7.4. Method of Data Analysis

A number of statistical tools have been developed by many authorities to measure different variables in various research activities. Among the various statistical techniques, in analysing the findings of this study, percentage, chi-square, and rank order coefficient of correlation were used so as to identify significant difference and agreement of the respondents of the two groups regarding the various variables in the judgements of the respondents on the trends and resource contribution of the concerned NGOs in primary education development projects.

1.8. Definition of Terms Used

Local Community - is a local group action, where people join in a limited geographic space on the basis of common purpose, to carry out specific tasks, the link between them may be where they live, they work, their ethnic background or other factors which people have in common (Dey and Westendorff, 1996:266).

Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) - are non-profit entities that provide services to members or client groups; and they include grassroots organizations such as community groups, religious organizations, associations, cooperatives, and private development organizations (Webb and Others, 1995:8).

Participatory Approach - are designs, procedures and methods of planning, implementation and evaluation that are built upon the active involvement of the would-be beneficiaries of programmes and projects (Bhola, 1992:303).

Programme - refers to a series of planned activities with a broader scope than a project (Magnen, 1991:15).

Project - is a set of investment and of other planned activities aimed at achieving specific objectives within a predetermined time-frame and budget (Magnen, 1991:14).

Resources - in educational context, are the vital inputs in terms of material or any abstract quality needed to effectively conduct instructional activities at all levels of the educational system (Mbamba, 1992:152).

1.9. Organization of the Study

This study has four chapters. Chapter one deals with the problem and its approach which embodies; background of the problem, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitation of the study, research methodology and sampling procedure, definition of terms used, and organization of the study. Chapter two focuses on the review of related literature. The third chapter treats the presentation and analysis of the findings. The last chapter deals with the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Understanding the NGO Sector

The term “NGO” implies a number of things and it can be used in a narrow and wider sense depending on the situation. It encompasses a broad array of different organizations varying enormously according to their purpose, philosophy, sectoral expertise, and scope of activities. In connection to this, Gary (1996:151) stated that like other development jargon, the term “NGO” is so ambiguous, extensively defined - overused and abused - that it could be potentially meaningless, for it does not define the phenomenon empirically.

As a result, there is lack of agreement on what they should be called. Several definitions are given by different authors, and none of the definitions are identical and widely accepted that it may be regarded as authoritative for providing a standard scientific definition. Therefore, due to diversity in the nature, origin, objective, and performance of NGOs, they are known by different names in different places. Nevertheless, for the common understanding it is advisable to review here some of the following definitions of NGOs given by different authorities.

In the words of Frantz (1987:128) NGOs are formal organizations, emerge when a group of people organize themselves into a social unit that was established with the explicit objective of achieving certain ends and formulating resources to govern the relations among the members of the organization and the duties of each member. According to Thompson (1990:18) and Moser (1993:191) NGOs are organizations that are formed by people who have a common goal and cooperate on voluntary basis to achieve their common interest out of the state or inter governmental structures, and are not directly at the service of governments or other agencies; with their own priorities and programmes they plan their independent activities, but can assist programmes started by governments.

As defined by Carroll in Howes (1997:821), NGOs are defined as professionally staffed, non-governmental agencies, which seek to aid constituencies external to themselves, and are not directly accountable to their intended beneficiaries. Furthermore, Bebbington (1997:1756) defines NGOs as private, professionally staffed, non-membership and intermediary development organizations; found on the basis of a commitment to an alternative, more

democratized and inclusive development; created on the grounds that “popular organizations were too weak (or too repressed)” to be able to carry forward alternative development strategies.

Regarding NGOs in Ethiopian context, DPPC in NPDPM (1995:122) defines NGOs as a ‘humanitarian private organization which, using its own resources, participate in project activities with a view to join in the government’s effort to eliminate poverty.’

To conclude this portion, from the above definitions one can understand that NGOs are any of those organizations which are voluntary, private, non-profit organizations; and whose principal aims are to alleviate poverty and suffering, promote the interests of the poor, based on their areas of function, scope, origin, and so on.

2.1.1. Classification of NGOs

NGOs, as a sector of society, are a diverse entity operating under different paradigms with a diverse range of interests, activities, and perspectives on development issues. At the same time, other types of umbrella organizations exist that represent groups of NGOs with common development, ideological, religious, or other affiliations. Regarding this point, World Bank (1996:158) stated that in the development field, NGOs range from the large charities based in developed countries to community-based self- help groups in developing countries. To Padron (1987:70) for instance, organizations such as research institutions, professional associations, trade unions, chambers of commerce, youth organizations, religious institutions, senior citizens’ associations, tourist bodies, private foundations, political parties, Zionist organizations, funding or development - international and indigenous - agencies, and any other organization of a non-governmental nature situate under the umbrella of “non-governmental organizations”.

From the above clarifications one can infer that NGOs encompass many things and all differ from each other and from their equivalents in different countries. Hence, in order to identify and know what is specific about taxonomy of NGOs, one has to compare and contrast them to other organizations. Accordingly, to understand the taxonomy of NGOs, first it is important to be aware of the context in which they operate, their institutional features, their relations with other agencies, and their achievements, in the form of the development programmes and projects which they carry out (Padron, 1987:71).

For that reason, different criteria are applied by different authorities to classify NGOs with variety of methods. At the generic level, most scholars in the field categorize NGOs as Southern and Northern to refer to national and international NGOs respectively based on the country of the NGO's origin (Elliott, 1987:57).

At specific level, Padron (1987:69-71) classified NGOs into three clear and distinct categories: (1) the Non Governmental Development Organizations (NGDOs: local or national NGOs); (2) the Grassroots Organizations (GROs - beneficiaries or target groups); (3) the International Development Cooperation Institutions (IDCIs - funding agencies, who play a supportive role).

According to Moser (1993:193) NGOs are identified by their:

1. Institutional location - local, national, and international levels.
2. Organizational composition :
 - Donor Organizations - those of international nature involved in donating.
 - Service Providing Organizations - national NGOs involved in providing services to those at grassroots level.
3. Activities of NGOs - those involved in health and education, environment, emergency relief, research, and in development in general.

Gary (1996:51) tries to classify NGOs by combining categorizations provided by Bratton (1989:571) and Fowler (1992:8) into four main types as follows.

1. Community-Based Organizations(CBOs) - are small and intimate, often village level; run by the members themselves and relying primarily on locally-generated resources.
2. Service or Intermediary NGOs - are registered organizations with paid staff which provide social services to beneficiary groups or 'clients' often CBOs.
3. Intermediary NGOs - are increasingly becoming involved in advocacy and policy work. Membership NGOs, while professional, providing services and employing staff; owned by those who should benefit from the services that the organization provides.
4. International Relief and Development NGOs - are foreign organizations, such as OXFAM or Save the Children, with 'large professional staffs, field officers in many countries, and world-wide budgets which compare in size with those of the smaller governments in Africa'.

Similarly, in Ethiopian context, DPPC in NPDPM (1995:120-125) classified NGOs based on different criteria namely : origin, geographic area, affiliation, involvement, and programme orientation. According to Salole (1986:4-7) and Tegegne Teka (1994:58-62), Ethiopian NGOs can fall into three main categories. These are :

1. Local NGOs - refers as “Edir” and “Iqub” - generally referring to Local Voluntary Associations (LVOs) - both voluntary mutual aid associations organized by grassroots with varying size. It is of two types : traditional and modern voluntary associations.
2. National NGOs - it can be divided into religious and secular organizations. These kinds of NGOs mostly derive their fund form external source, such as foreign embassies, individuals, Northern or international NGOs, and governments.
3. International NGOs - referred sometimes as Northern NGOs that are engaged in activities ranging from relief to development.

All in all, the general classifications of NGOs mentioned above indicate that there are a wide variety of NGOs operating across continents, subcontinents, and at international or world wide level. There are also local, regional, and national NGOs working in their own areas of choice. Based on this, we can summarize and identify four broad types of NGOs as given by Brown and Korten (1989:23-25) and Gary (1996:154-155) : GONGOs (Government Organized NGOs); DONGOs (Donor-Organized NGOs); Autonomous or Independent NGOs; and Foreign NGOs.

GONGOs are those organizations which promoted by government through official sponsorship, funding and guidance to carry out government-defined priorities and activities. Especially, through the use of bureaucratic power, administration co-optation, and in some cases coercive force, many African governments and politicians have taken to forming their own NGOs which, nominally independent but actually under government control, can be used to divert resources meant for ‘legitimate NGOs’ (Fowler, 1991:67). Similar to other African countries, even in Ethiopia, we can find that GONGOs in the development field which have been set up from top organizational structure of the existing government - EPRDF, for instance, REST, ADA, and ODA. Among those local NGOs which are treated in this study : SEPDA - SDA, HDA, and GDA are situated in this category. However, even though these types of NGOs engage in welfare-type or development activities, their organizational

structures, source of revenue, and methods of participation still bear the hallmarks of the government or “Party/State”^{*}.

DONGO is sponsored by various funding such as multilateral and bilateral donor agencies; and private voluntary organizations, to fulfil donor-defined priorities and programme activities. Due to this reason, nowadays, we can observe in several African countries that NGOs have formed consortia, coordinating bodies or umbrella organizations to present a collective voice to the governments and international donors and to coordinate their activities.

Several NGOs of such kind are found in Ethiopia, which relying on international links to provide protection, selectively collaborating with governments; for instance, SDP and GDP, which are subjected in this study, can be classified under this DONGOs.

Autonomous or Independent NGOs are self-determining institutions which strive to be self-sufficient in organizational and financial terms while representing the concerns and priorities of various social groups, peoples’ organizations and communities. Finally, Foreign NGOs are those who represent a distinct category from their indigenous counterparts, are comprised of diverse interests, motives and priorities whose work is contingent upon the agreement of the host country government.

From the above classifications, we can understand that the nature of each NGO varies according to different circumstances and is very much context specific. To strengthen this point, Cernea (1988:3) summarized the taxonomy of NGOs as follows.

Non-governmental organizations can be arrayed along a broad spectrum that ranges from strong to very fragile and weak; from international and central to local peripheral; from very large and federated to small and isolated, from durable and growing to ephemeral and short-lived.

In general, from the above clarifications we can understand clearly that, each of these NGOs’ plays a distinctive role in development process and faces a different range of choices and strategies when considering the question of impact.

^{*} The term “Party/State” is used here to underline the high degree of fusion between the Party and State in Ethiopia. Although the constitution is attempting to separate out the Party and the State, the two remain closely wedded, with Party cadres occupying nearly all responsible positions in the regional state administration, army, and federal government.

2.1.2. Characteristics of NGOs

Most analyses of the NGO community, whether in developed or developing countries, begin by noting the diversity of this organization - "NGO". And, to be sure, NGOs are a diverse lot - in terms of their origin, activities, structures, source of finance, field of actions, and methodologies - and it is very difficult to treat them as a homogenous set of organizations (Copley, 1987:21). Of course, they could have some similarities in their organic structure and functioning but it might be with different in objectives and purposes. Therefore, it seems rash to venture a general characterization of NGOs. Thus, diversity is one of the basic characteristic of NGOs in general (Copley, 1987:21).

On the other hand, Landim (1987:33) stated that ambiguity is indeed one of the characteristics of NGOs; on the one hand, autonomy, independence and individualization of NGOs are their trademark or cornerstones of their discourse; on the other hand, they tend to revolve around other institutional contexts and projects, social movements, and political currents. As a result, he continued, it is difficult to establish criteria for precisely classifying 'what is and is not an NGO' and just oscillating between being "independent" and being "para-religious" groups, "para-party" entities, and so on.

Nevertheless, regardless of the difficulties, Hall (1986:6-7) and Moser (1993:193) list the following characteristics of NGOs.

- flexible and adaptable to environmental conditions,
- close to grassroots than governmental agencies,
- stress the participation of beneficiaries in planning, implementation and evaluation of programmes,
- have simple administrative structures which require their personnel to be responsible for multiple tasks in the organisations,
- subject to fewer rules and regulations.

Similarly, to Padron (1987:71) NGOs tend to share a number of common characteristics :

- "out-reach focus" - its activities are intended to benefit non-members,

- established for common mutual concerns - issues like poverty, underdevelopment, disaster, relief and rehabilitation, human rights, environment, religious charitable or welfare purpose, and the like,
- whose fund is derived from voluntary donors, governments, beneficiary contributions, churches, and other funding agencies.

Finally, Webb and Others (1995:9) define NGOs as having the following characteristics.

- they tend to have multidisciplinary personnel who can work in different capacities as project supervisors, advisors, and technicians,
- NGOs are typically value-based and dedicated to the groups and communities with whom they work,
- because of their presence in communities, they are often better able to strengthen community participation and identify and support community leaders, and
- NGOs operating practices tend to facilitate decentralized decision making - field personnel and community volunteers exercise both responsibility and authority.

To sum up, in every sphere of human endeavour for development there is a need to understand this diversity to identify which NGOs have the appropriate abilities, and skills to fill a particular role. Hence, the following distinctions are important, as proposed by Hallak (1995:18) : the need to develop an adequate information and monitoring system for NGOs; the need to involve NGOs in negotiation; and the need to manage properly the comparative advantage of NGOs in mobilization of funds from external sources.

2.1.3. The Role of NGOs in Development

Historically the role of NGOs and their impact in development has been argued in different ways by different authorities. In the beginning of the “NGO decade”^{**}, there was an attempt to encourage NGOs from different perspective by evaluating how they view their role in the development process and how their agenda differs from the prevailing theoretical framework of NGOs.

^{**} It is common in the literature to refer to the 1980s as the ‘NGO decade’ (Tvedt, 1994:14). Of course, there will be some variations from country to country based on national traditions. In many countries in Africa the 1980s was the NGO decade; while the growth in Ethiopia took place in the drought and famine of 1974/75 and 1984/85, but the majority followed the later (Tegegne Teka, 1994:60).

In relation to this, Tvedt (1994:140) confirmed that when the NGO channel was established in most donor countries the NGOs were regarded as marginal actors complementing state-to-state aid based on ideas that “the state was too weak or too bureaucratized” to mean anything to the poor. For that reason, documents on NGO stipulated that the major function of NGOs in development was mainly focused on micro-level development and the need for empowerment of marginal groups. In this perspective, NGO intervention particularly in developing countries representing ‘elite interests’ as Coockson and Persell in Tvedt further stated

... that people-centred ideology is a sort of rhetorical camouflage ... a form of regressive redistribution, where the rich exchange domination for prestigious charity activities, an exchange which enhance their social status and thus maintains and legitimized existing power structures (1994:149).

From the above quotation we can understand that the thinking was centred around loose concepts like strengthening of local capacities, grassroots participation and mobilization. In this case, there was no clear idea to determine on what social level and to what extent this grassroots mobilization would be effective for social development at large.

However, nowadays, the role of NGOs has got to be seen in terms of a wider picture, a much greater number of influences that create or prevent development. The impact of NGOs, must have related to the problems of development: to problems surrounding the economic, social, and cultural order of a country or region.

Within the perspective of the ‘new paradigm’, Spray (1995:52) and Bebbington (1997:1757) stated in their valiant attempt to synthesize the debate, that NGOs were no more simply ‘gap fillers’ or to supplant the state in service delivery programmes, but perhaps the best role is to inter-act with it precisely to prevent failure - not seen as adversaries in a “zero-sum game”.

By considering the above factors, NGOs have a variety of functions ranging from development to social services, from education to civil society and environmental protection in general. Based on this, some of the roles of NGOs in developmental activities can be summarized into the following broad categories.

Social Role - NGOs have a role in stimulating the participation of the poor with greater social equity in service delivery systems (Anheier, 1990:363). In this role, undeniably NGOs, along with others, have a role in strengthening the ability of citizens and disadvantaged groups to

participate more fully in society and eventually contribute to the emergence of a stronger civil society (Roche, 1996:271; and Howes, 1997:820).

Political Role - NGOs have a role in helping state structure to become more responsive; to change activities like influencing government policies, improve their implementations, activating in global issues and strengthening the status quo (Spray, 1995:52).

Wider debates on this role of NGOs suggest that they have a key role to play in the process of increasing government accountability to the people (especially poor people)(Brasic, 1998:5). But perhaps the biggest challenge in this role for NGOs is to take on the issue of difference within societies and nations, and also among themselves; and to make a thorough examination of ways to improve understanding, generate common goals and seek “unity in diversity”(Roche, 1996:271).

Cultural Role - This role stipulates that NGOs, embedded in the local culture, must be more sensitive to local needs and their articulation so as to preserve its cultures and belief systems (Anheier, 1990:367). In this case, rather than replacing indigenous social structures by large scale organizations, NGOs try to nurture local organizations within their own cultural context.

Technological Role - NGOs may contribute to development by introducing and using new technologies - though it is important to analyse here how far such technologies do in fact help or hinder their development work (Domatob and Others, 1996:236). These NGOs could also share their technological expertise by training and initiating local people in the use, repair and maintenance of these tools, and helping them to understand their potential. However, as Domatob and Others (1996:237) warned, in certain instances, particularly in developing countries, the role played by NGOs may be counter-productive and may indeed hinder development. Especially, reshaping Africa to fit the social and cultural models of external influence can result in more harm than good. Thus, technologies are always used within the context of a pre-existing society and culture. In operating at many levels of society, NGOs may both contribute to and assist the process of development; and incorporate technologies on the basis of an understanding of the politics, economics, and sociology of the specific context (Rogers, 1986:121-125).

Mobilization Role - It refers to as capacity building, self-reliance, sustainability, participation and empowerment. The basic principle behind this approach is that involving the community in decision making and getting resources to them requires strengthening their ability to act for

themselves as an active participants on whatever benefits or delivery systems. In this instance, the major role of NGOs are providing information, improving various skills through investments in human capital such as education and training; investments in social capital such as local-level institutions and participatory process; and support for community-based development efforts planned and implemented from the bottom up (Farrington, 1993:124).

Research/ Information Role - This role embraces that priority must be given by NGOs in creating a structured dissemination process and establishing links between research and training. In view of this, research, dissemination and training should be an integral part of NGO programmes.

For that reason, more analysis is needed to identify development programmes, training areas, and to choose effective training implementation mechanisms that will strengthen the NGO sector in particular and the local community in general (Webb and Others, 1995:xiv). Fundamentally, NGOs have to be seen as producers as well as consumers of knowledge. In this case, though financial transfers remain crucial, information, technical and organizational skills will be increasingly important resources for development education as well as for development scholars and practitioners in the future. Therefore, there must be much greater attention among NGOs to the preservation and accumulation of knowledge to facilitate institutional building and the formulation of overall strategies (Drabek, 1987:xii).

In general, it is on the basis of these series of assumptions concerning the ability of NGOs to reach and benefit the poor through low-cost and effective interventions that arguments are made in favour of the need to different strategies in order to benefit larger numbers of the grassroots level.

2.1.4. Strategies and Implementation of NGOs

From the previous clarifications on definition and role of NGOs, we can understand that rich in the diversity of their purpose and experience, NGOs defy attempts at precise classification. For that reason, each NGO has different capacities and plays a distinctive role in development and faces a different range of choices, strategies and challenges in search for achieving greater impact. In addition to this, the historical origins of the NGO movement provide also the initial base for segmentation particularly in the strategies of NGOs. Nevertheless, as initial contribution to the discussion, it is appropriate to identify the following strategies of NGOs proposed by different authorities.

People-Centred Development Strategies - According to Drabek (1987:x) NGOs as promoters of people-centred development strategies is one of the most important strategies for the goal of enabling the poor to take control of the decision-making process which affect their lives. In this case, NGOs are acting as facilitators or catalysts of local development efforts. This implies also NGOs are not just working to meet the needs of the poor rather to assist them in articulating those needs. Based on this, many different NGOs have adopted this role to accelerate the creation of local organizations, by considering community mobilization which involves NGOs in stimulating and facilitating the operation of community-based organizations, and have a beneficial impact on development policies and wider political process (Korton, 1987:152). Regarding this point, Edwards and Hulme (1994:24) stated, such efforts is usually held to be the process involved in supporting local initiative-awareness raising, conscientisation, group formation, leadership, training in management skills, empowerment of people - rather than a much used and abused term that the process of 'assisting disadvantaged individuals and groups' to gain greater control than they presently have over local and national decision making and resources.

The Direct Approach: Increasing Impact by Organizational growth - For many NGOs the obvious strategy for increasing impact, as proposed by Edwards and Hulme (1994:18-19) is to expand projects that are judged to be successful. In this case, expansion can take several forms. It may be geographical (moving into new areas or countries); by horizontal function (adding additional sectoral activities to existing programmes); by vertical function (adding upstream or downstream activities to existing programmes); or by a combination of these forms. According to these proponents, at the level of local and national power structures, it can be argued that a strategy of service delivery expansion permits the alleviation of the symptoms of poverty without challenging the causes.

Advocacy or Lobbying Strategy - Another strategy proposed by Heijden (1987:111) and Edwards and Hulme (1994:20) is that NGOs may choose to increase their impact by lobbying government and other structure from the outside; by changing public attitudes, government policies and taking immediate needs in the system. However, as the question of "advocacy", there is much divergence of opinion over how and why NGOs should work with governments; particularly difficult and sensitive area for NGO-public sector collaboration in developing countries. Regarding this point, Heijden (1987:112) expressed the potential problem, where governments are unaccustomed to hearing any comments on the adequacy, or lack thereof, of development policies, particularly when the advocacy role is played by

external NGOs. Yet, as many try to indicate, such an advocacy role will become crucial in the near future; probably when newer forms of institutional advocacy emerged particularly in the form of indigenous advocacy NGOs.

Working with Government - Finally, a more direct approach as to work within the structure of government in a explicit attempt to foster more appropriate and effective policies and practices, which will eventually be of benefit to poorer and less powerful people as they fitted through into action by civil servants 'lower down' the system (Edwards and Hulme, 1994:16). However, these strategies are not an attempt to replace the state, but rather to influence the direction of government policies or support existing policies. The above view point raised based on the believe that, NGOs and governments, as partners in development, can strengthen and enhance one another by minimising duplications of efforts, conserving and stretching limited resources, and addressing needs in different ways as appropriate (Hulme, 1994:37).

On the other hand, based on the above different strategies, Elliott (1987:57-58) and Korton (1987:147-149) sort out three positions in programming strategies based on the spectrum of NGO behaviour and attitudes:

1. The Welfare Approach - what Korton call as 'Generation One';
2. The Development Approach - what Korton call as 'Generation Two';
3. The Empowerment Approach - what Korton call Generation Three' (For further information see Annex 5).

To sum up this portion, there is a wide diversity of approaches chosen by different NGOs at different stages in their development endeavours. The important thing which needs consideration is, therefore, the context in which a given NGO exists, which has an important bearing in determining which strategies are chosen and how effective they are in practice. These distinctions are also important because each group of strategies has different costs and benefits, strengths and weaknesses, and implications for the concerned NGOs. Therefore, the value of a strong conceptual framework is that it can clarify the strategic choices available to different NGOs help them to make the decisions appropriate for the specific realities they face.

2.2. The Concept of Development

To begin with, development is an issue for every society and every society whether rich or poor has a development problem in his respective area relative to one another. In this case, the term “development” is defined and perceived differently by different people. In the words of Rogers (1986:121) for instance, development defined as

a widely participatory process of directed social change ..., intended to bring about both social and material advancement (including greater equality, freedom and other valued qualities) for the majority of the people through their gaining greater control over their environment.

From the above definition, one can understand that development is a planned change, and that change is a continuous process moving towards already established goals through the participation of the beneficiaries enthusiastically and without disrupting negatively their way of life.

Traditional development theory holds that development is primarily a function of capital investment and that the greater the flow of capital from wealthy countries to poor countries. The theory conditioned a belief that the best indicator of development is the percentage of GNP that it transfers as development assistance for the poor countries. However, according to UNDP (1993:13-18) of this new generation of development indicators, the World Bank's programme of social indicators of development currently has 94 indicators and UNDP's Human Development Index (HDI) has 253 indicators. In view of this, the quality and scope of development are more complex than wealth creation and distribution. In the words of Pratt and Boyden in Slim (1995:144) economic growth is not a simple engine for human development and they asserted that “development is not just about having more, but also about being more”.

To strengthen this point, Slim (1995:143-144) enumerate the following points as basic ingredients to give a picture of what development is and how it comes about.

1. Development is essentially about change: not just any change, but a definite improvement -a change for the better.
2. Development is about continuity: if change is to take root, it must have something in common with the community or society in question.

3. Development must be appropriate: culturally, socially, economically, technologically, and environmentally - must make sense to people and be in line with their values and their capacity.
4. Genuine development has an air of originality in that particular society: it is not simply an imported copy or imitation of somebody else's development. Instead, it safeguards and thrives on difference, and produce diversity.
5. A real development has to consolidate equity and justice: change will not be improvement, if is built on injustice and does not benefit people equally.
6. In the process of development, a sort of resistance, struggle, and conflict of some kind are also essential ingredients and will inevitably challenge human relationships in the process of changing them.
7. Participation is a critical aspect of equity. If development is really to belong to people, it must be shared by them; and achieved only 'by people' and cannot done 'to people'
8. Development is essentially about empowerment: the fulfilment of a participatory process, the consequences of which is the achievement of other key development ingredients like choice, control, and access.
9. Eventually, development is judged as successful by whether or not it lasts. In this case, sustainability, self-reliance, and independence are seen as vital ingredients in effective development: "the eggs that bind the mixture of the cake".

From the above clarification, one can infer that development comprises many things more than economic development: it is as much about human development, especially for human relationships, human rights, and the environment. In emphasizing the importance of human development than economics Clark (1991:36) further stated the following.

Development is not a commodity to be weighed or measured by GNP statistics. It is a process of change that enables people to take charge of their own destinies and realize their full potential. It requires building up in people the confidence, skills, assets and freedoms necessary to achieve this goal.

Reaching the various ingredients, therefore, requires working with people to learn about their needs, understanding how development decisions are made in their communities, and identifying institutions and mechanisms that can get opportunities and resources into their hands. These efforts, however, requires responsive institutions and legal and regulatory policies that enables local participation in the overall process of development.

From what has been said above one of the difficulties about development for academics is, therefore, providing the standard scientific measurements, to move beyond traditional economic indicators which capture all the personal, social, cultural, and environmental dimensions of development (Domatob and Others, 1996:230-235). However, as Slim (1995:146-147) put it, in actual fact the development menu of nowadays is dictated largely by one main dish, which is known as “the Washington Consensus” : ideas that are emanated from ‘the White House’, ‘the World Bank’, and ‘the IMF’ in Washington with an intention of ‘good governance’, which has both an economic and political aspect.

It seems fair to conclude that contrary to the current blueprint of a single model, genuine human development must be enough to respond to the current challenges that relate to the quality of change in people’s lives, at the same time to the quantity of change in general by exploring different alternatives. The alternatives that most urgently demand any development agency or NGO attention are, then, somewhat different from the alternatives of the past. Possibilities need to be sought, therefore, in the areas that facilitate the provision of knowledge, developing new attitudes, new skills of production and management, and organizing activities in new ways. To this effect, it demands the contribution of all development sectors organized into a group so that one is working with all, and all are working as one (Rogers, 1992:98). What is perhaps most critical at this point is that for the development of both human development and economic growth, educational programmes in general and primary education development projects in particular have major facilitating roles, which will be dealt underneath.

2.2.1. The Contribution of Education to Development

The debate over education as an agent for social change or for promoting development has been ranging for decades and still continue as controversial issue in the last decades. However, most development planners, at present, consider education as the main instrument to improve the socio-economic life of the society. In most instances, the developed countries were developed because they had, among other attributes, a large population of educated and trained workers. For that reason, education is assumed as one of the infrastructure of a given society which takes a prime mission to serve as a tool to achieve the ultimate objectives designed to satisfy the needs of a nation. In order to answer whether education is contributing to development or not, let us analyze the trend of education in the light of the technological, political, social, and economic phenomena of the world.

According to Lockheed and Others (1994:1-2) as economies world-wide are transformed by technological advances and the new methods of production demanded on a well-trained and intellectually flexible labour force, education becomes even more significant. As a result, increasing people's skills and capabilities is believed to be one the major inputs for the success of development process.

In this manner, since the world of science and technology is changing from time to time, the major competency one needs to develop is the ability to cope up with further technological change. Education and training, in this technological age is thus essential for the proper development in order to keep up with the latest gains of science and technology (Domatob and Others, 1996:237-238).

On the other hand, one will find that education and society are seen as being dialectically related to each other. Stated differently, the structure and the content of education system depend largely on the state of socio-economic development of the society has reached (Lockheed and Others, 1994:2). In this context, education is one of the many dependent variables which in combination with other inputs may have a role to play in the development of the country. Even more specifically, primary education is a corner stone of social development and a principal means of improving the welfare of individuals. Accordingly, most practitioners and researchers involved in the field confirmed that education, particularly primary level had a significant positive effect on the economic growth and powerfully affect the process of development of a society of any country.

According to the study of Denison in 1962 and 1974 stated by Netsanet Walelign (1997:3), using a "growth accounting" framework found that the contribution of education to economic growth varied considerably, from 23 per cent to 42 per cent in the United States, 12 per cent in the United Kingdom, 14 per cent in Belgium, and 25 per cent in Canada. There have also been numerous studies undertaken by adopting the "human capital" approach. In relation to this, Lau and Others (1991:2) indicated that the estimated rates of return to education are considerably above 10 per cent per-annum in real terms. They further stated, the rate of return is higher for lower levels of education: primary education; and it is also higher in countries where educated manpower is more scarce.

In a similar way, a recent study made by Netsanet Walelign (1997:18-19) revealed the importance of primary education for development in his study of "Education and Economic

Growth in Ethiopia.” And he asserted, education is one of the potential area that could have positive impact for the country’s economic growth both through the increased individual productivity brought about by the acquisition of skills and attitudes and through accumulation of knowledge.

From these evidences it seems clear that, increased education of the labour force appears to explain a substantial part of the growth of economy in both developed and developing countries. Given this clarification, we should realize that education is a foundational process in which people of all sectors of life have the right to acquire the art of creating, accessing, and utilizing knowledge.

Based on this, improvements in the quality of education at lower levels not only are significant for students who proceed no further with their education, but also have beneficial consequences for the efficiency of any later professional or technical training. However, when we examine the present primary education statistics, in almost all developing countries and typically in Ethiopia, it lacks adequacy and badly needs strengthening and systematizing. This calls, in turn, for a strong need for assistance and capacity building from national to the grassroots levels. It also needs comprehensive and comparable information regarding challenges and priorities of education, which will be dealt underneath, to help in better planning and coordinating these efforts to maximise impact. Thus, for the economic and social development of a society, the introduction and acquisition of appropriate technology and skills is believed to be an absolute necessity; which in turn the government or other developmental agencies should invest towards developing these human resources, particularly towards providing improved and applicable primary education and accelerated overall development of a country.

2.2.2. Challenges in Educational Development Programmes

Since education came to be seen as a basic human need, as a means of meeting other basic needs, and as an activity that sustains and accelerates overall development of a country, the critical human needed can therefore only be obtained through wide spread education. However, in many countries in the developing world, the conventional method of education systems are unable to meet their objectives which is emanated from its inability to cope with educational demand of children and the society in general. To cite as an evidence, Lau and Others (1991:2-5) estimated different effects of education to development by level (primary Vs secondary) in five regions and found that primary education had an estimated negative effect in Africa; insignificant effects in South East Asia and Latin America; and only positive and significant in East Asia.

Despite of the above study, Benhabib and Spiegel (1994:144-145) argued that the negative (insignificant) coefficient could be the result of misspecification due to the incorporation of human capital as an ordinary input without considering the capacity of nations and relevance of schooling that are suited to domestic production. From this clarifications, we can understand that the stage of an education system must correspond closely to the level of national economic development; countries at different levels of economic development face different challenges.

As a result, although poor quality of education exists at all levels, improvement must begin at the primary level and strategies for improving the education system depend on the initial condition of each country and its schools. Achieving educational change is however difficult under any circumstance; it is especially challenging in the unstable environments that often prevail in developing countries.

Regarding this point, Basic (1998:5) stated that despite national and international commitments to UPE (Universal Primary Education) 130 million children have no access to any kind of education service. Furthermore, the actual number of children failing to obtain a basic level of education is larger than the figure quoted, as the drop-out rates in many developing countries are very high. Consequently, developing countries must not only improve their schools and foster the development of higher-order thinking skills, they must also expand coverage to include the school-age children who are out of school. This in turn emphasizes that at each level the utilization of expensive plant and staff produces high capital

and recurrent costs (Lockheed and Others, 1994:1-2). Moreover, the prices of these resources also rise according to the number of students in the school system and number of times they repeat a grade. Nonetheless, in recent years resource allocation has become increasingly difficult; because the quantitative growth in enrolment has called for more supply and effective utilization of different available resources. To elaborate this, Forojalla (1993: 271) indicated that the financial, human and other resources requirements for the rapid expansion of the formal school system has proved beyond the economic and administrative capacities of most African countries at present.

In terms of teachers in developing countries, the situation is much aggravated in that many teachers without any adequate training of the profession were employed and assigned to different schools in the country. Even the initial training may not be comprehensive enough to encompass all the knowledge and skills required for the profession (Mills, 1985:125). This may hold true in the Ethiopian situation today in that the teacher training institutes (TTIs) train new teachers only for about ten months. More seriously, with rapid growth of schools in Ethiopia, it has been necessary or inevitable consequences in the past, as a matter of expediency, to employ teachers who were professionally untrained and academically less qualified (MoE, 1997:69-71). On the flip side, there is no opportunity for so many teachers to improve their professional competence in their locality.

On the other hand, our contemporary world is characterized by rapid development of science and technology and this brings, in turn, about changes in all spheres of human activities. In view of this, education, as an integral part of human development, is also affected by these changes (UNESCO and ILO, 1983:119). Thus, in addition to the limitation both in scope and time, TTIs may also lag behind new inventions and innovations. For that reason, in-service training is needed not only for teacher who centred the profession sometimes ago, but also for teachers who are entering the profession now. This is partly because the TTIs are slow to respond to this changes; and partly due to curriculum changes/reforms and/or introduction of new teaching techniques, tools, and even new confined subjects - all these may call for informed teachers (Dean, 1991:5-7). Hence, institutions need to prepare both for new and serving teachers in order to meet the current needs of their societies.

Nevertheless, when we examine the teacher training programmes of our country, Ethiopia, it has many problems, as cited in many documents and researches (for instance, USAID, 1992/93 and UNDP and TGE, 1993), the most important of which are : (i) organizational and

staff shortages coupled with their lack of training; (ii) low participation of female teachers; (iii) poor quality of the programme; (iv) serious shortage of materials and equipment; (v) limited and sporadic in-service training; (vi) low motivation of teachers; and (vii) deteriorated physical plant and poor living conditions, etc. Ways to deal with this shortcomings include expanding training facilities, systematizing in-service training, improving the quality of training programmes, and provide teachers with resources and incentives that will help them to improve both their academic status and their professional competence.

To add, the inadequacies of managerial capacity in the education sector are part and parcel of the much wider problems of limited national administrative and managerial capacity; at the same time the limited scope and reliability of data, and the inadequacies of public administration generally, from which developing countries typically suffer (Baum and Tolbert, 1985:373). Part of this failure can be traced in the policies, planning, and management and use of resources needed for educational process. The result has been unnecessary human suffering, wasted different resources, and lost opportunities. In these crises, the generic problems are also aggravated by policy-makers who have only a limited knowledge of how teaching and learning process actually take place in the classroom and how schools are actually managed (Lockheed and Others, 1994:223). It is evident that series of government regulations have been issued at different times to govern public educational programmes including private educational institutions. These regulations and proclamations, at times hindered different development agencies and their participatory role in educational services emanated from different ambiguous policy frameworks of the government. For this purpose, as Fisher and Others (1996:219) proposed, there must be a supportive environment as a prerequisite for any successful organizational development. This encompasses both the external policies that affect the organization and the internal working conditions together with the commitment of the concerned authorities.

Similar to the problems of developing countries mentioned earlier, to date, it is known that Ethiopian educational system is entangled with similar complex problems of relevance, quality, accessibility, and equity. When we examine the existing physical school environments, most primary schools are not of an appropriate standard and the compounds are neither conducive for the teaching and learning situation nor for an all rounding and healthy development of the students. Moreover, inadequate facilities, insufficient training of teachers, shortage of text books, and other teaching materials, all indicate the low quality of education provided. Besides, the necessary infrastructure to provide a relevant education to the rural

population, which is over 85 per cent of the population of the country, is at an insignificant level of development (TGE, 1994:1-2).

To conclude this portion, it seems relevant to quote what Tekeste Negash (1996:69-70) adopting from the USAID team stated in the wide ranging sector review studies in 1992/93 regarding the problems of Ethiopian educational system:

The Ethiopian primary education sub-sector is seriously underfinanced, quality is poor, teachers are underqualified and unsupported, educational inputs are unevenly available and inadequately used, and equitable access to schools is denied many rural children and girls.

In general, the central theme of this idea is that, these primary education systems in almost all developing countries and typically in Ethiopia, are ineffective and jeopardize national efforts to build a base of human capital for development. Therefore, unless a conscious conventional educational strategy is deployed in the region or in a nation, development can neither be initiated nor sustained, the reasoning goes. In view of this, due to different educational challenges, priorities differ among countries, even among regions and school level. In some instances, providing text books is of the utmost urgency for some region or school level, upgrading the physical plant might be more important for others. As a result, selection must be determined by criteria relating to the community-led, voluntary, and sustainable nature of the groups' activities as well as by constraints of time and access. Which, or what combination, of these approaches to adopt should be determined in the light of a country conditions, the cost-effectiveness of the alternatives, and intense priority of the locality or specific school programmes.

To attain these long-term objectives, thus, the education systems of the developing countries must change significantly on a large scale reform : new knowledge, skills, and higher level of education are needed. Nonetheless, developing countries can progress toward these goals only when available resources are allocated to the most cost-effective inputs or by reallocating funds within the existing primary education budget. In most developing countries, however, the scope for such reallocations is limited, thus a supportive financial environment or additional resources for primary education are essential. Accordingly, in addition to the funds provided to the public authorities, it is possible to envisage contributions from bodies directly connected with the work of grassroots communities, NGOs and international organizations.

NGOs will have to recognize therefore these challenges in developing countries and be flexible in defining their own priorities. They must also be more flexible in the ways they allow recipients to use their aid and be adaptable to the local situation and flexible enough to deal with unexpected events and considerable variations in the implementation of school improvement programmes.

2.3. Local Community Participation in Educational Projects

It is widely accepted principle of administration that local community perform better if they can participate, within reasonable limits, in planning and decision making in areas of affecting their own work. For that reason, participation is recognized currently as an essential ingredient in the accomplishment of planning, implementation, and evaluation of any developmental programmes. Grieshaber (1994:19) goes to the extent of asserting that unless there is participation there cannot be learning and there cannot be development at all. In fact, we believe that there is no one way or “perfect model” of implementing participation. Participation is an elastic term that can mean different things to different people in different institutions.

Accordingly, the form of local participation is highly influenced by the overall circumstances and the unique social context in which action is being taken. In relation to this, World Bank (1996:9) indicated that

Participation has many faces and ways of showing up in the multi-dimensional field of development; a field that embraces many different types of historical, political, cultural, sectorial, and institutional settings.

In light of this view, some authorities considered participation with the achievement of some kind of power. The following statement emphasize participation as empowerment of the people and illustrate its active nature :

Power is the central theme of participation and ... participatory social action entails widely shared, collective power by those who are considered beneficiaries. The people become agents of social action and the power differential between those who control and need resources is reduced through participation (Fernandes and Tondon, 1981:5).

It is in this foresighted planning that has enabled communities to place their schools and other related developmental projects where they should be, where the people who use them live, and will continue to live. Regarding this, Baum and Tolbert (1985:481) stated that local

community participation under competent leadership and with expert advice is a valuable device for securing public interest in school planning problems, in giving support for school project improvements, and above all to exercise autonomy in using resources even further through what is called assisted “self-reliance”.

Moreover, as Lockheed and Others (1994:134) and World Bank (1996:235) indicated, in many cases, the involvement of parents and other community members in consultation, cost-sharing and decision making has made the curriculum, teaching materials, and other school developmental projects more appropriate to local conditions, improve achievement scores of students, and expand enrolment demand.

Furthermore, as the major NGO programmes move increasingly toward structural adjustment, or policy-based interventions, it becomes imperative that local communities inject their voice into the process of national policy formulation as well (Hellinger, 1987:141). In this case, giving community groups a voice in efforts to improve any developmental interventions in their surroundings is extremely important to boost morale or to feel responsibility for the projects beyond the life of the fund (Tvedt, 1994:158). From the above clarifications one can infer that without active participation of beneficiaries, projects in the communities do not achieve planned objectives and targets; and in the best of cases, as Muckenbirt and Langlet (1998:19) Quoted an African saying : resulted in “what is done in our benefit without involving us is actually against us”.

A methodological study based on work of many communities in different projects also confirmed that

... if beneficiaries are not involved in projects, the programme will do no more than build works and will make no contribution to promoting the self-sustaining development required to ensure that community members attain a more decent standard of living (Cernea, 1983:85).

From this basic premise we can understand that efficiency in cooperative planning will be increased as participants gain experience in working together. It follows, then, that it is advantageous and desirable to encourage the local community to participate and operate in the required project processes in such a way that both the educational function and the capital investment will be protected accordingly.

2.3.1. Justification of Local Community Participation in Educational Development Projects

Operations in the education sector can be greatly improved by increasing stockholders participation of the government officials, education professionals, NGOs and private sector, and the local communities in general. Especially, the participation of local communities in NGO-run projects can improve ownership, build consensus, mobilize additional resources, and build institutional capacity.

In general, the justification offered in support of grassroots participation in different developmental activities of educational programmes in NGO-run projects are many and overlapping. Nevertheless, for the sake of appreciation, from the justifications given by different authorities, the following factors, as cited by White (1982:20-33); Oakley and Others (1991:4-8); and World Bank (1996:8-31) can be summarized in six groups.

Efficiency - Participation implies a greater chance that resources available to development activities will be used more efficiently. Costs of the project are shared with people and delays are reduced; and much more will be achieved with much less, even in complete financial terms whenever people are locally involved and actively participated. Moreover, services can be provided at lowest cost and by extracting, developing, and investing local resources : labour, finance, management skills, etc., help in minimizing the time and energy, often spent by professional.

Effectiveness - Participation will also make project more effective as instruments in producing the intended result of development. By using indigenous knowledge and expertise, participation ensures that things are done in the right way. At the same time, the involvement of people in educational projects to have led to timely completion of many projects and objectives will be completed successfully. Moreover, efforts of these kind can be posted to have a voice in determining goals, objectives, plans, and strategies for action, support project administration; and give local efforts the benefits of their knowledge, skills, resources, and activities appropriately.

Self - Reliance - Grassroots participation leads to sense of responsibility for the project; has an intrinsic value for participants, and awareness of the structure causes of their problems. Furthermore, participation breaks dependence, promotes self-awareness and confidence;

cause local community to examine their problems; to think positively about solutions, and leads to an intrinsic satisfaction which later on guarantees the sustainability of projects. Therefore, in order to achieve and sustain self-reliant development :

1. Peoples' authentic and original ideas, relevant to their situation, must be used as bases for their development;
2. Local organizational structures through which these ideas are to put into effect must be utilized;
3. People should have the right to choose and be able to acquire any outside assistance for their self-determined development (Kajese, 1987:81).

Coverage - This term implies that participation increases the number of potential beneficiaries of development; could attract more public support and services would not be restricted to only a small fraction of the people. Moreover, participation would bring more local communities within the direct influence of development activities. In this case, participation can be taken as one of the many resources needed to keep the economy alive and could be the solution to broadening the mass appeal of such services.

Sustainability - Participation ensures that local community to maintain the educational projects in dynamic manner and with continuity. In this sense, participation can be used as a catalyst for further development; because the benefits of development will be equally available to future generations, and not all used up by the present generation at their expense; thus as Slim indicated that sustainability is described as "intergenerational equity" (1995:144). To substantiate this Honadle and Sant, as cited by Jember Tefera (1996:85) indicate that :

If development were a one item procedure like a vaccination with a life time effectiveness there would be no reason to be concerned with sustainability. But development is not such a procedure. Simple infusions of outside resources rarely generate self-sustaining improvements in productivity and life quality. For progress to be made in the practice of development, then attention must be concentrated on the process of converting resources into development gains.

From the above quotation one can infer that a sustainable society is one that can live indefinitely within its means : its natural as well as human and financial resources; and improve the way in which natural resources are managed, rather than simply promote higher rates of resource consumption. For that reason, sustainability issues must be addressed

throughout implementation of programmes. In this sense, sustainability must be seen as a means to an end not an end by itself. Regarding this point, Honadle and Sant stated as Jember Tefera (1996:86) quoted it:

Projects by definition are time bound. One way or another they end. Therefore, planning for projects tends to be equally time bound in focus. The end of a project is logically seen as a termination, but it is actually just a beginning. What begins, if anything at project end is ultimately more important than the project itself; what continues represented the real contribution of the project. In this context, every planning and implementation decision should be made in the light of sustainability issues.

Therefore, throughout the implementation period the concerned authorities and agencies should have to be aware about what they can do to promote sustainability. Accordingly, the sustainability of programmes and projects will be observed and guaranteed if the target groups are considered as the “subject” not the object and involved in development projects wholeheartedly and genuinely.

Empowerment - The term implies that participation as empowerment described as a process which aims to enhance the capacity and confidence of marginalized groups and individuals to make decisions and act upon them, thereby influencing the process of social change that we call development (Popkins, 1998:20).

From the above clarification we can understand that empowerment is not something that can be delivered or bought - “true power cannot be bestowed : it comes from within” (Taliaferro in Rowlands, 1995:104). Thus, empowerment is a process that cannot be imposed by outsiders; although appropriate external support and intervention can speed up and encourage it. In support of this, Elliott (1987:59) stated that empowerment calls for a facilitative approach and an attitude of complete respect for and confidence in the people being worked with or accompanied. He adds, it is a term that it can not be reduced to a project; but rather, it is a process that depends on people more than physical resources; local communities near the process, instead of highly trained experts, either local or expatriate, become aware of the power dynamics at work in their life context.

Assuming that all these ingredients are met, empowerment can take place on a small scale, linking people with others in similar situations through self-help, education, or social action groups and network building; or on a large scale, through community organization,

campaigning, legislative lobbying, social planning, and policy development (Parsons in Rowlands, 1995: 103).

To conclude this portion, the process of empowerment that seeks to engage local community and marginalized people can not be effective if the methodology is 'top-down' and directive, or encourages dependency. When participation is taken as empowering, therefore, it refers to the distribution of power and scarce resources to the decision of their own destinies and improve their living conditions; and eventually it is opening up opportunities "from-below" as against "top-down" approach of planning.

2.3.2. Understanding Community Based Organization

When local community encouraged to participate in wider programmes which will ensure self sufficiency, first and foremost, it requires a good deal of ground work to increase community awareness about the benefit of organizing to participate in project design and implementation. Accordingly, an effective strategy for strengthening the capacity of the local community to participate in the development process, often depends on their having an organization through which to define, declare, and promote their interests (Baum and Tolbert, 1985:487). World Bank (1996:146) adds to this point, even in a typical poor community, a whole range of organizations are operating: whether it is formal or informal, traditional or modern, indigenous or externally established.

It is often through this organizations that demand is expressed, participatory process organized, and above all development services delivered. This means moving from the 'culture of concrete results' that local community has to be allowed to think for itself and capture the fruits of its visions, aspirations, energies, and the like (Goodhand and Chamberlain, 1996:206).

In this case, the task of grassroots organizations is to build up the capacity of the people themselves to become actors in determining their own agenda, and therefore, to a demand-driven process (Cherrett and Others, 1995:33). To substantiate this Bernard quoted by Drabek (1987:xv) capture the essence of the task ahead :

To release local groups' potential for innovation and action, it is essential to move from participation in aid projects to responsibility for their own programmes.... dealing with new partners, ... it means a change in attitude, no longer presuming to dictate others' development

but sharing in the adventure of seeing development take shape, invented step by step by the people themselves.

In view of this, as new skills are learned and new norms adopted, the process of participation empowers local community and enhances their ability to contribute to the wider development process. Thus, as grassroots organizations attempt to scale-up, they invariably become interested in providing services that governments cannot provide or will not provide.

In recognition to this, Annis (1987:131) proposed that community participation based on the existing organizations contemplate four choices :

1. community based organizations can provide parallel services with their own internal resources;
2. they can create parallel service-delivery systems by seeking support from private voluntary agencies, development institutions, foundations, or even the state itself;
3. they can pressure the state to provide new or better services, generally by bartering in political loyalty; or
4. they can “co-produce” the services with the state through a division of labour based on comparative advantage.

From the above statements we can understand that there are many ways and techniques used and applied to increase the local community's ability to participate in development activities. As in other sectors, participation of community in designing and managing programmes in the education sector can also yield substantial long-term benefits beyond the individual project by strengthening the institutional capacity for sustained development. The most important role that intermediate organization can assume is thus to support schools by providing technical assistance, staff development, and other extra resources. Working through locally based organizations has therefore important advantage particularly in contributing to the development of the local NGOs sector and is usually most cost-effective, especially when working international or foreign NGOs in partnership with national or local NGOs (World Bank, 1996:158).

In view of this, particularly in NGO development interventions, Jember Tefera (1996:87) proposed four major strategies for achieving sustainability in their effort of strengthening capacity building of the local community: (a) Institutional; (b) Organizational; (c) Technological; and (d) Financial. However, although capacity building is a fashionable term,

it is not always clear what it actually means; as Fisher and Others (1996:217) indicated, the term is 'over-used and under-defined'. In elaborating this, Goodhand and Chamberlain (1996:206) stated that capacity building should not be limited to 'skilling up' organizations, or providing a technical fix, but rather it implies a wider dialogue, based on shared values and ethics. Moreover, to be effective, it must address the needs of all levels of an organization; and important distinction should be made between different areas of capacity building : decision-making, planning, administration, management, evaluation, and communication, etc.(Hallak, 1995:19).

Particularly to our context, to build institutional capacity in their participatory role of NGOs and the local community, Hallak (1995:19) further elaborated that capacity building implies institutional development; promotion of a good policy environment; and training in various skills required. In this case, training personnel will not be enough if the institutions are not developed to implement and manage, and if the environment (legal, political, cultural, etc.) is an obstacle instead of being a facilitator for action. For that reason, since building local institutional capacity is a slow and difficult process, the presumption is in favour of relying on existing organizations. However, it must be considered here that, although it is generally advantageous to rely on an established local organizations, it does not mean that a new group can not be successful; all existing organizations were once new (Baum and Tolbert, 1985:483). Among other things, the likelihood of success will depend, they further stated, on whether the new organization meets a real needs, on the quality of training provided to its members and staff, and on the establishment of a realistic time frame for building its capacity.

In relation to the above point, Moore as cited by Fisher and Others (1996:225) suggest an equation:

$$\text{Institutional Building} = \text{Organization Building} + X ,$$

where X can encompass a wide range of activities (beyond the organization) to change the way people relate to one another in public action. Thus, the process began with organizational development (OD), focuses on the internal working of an organization, and later added reforming policy and influencing societal norms as it expanded into institutional development (ID).

The central theme tried to emphasize here is that government policy and strategies of development agencies are crucially important in determining the character and capacities of

grassroots organization growth - and ultimately, in providing the answer to this question and managing future self-help initiatives.

All in all, if such grassroots participation is involved in any developmental endeavour, in general it will produce that developmental projects more closely geared to local needs and will result in more effective use of the physical facilities or services when completed. On the other side, if the prevailing customs or tradition of developing countries continue - a tendency to follow rather than to lead coupled with top down economic plans - then a poorly adopted school project may be expected to result and eventually harvested unmatched poverty in general. Therefore, it is necessary that the whole climate be conducive to broad participation of the local communities and team work within a well defined administrative framework.

2.4. Financing the Educational Projects

Once the pressing needs for more and better educational projects stand revealed or assessed, and school projects have always cost money, so the financing of educational projects must be everyone's concern.

In this context, the major sources of financing educational projects in Ethiopia are government, households or local community contributions, external loans and assistance. The relative importance of each of these sources depend on the nature of the expenditure : recurrent or capital, and depend also on the use of effort or resources to what is essential for the society and the public in general (PHRDP, 1996:v). However, if we examine the economic background of the country, we can understand that Ethiopia is among the poorest developing countries and its economic problem was severely aggravated due to the long stayed civil war and drought in the past. For that reason, even if the education budget may have grown in absolute nominal terms during the last decade, educational finance is seen as a major problem and its increase in real terms has been minimal while enrolments have grown substantially. As a result, it was/is still largely ineffective in either providing equal educational opportunity or in meeting the need and interests of the Ethiopian peoples to improve the conditions of their daily life.

On the other hand, even within the education sector itself, while the greatest share of expenditures are attributable to primary education, when we examine in per student terms primary education is also far down of the list of priorities for government expenditure in the sector (USAID, 1992:30). Stated differently, education also divides against itself in

competition in resources, where the competition may be primary against secondary, secondary against university, expanding teacher training against expanding instruction of classroom, and which will be given priority to formal or NFE.

Moreover, a higher percentage of the primary education recurrent budget is allocated to salaries (almost more than 98 per cent), leaving a negligible (almost 1 up to 2 per cent) of the recurrent budget to fund all primary school operating costs (USAID, 1993:112). Similarly, capital expenditure on education by level of school has remarkably increased, for instance, ten times between 1985/86 and 1995/96 in nominal values : total primary education capital expenditure varied from 25.7 per cent to 37 per cent - increased almost sixteen times in nominal terms and four to five times in real terms (PHRDP, 1996:vi). On the flip side, about 85 per cent of the capital budget was thought to have originated from external loans and assistance (for further information see Annex 6 and 7).

From the above clarifications one can infer that even if the educational budget increased from time to time, overall levels of financing education are low in absolute terms and are insufficient to cover expenses associated with operating the education sector in general. To come to the central point of this study, the most critical consideration for investment in education should be the comparative cost effectiveness of different areas of fund and evaluated in terms of budget capacity. Therefore, since the school projects affect closely the quality of the educational and community programmes, it is essential for communities and the concerned authorities or agencies to plan carefully the financial aspect that determine the real needs of the society in general. Regarding this, Baum and Tolbert (1985:440) indicate that the first and wide spread financial concern, which applies to all types of projects, is to ensure that there are adequate funds to carry the project through to completion. A second concern, they continued, also of broad application, is to recover an appropriate part of the costs from the beneficiaries or local communities through a system of prices or charges. Such cost recovering is important to ease the burden on the government budget or to help finance further investments by the sponsoring agency.

As a result of these diverse factors, those concerned with planning a new school project for the development of primary education activities, then, must know these resources to the relationship of planning to the many elements involved in the community welfare, the need for their development, and ways of doing it. Particularly, any community planning to issue bonds for new school construction and other developmental projects would be well advised to

get the best available technical help in setting up its financial plan and procedures. Even in school design, architects or other concerned professionals must have placed more emphasis on buildings that serve the community, on shared facilities.

Furthermore, in most instances, it is axiomatic to say that an educational project, especially school plant, represents a capital investment of hundreds of thousands or even millions of dollars or whatever. To do this tasks, therefore, it is important to observe the level of resources available to spend on the general project cost items. It is only within this realm or limit of expenditure that local educational authorities, community leaders, and NGO expertise have any opportunity for saving or economies. Accordingly, the decisions that the planners make to influence the cost of the projects and different facilities must be within the bounds of their own discretion.

Hence, sound judgement requires knowledge of the factors which should be involved in the decision; and it deserves community-wide as well as expert-aided planning. In support of this point, Baum and Tolbert (1985:449) indicate that an integral part of project preparation is drawing up a financial plan to ensure that there will be adequate funds not only for completing the project but also for operating it. For that reason, whatever the project, a minimum of financial information and reporting will be necessary to keep track of the progress of expenditures. Such information indicates whether the project is on schedule and whether the cost estimates are being adhered to.

In general, a study of educational projects in terms of finance is incomplete unless it includes all the major expenses of lifetime occupancy that must be incorporated in the general project cost. The impact of individual project, therefore, has to be considered in the context of the overall financial situation of the concerned body, and indeed of the public expenditure budget as a whole. To accomplish the task, the recommendations or decisions are then formulated to close the gap and the expenditures have to be fitted to real or limitations in the amount of money available.

2.4.1. External Assistance for Educational Projects

To begin with, external assistance/aid to developing countries comes from various public and private sources. On the sources of funds for developing countries, Hallak (1995:2) noted that external assistance will comes from different donor countries through the public sector (bilateral aid); or through different development banks or international organizations

(multilateral aid); or through different NGOs and private foundations : private sector (for further information see Annex 8).

In this case, terms and conditions of external financing vary widely according to the sources; and the content of aid as well as the way of providing assistance also vary from donor to donor. At the same time, most aid agencies or NGOs place limits on the proportion of a project's cost they are prepared to finance; which may vary with the country and with the type of project too. Accordingly, as Magnen (1991:91-102) indicated that in the last two decades we have seen rapid growth in the number of NGOs and different development agencies; and contribute particularly in educational projects by providing equipment, salary supplements, technical assistance in the form of experts or training of personnel in the sector, and participating in establishment or enlarge existing institutions or to build new schools, etc.

In relation to the above point, Hall (1986:12) and Hallak (1995:17) pointed out that there are a number of NGOs whose work is related directly or indirectly with primary education at grassroots level. There are also NGOs which are backed-up by governments or agencies at international level that take the responsibility of carrying out primary education projects as a component of development work in order to promote the economic and social conditions of the poor. In addition, several agencies sponsored a series of research and development studies and soon began to formulate projects and plans to field-test activities that were felt to exemplify the primary education development projects or related approach [in our country, Ethiopia, we can find , for instance, USAID (1992/93); UNDP and TGE (1993); and PHRDP (1996)].

Accordingly, as Fowler (1992:15) stated that the rate of official development assistance grew almost five times during the 1980s by funding to NGOs. As Clark (1991:74) and Farrington (1993:26) reported that more than US \$ 7 billion is channelled world-wide through NGOs; equivalent to 16 per cent of bilateral aid flows, with most official aid agencies giving 10 per cent or more of their aid money to NGOs. Similarly, recent figures indicated, the huge amount of resources and sheer numbers of NGOs and other developmental agencies operating in Africa. To cite an instances, in 1986 over US \$ 1 billion was channelled through NGOs in Africa (Bratton, 1989:570); in 1991, an estimated US \$ 107 billion was channelled through NGOs to the developing countries in general (Farrington, 1993:26). Out of this, aid agencies channel 10 per cent or more of government assistance through NGOs. This promising step, as Hallak (1995:17) quoted the statement made recently by the USA vice-president, Al Gore,

noted that “it is expected that NGOs will become increasingly important as vectors of aid”; and have already important influences on development assistance policy, particularly at the grassroots programmes in matters such as the provision of social services : education.

In support of the above point, Magnen (1991:92-93) reported that from 1981 to 1983, in calculating roughly the main sources of aid for education, bilateral sources provided 70 per cent, 23 per cent by multilateral, and the remaining 7 per cent were provided by private sources. In a similar way, during the 1980s, as Naumann in Lockheed and Others (1994:207) pointed out, from an average annual allocation of US \$ 4.2 billion - \$ 2.8 billion by bilateral aid, \$ 1.0 billion by multilateral aid, and aid from NGOs, \$ 0.4 billion - for development 9.2 per cent was targeted to education and related activities. Similar to the trend of other countries, in Ethiopia, several multilateral and bilateral donor agencies, as well as a number of NGOs and PVOs, are currently active in the country's' annual budget with regard development related grants(for further information see Annex 9).

On the question of whether external assistance is necessary at all, there are different views and arguments. Obviously, external assistance can contribute to the social development only if we have an informed understanding of society and of the people's potential, as members of society, to take charges of their lives. Thus, external assistance needs to tap into existing expertise to help communities understand each other's perspectives and find their own ways of agreeing an equitable access to resources (Eyben, 1995:48).

Therefore, there is no doubt, from this point of view that external aid is necessary and is an important source of educational development and it may even continue to be essential. In this regard, the scope and scale of the educational services provided by external donors at a national or regional level should be encouraged highly; but it will necessitate in turn an effort to co-ordinate and timely utilize available funds made from these different sources. However, it should be recognized here that primary education, as a basic education, is a basic right then ultimately the provision of 'Education For All' should be a core government responsibility. Accordingly, “the key issue for any donor agencies or NGOs is that to find an effective way to contribute to achieving 'Education For All' without absolving the government of ultimate responsibility” (Brasic, 1998:5).

On the negative aspect of the external assistance to education, Coombs and Hallak (1972:110) believed that foreign aid is not come without its short comings. In certain instance it can

seriously disrupt educational plans, raise costs and puts severe strains on local educational budget. This is because sometimes the promised aid due to one reason or another may not come or comes late which is of little help as the educational priorities. Similarly, despite providing significant support for education overall from different external agencies, nearly all of those resources are being absorbed or goes not to the neediest priority areas; but directed almost to the post-primary level : secondary and tertiary. On the other hand, support for the most cost-effective educational inputs was slight. Particularly, external aid is often poorly placed to finance the development of primary education. To cite an instance, Lockheed and Others (1994:207) confirmed that :

Between 1981 and 1986, the international aid disbursed to primary education to a mere \$ 181.3 million annually and represented 4.3 per cent of the annual total aid to all levels of education for same period.(for further information see Annex 10 and Annex 11).

From the above quotation, we can understand that the global average of 4-5 per cent of external assistance supported to primary education depicts that donor countries and development agencies have not considered assisting primary education to be a significant part of their mission.

Another short coming of external aid to education according to Lockheed and Others (1994:212) is that the effectiveness of aid depends not only on the volume of funds but also on the kind of assistance being given. For instance, from 1981 to 1986 little of these external aid to primary education was supported for the most cost-effective educational inputs(for details refer Annex 12).

For the sake of comparison according to these authors, from the external aid allocated to primary education for the same period above, it was only 19 per cent of all aid that devoted to the most cost-effective pedagogical inputs : teachers and text books; while 30 per cent are being observed by nonsalary recurrent expenditures that is used at the discretion of the recipient; and 30 per cent were allocated to infrastructure : buildings, furniture, and equipment (Lockheed and Others, 1994:212).

However, as different authorities and educational practitioners argue that in this new educational development paradigm, the imperative to build strong, sustainable, and good quality of primary education stipulate that former patterns of aid may no longer be appropriate for the urgent need, of developing countries. Hence, by recognizing the current challenges

facing educational development, external donors and NGOs should have to made the necessary adjustments and increase their support for broad programmes particularly to develop primary education.

Another drawbacks of external aid to education, according to Coombs and Hallak (1972:113) is that an ill-fitting educational model with an intention to transplant to the recipient country, which costs it more than it had never received. This happens, especially, when the aid doesn't fit the needs of the recipient nations, and this in turn imposes a heavy burden of operating costs on local educational budget. Hallak (1995:18) further elaborated that the case is particularly complex by stating culture of NGOs - management, operation, accountability, transparency, agenda, scope - may dominate and clash completely with the recipient government's culture. In this context, educational aid in the form of materials or equipment may also create other problems. With regards to this, such equipment, for example, science laboratory machines, different audio-visual materials, etc.- two basic questions need to be answered. First, even if say it is aid or gifts, can the recipient country afford in the long run to maintain both the technical and financial aspects ? Secondly, can the equipment be used by the teachers available and interpreted into the accepted curricula and teaching method (Mbamba, 1992:153-154).

The above two factors indicate that in order to put material resources and such different equipment to their best use, in the first place, the objective for which they are to be used must be clear. For that reason, in the urgent need to stimulate educational progress, recipient governments, particularly in developing countries, have to co-ordinate and control these external aid contributions by considering justification for the priority and problems encountered in their locality and by examining its high social rate of return to their nations.

For the proposed approach to be effective, therefore, the trends of external assistance towards primary education must be changed by targeting it more effectively in crucial for revitalizing primary education systems. In support of this, Lockheed and Others (1994:215-217) proposed that new priorities for donor support must begin to emphasize in the context of broad subsectoral development programmes instead of individual projects. To launch these programmes, it requires the joint effort of donors and recipient governments, particularly in defining investment priorities according to the country's situation, and specify a policy framework.

To summarize, although most developing countries still require external support for their efforts to expand coverage and improving quality for their educational systems, the determinants of progress are largely dependent on the existing physical, economic, and social institutions and resources of the society. Otherwise, there has been an erosion of national sovereignty as educational priorities in particular and economic policy in general are designed by external donors at their disposal (Fowler, 1992:26). Therefore, sound programmes to develop primary education typically require careful coordination of the concerned actors through sharing responsibilities and care should be taken not to demotivate of the community effort. In general, it is obvious that such external aid or inputs should be sought out, and must be in line with the general interest of the society and especially the national educational policy as well as that of the institutions involved.

2.5. Managing Educational Programmes in NGO-Run Projects

Before going into the details as to how to prepare development projects, it will be imperative to deal briefly of the domain under consideration, particularly to define what project cycle is all about.

In light of this, authorities in the field of development have suggested several points to describe the various progress of the project cycle as taking place in several distinct stages. Regarding this point, Baum and Tolbert (1985:334) and Magnen (1991:26-31) stated that these stages are commonly referred to as the “project cycle” namely : Identification, Preparation, Appraisal, Negotiation, Implementation (or Management), and Evaluation. According to the above authors, the distinctions between the various stages are not always sharply drawn; because each stage is the logical successor of the preceding one, they are closely linked to each other and follow a logical progression to provide the basis for renewal of the cycle through subsequent project work.

Reaching the various stages of the project is thus invaluable in providing a logical frame work and sequences within which investment priorities established, project alternatives considered, and sector policy issues addressed. Managing educational programmes, particularly in NGO-run projects demands therefore different mechanisms in co-ordinating the activities of different organizations, departments, and individuals who contribute to its execution in such a way as to achieve the established objectives.

In relation to this, Bhola (1992:65); Thompson (1990:5); and UNESCO (1992:35) stated that project management varies according to the situation, nature, and objectives it is aiming to attain or with a view to achieving established objectives. However, nowadays, it is rare to find a development project which does not include participation or an approach of a participatory nature. In this context, participation has an all embracing nature, it can take many forms and can occur at different phases in the life span of a particular project. Stated differently, “participation can - and should - characterize all stages of the project cycle” (Baum and Tolbert, 1985:479). Hence, for the purpose of this study, among some of the techniques of management, participatory approach will be dealt with by reviewing some of the different stages typically important for this study.

2.5.1. The Process of Planning

Grieshaber (1994:142) stated that participatory planning is a process that requires decision making by community who participate in a project on how to use resources and plan activities to arrive at the intended objectives. In addition, planning process requires deciding on the best alternatives that ensure the attainment of goals set by the partners in the project works. In view of this, in order to identify major priorities or potential projects, it is often necessary to respond to problems or constraints from economic, social or regional inequalities caused by shortages of essential facilities, services, and material or human resources and by institutional or other obstacles (Hellinger, 1987:141).

For that reason, the priority of a project must be expressed by its objectives. More specifically, according to Magnen (1991:59) effective participatory planning, particularly in educational projects, must be adhere to and fulfil the priority and feasibility criteria by stressing or asking the following questions.

- Is the project justified by priority needs or problems ?
- Does it respond to a demand on the part of future beneficiaries ?
- Is the project in conformity with the national policies and plans ?
- Is it educationally well designed ?
- Is it socially and politically acceptable ?

- Is its complexity in line with the administrative capacities of national staff ?
- Will the institutions created or the improvements introduced be lasting ?
- Is the project feasible in financial terms ?

In general, for a project affecting larger numbers of people to succeed, those people must understand and agree to its various features. Participatory planning and priority arrangements must, therefore, take into account of the community's values, beliefs, perceived needs, and goals.

2.5.2. Project Implementation or Management

As to Baum and Tolbert (1985:582) and Bhola (1992:40) implementation is the process of putting what has been planned into action. At the same time, projects should be designed with a view to how they will be implemented. In view of this, project implementation or management includes the implementation of all the investments and other actions provided for by the project : curriculum development, construction of buildings, introduction of different services and innovations, expanding and renovating existing facilities, purchase of equipment, training of staff, technical assistance, research or reform of administration institutions, and other miscellaneous services (Magnen, 1991:30; and Lockheed and Others, 1994:167-169).

It also involves monitoring the activity through which corrective measures are taken to overcome constraints in the process of implementation. It ends when the schools, in our context, or other institutions developed by the project can function properly.

Hence, there must be a close match between a project's objectives and the capacity of local institutions to implement, operate, and maintain it. To accomplish the task, it is almost a requirement that good projects are associated with good managers. The influence of the quality of management on project performance is usually visible. Regarding this Baum and Tolbert (1985:369) stated that many projects in serious difficulty during implementation have been turned around by the appointment of a competent manager. If this is done, care should be taken that it does not delay the development of local managerial capacity but rather fosters it through counterpart and on-the-job training arrangements. The best long term solution, however, lies in the education and training of more managers, which can take several forms,

from special short courses to the establishment of management institutes (Goodhand and Chamberlain, 1996:219-224).

On the other hand, the first and probably most important reason for success is strong and sustained commitment by the government(at regional or national level) to the project's objectives. This is complex matter, not always readily discernible, that all development projects, whether in the public, private sector or projects supported by NGOs, are intimately affected by the government macro-economic policies and by the legislative and regulatory framework embodying those policies. This point is well substantiated gain by Honadle and Sant as quoted by Jember Tefera (1996:92), who say:

All development projects exist within national political and economic settings that affect their performance and potential. Indeed, the chances for success are low for even a carefully designed and well-implemented project when it exists in an unfavourable political and economic environment.

It is often difficult, therefore, to separate the impact of government action on institutional performance from its impact on project performance in general. It is important to recognize here, that the government is not of course a monolithic entity; but rather several agencies, each with a number of key individuals, are usually involved. What is more, especially, an education project can be managed by many organizations : by the staff itself, by the external aid source or NGOs financing it, by another public body, or by the combined efforts of these parties. In this regard, ensuring effective coordination in implementation when several agencies or organizations are responsible for different components of a project is inherently difficult. In order to provide valid answers to these pitfalls, from the vary outset the project objectives should give enough attention and efforts to ensure that all of the concerned parties who will be engaged in its implementation and practical operations so as to share a common view of the objectives and of the strategy for meeting them (Baum and Tolbert, 1985:340).

In order to facilitate coordination among the various tasks and their executors, first and foremost, mutual commitment and support is needed between the relevant political authorities and the ultimate beneficiaries, whose active participation is often important for the success of a project. Similarly, the same applies to the external agency or NGOs that may be expected to help finance the project. Nevertheless, the lack of such coordination or failure to reach a mutual understanding of a project's objectives and to secure a firm commitment from all the

parties concerned will have adverse effect on the implementation of the programmes for the enhancement of the nation's educational development.

Accordingly, to ensure commitment, an internal consensus should be built as early as possible and some coordination mechanisms must be found to maintain it during implementation. Among those that should be considered as the basic requirements are a clear definitions of the responsibilities of each of the participating agencies and adequate orientation for them to cooperate in achieving the project's objectives (Magnen, 1991:112-114). Moreover, probably the most important reason for the success of a project is appropriate design and adequate preparation that are particularly adapted to local political, administrative, economic, cultural conditions, and other related factors emerge as essential ingredients of successful implementation. Finally, project implementation or coordination is not an end in itself. At the end of this stage, the new entities should be able to function on their own, without additional investment or assistance. For that reason, the process has to be checked regularly and the outcomes have to be weighed in terms of the intended objectives.

2.5.3. Monitoring and Evaluation of Projects

Monitoring is a system or the provision of continuous information to enable management to assess progress of implementation; either to detect potential or actual problems in the course of execution in order to apply timely remedies or decision to ensure that progress is maintained according to schedule (Oakley, 1988:8; and Magnen, 1991:117). In addition, as Baum and Tolbert (1985:362) stated, monitoring can be a relatively straight forward and inexpensive system that provides an early warning to project management about potential or actual problems. This allows the concerned authorities or officers to detect difficulties quickly, so as to apply early remedies. In view of this, monitoring is concerned with a short-period performance of the programme or project. It is an internal programme activity and an integral part of management.

On the other hand, evaluation focuses on relevance, effectiveness and impact of any programme with the objective of improving projects or programmes that currently exist and that of the future ones (Magnen, 1991:118). Moreover, as suggested by Drabek (1987:xi), evaluation might begin with four main components :

1. What was achieved in terms of concrete results ?
2. Education : Who was conscientized ?

3. Organization : Was this strengthened ?
4. Alternative strategies : How was this different from other approaches (e.g., government) to development ?

Thus, evaluation as it is applied to programmes or projects is concerned with measurement and assessment of the value of the attainment. For that reason, evaluation is concerned with a long term results of a programme or a project. Accordingly, any development agencies, particularly involved in empowerment work at the grassroots level, should repeatedly ask how the development intervention is affecting the various aspects of the lives of the people directly involved. Especially in our context, educational authorities, together with NGOs, might consider the possibility of comparative issue or sector specific studies of NGOs activities rather than using the more common case by case, project by project approach (Rowlands, 1995:107).

On the other hand, Webb and Others (1995:xiv) noted that project evaluation requires clearly stated objectives for each project type and a well-defined evaluation methodology. As a result, most education projects, particularly those with innovative or experimental features, should include some procedure for ongoing monitoring or evaluation process. This might cover special studies to assess the impact of a particular intervention, for instance, measuring the gains in student achievement from instructional radio programmes, as in the Philippines; or tracking the course of implementation of educational reform, as in the Haiti; or monitoring the delivery of educational supplies and materials, as in Ethiopia; or assessing improvements in the context of textbooks, as in Guatemala (Baum and Tolbert, 1985: 145).

Among the various models of monitoring and evaluation process, the participatory evaluation that reflect the empowerment process is highly essential, particularly in implementing the educational programme assuming that it may enhance development programme of the nation. In relation to this, Baum and Tolbert (1985:482) stressed that beneficiaries, being on the spot, are well situated to check on construction and equipment delivery; to determine whether reports of performance by technical agencies are accurate, and to suggest ways of dealing with problems. For that reason, local communities need to be involved in the identification of appropriate indicators of change, and in the setting of criteria for evaluating impact. At the more operational level, self-evaluation, as a formal exercise rather than ad hoc one, ensures that they measure their own performance in terms of impact and efficiency.

In general, project monitoring and evaluation are usually considered as valuable management tools for the successful implementation of projects. Thus, these activities provide information to help managers and policy-makers guide the course of project implementation and modify it as necessary. They also build and institutionalize the capacity to collect and evaluate information.

2.5.4. Common Problems of Education Project

Generally speaking, educational programmes comprise a series of planned activities or a set of projects with a broader scope and with a varying degree in terms of their organic structure and functioning. In view of this, education projects exhibit variability in terms of their objectives, and of their domain of action, or their action to justify that it has high priority for the country's development (Magen, 1991:20). For that reason, when we are examining or looking at the evolution of educational projects financed by different agencies or NGOs, one can distinguish or sort out that the problems confronted in the course of implementation are many and overlapping; and faces a different range of choices and challenges in search for achieving greater impact.

For many of the same reasons, it is very difficult to pinpoint all the difficulties or constraints encountered that govern all educational projects as a group; at the same time, since they operate differently it is almost difficult to propose any collective solutions that have a bearing on the project's success. Of course, here we can find some common problems or similarities in terms of a wider picture that prevent development but it might be with different direction and intensity. Nevertheless, regardless of the difficulties, we can understand that varied problems of projects prevail at all stages (project cycle). This is especially true that all the projects encounter difficulties in the course of their implementation, and some of these are unforeseeable. Based on this, some of the common problems encountered in the course of project implementation as identified by many authors can be summarized into the following broad categories.

As to managerial (institutional) problems concerned, the poor record of many donor funded project for many developing countries, especially in Africa, is often blamed on institutional weaknesses. But those resulting from inefficient project management are the most pervasive and are more frequent institutional problems or pitfalls that might be hindered to run all the projects (Fisher and Others, 1996:217). Based on the experiences and evaluations of many

projects in the past, Baum and Tolbert (1985:373) and Magnen (1991:114-115) confirmed that these managerial or institutional problems, particularly encountered in educational projects, are often the root cause of implementation delays and cost overruns. Accordingly, these execution delays are often resulted, among other things: due to the inadequate planning; failure to obtain necessary legislation; delays in land acquisition so as to get the authorization or approval for the project; insufficient project supervision or passivity in the face of events damaging to the project; slow response to change in the policy environment; slowness of bureaucracies be it that of the government or the donor result from a shortage of budget allocation or other, etc.

Within this institutional problems, many problems can and do arise , for instance, in procuring or operating equipment, poor quality of materials, technical defects in design, mistakes in the installation and start-up of equipment, unsuitability of imported equipment for local conditions, or otherwise inappropriate technology for the particular circumstances of a country, or region, etc. are usually encountered and considered as technical or design problems (Baum and Tolbert, 1985:374).

In relation to coordination problems, Goodhand and Chamberlain (1996:204) stated that NGOs working at the grassroots level have demonstrated a remarkable inability to coordinate their activities and virtually no improvement was noted over the years particularly to avoid duplication efforts. This lack of coordination and unified strategies amongst the NGOs was noted at many conferences of NGOs and donors and revealed that the fundamental challenges facing many of the agencies was the question of how the effectiveness of their work should be assessed.

In support of the above point, as Bills and Mackeith indicated in Edwards and Hulme (1994:121), in some instances, we can find that “poverty increased as a project progressed”. In the area of project work, they found that the main problem for the failure of the many to achieve its objectives is that because of their difficulties in identifying reliable measures for evaluating the impact of interventions.

Moreover, as World Bank (1996:234) stated, difficulties that have been encountered in participatory projects include

- delays in implementation and dependence on charismatic project leaders;
- the risk of abuse by individuals, local elite, or interested groups in terms of the potential for misuse of funds;
- commitment to the process of dialogue among the groups of the community, NGOs and other agencies; coupled with political will on the part of central government or local authorities involves its own risks;
- In most instances, the timing and possibility of reaching consensus among key actors are uncertain;
- political conflicts are also liable to be exposed;
- the risks of expensive failure of projects or lack of sustainability may not be recognized until (or after) significant investment is complete;
- obstacles include existing national policy and legislative frameworks; and
- a tendency on the part of external agencies or NGOs to control rather than to facilitate may make participation more or less difficult to achieve.

On the other hand, the generic situation is also aggravated by political problems; and it is especially challenging in the unstable environments that often prevail in developing countries. In strengthening this point, Baum and Tolbert (1985:375) substantiates by saying the following statement.

Even in the absence of such obvious disruptions as wars and serious internal upheavals, political problems are at the heart of many of the difficulties experienced by projects.

In a similar manner, evaluations conducted in different countries also revealed that “it is practically impossible for an educational project to achieve its objectives if the policies followed are ill-adapted” unless it is shaped and justify in such a way that is simultaneously rational, flexible, and adaptable to changing situations (Magen, 1991:25).

Further more, due to the problems of imbalance between the national investment plan and available resources, associated with other varied factors, financial difficulties are common in every sphere of human endeavour for development. And particularly developing countries is

highly affected by their shortage of financial resources and their problems of proper utilization of these available resources (Coombs and Hallak, 1972:99). What ever the reasons, the consequences are similar with that of other problems : physical delays in project implementation, cost overruns, reductions in the scope of the project, and deferred implementation of institutional and policy reforms(Baum and Tolbert, 1985:371-373).

All in all, given the scope and the complexity of the education sector in general, it is often necessary to conduct a study; to examine the education sector as a whole, in order to identify major pitfalls encountered in the past. At the same time, there is a need to understand areas of potential problems that might be especially useful for educational reform projects.

In summary, there is no simple formula for success. Each project faces a unique set of circumstances, many of which can be foreseen and controlled but some of which can not. In this case, effective project planning, design, and implementation lie at the heart of successful projects. If their presence cannot always guarantee success, their absence is almost certain to lead to failure. Thus, achieving educational change requires, among other things, a management approach that explicitly recognizes the need to manage uncertainty.

2.6. NGO and Government Relationships

It is important to recognize here that relations between NGOs and governments vary drastically from region to region and from country to country (even among NGOs) on the historical, political, and ideological differences. In general, both government organizations and NGOs often share a mutual suspicious view. In the first place, most NGOs have been suspicious of governments, their relationships are “often sensitive, sometimes difficult” (Elliott, 1987:63); “varying between benign neglect and outright hostility” (Edwards and Hulme, 1994:16); and “one of animosity or distrust” (Garilao, 1987:116).

On the other side, a government actions can range from permitting the third sector (NGOs) considerable operational freedom as Garilao (1987:116) stated, “one of open collaboration” at one extreme; to viewing the sector as a threat to national security and actively discouraging it at the other extreme (Hulme, 1994:264; and Gary, 1996:156). To substantiate the problem, Edwards and Hulme (1994:16) linked up the relationship of governments with NGOs, particularly in Africa, as comparable to the cat and mouse game. In addition to the hostility towards foreign NGOs, governments often share a similarly suspicious view of indigenous NGOs. Regarding this point, Garilao (1987:117) noted that tensions between local NGOs and

their governments can be traced to a number of factors : differences in values and ideology; differences in development priorities; and differences in development approaches. Similarly, as Landim (1987:36) stated, even the NGOs themselves criticized in their lack of coordination among the international cooperation agencies, on the one hand, and between them and local NGOs on the other.

In this trend, Howell (1995:12) warns that even in the near future smooth relationship prospects between NGOs and governments still look gloomy and it will be continue for many reasons. This is partly, he continue, because of a lack of experience from government part with foreign NGOs; partly because of an ideological concern that some of these organizations may be seeking either to try to persuade others to accept one's own beliefs, for instance, Christian faith etc., or organize opposition to the existing government. In addition, it might become because of a long-standing suspicion of foreigners which dates back to the colonial era, particularly in Africa. The problem of NGOs-state collaboration can be traced or viewed also from the structural, functional aspect or responsibilities, and organizational framework subjecting these institutions in general.

When we examine from the structural and organizational point of view, the most important factors aggravated the problems of collaboration is that many perceived government structures are often rigid, hierarchical, and autocratic. They have a natural tendency to centralization, bureaucracy; at the same time, power and control rest at the topmost level where programmes are designed and resources allocated. On the other hand, NGOs are perceived to be (or should be ?) distinguished by their flexibility, willingness to innovate, and emphasis on the non-hierarchical values and relationships required to promote true partnership and participation (Edwards and Hulme, 1994:16).

Moreover, when we look into their functional aspects and responsibilities, most of the governments remain largely responsible for overall aspects of the country and provide all the service such like health, education, agriculture, and other services and sectors on which people rely according to their political and ideological frame work (Frantz, 1987:122-123). As a result, the government remains the ultimate arbiter and determinant of the wider political changes on which sustainable development depends. In this sense, governments have often a broader reach than NGOs. NGOs, on the other hand, necessarily have more restricted and localized perspectives. While this remain true, NGOs ignore government structures at their peril. In spite of the fact that NGOs involve on a supportive, and at times complementary role

vis-à-vis government, they take the position or perceive that government cannot do anything right; is not structurally relevant and will never be responsive to the needs of the people (Garilao, 1987:116-117).

However, under normal condition, the government conceives of development in national terms, whereas NGOs, although they are not without this view, think of it more in partial terms, since they respond to localized interests of specific parts of civil society. Nonetheless, since governments act broadly, they lack effectiveness in certain areas or with certain social groups (Garilao, 1987:116). By generalizing, governments lose depth, objectivity, and efficiency. Similarly, while NGOs acting at a micro-level manage to join efficiency and efficacy; their action might lack efficacy too at the macro-level. It is these differences largely takes the form of subjecting these institutions to various forms of external pressure and leads to protect to one another (Edwards and Hulme, 1994:16-17).

To solve the problems, sometimes governments realize their weakness and allow NGOs to fill the gaps created over broad development goals. On this lines it is thought that NGOs, as sources of funding, by providing resources and fill the gaps created by governments, it is expected to lessen the friction within NGOs - governments relationships. Even at present, we can observe that the relationship between the governments and NGOs in developing countries has grown due to these political, economic, and organizational reasons (Marcussen, 1996:75-76).

On the other hand, World Bank (1996:245) reported that most of the time, the problems encountered between NGOs and governments are mainly due to simple lack of communication and this in turn often responsible for mistrust and misunderstanding about the other's objectives, concerns, and constraints. Due to these differences, in some countries where there is no major political turbulence but with varied conflicting objectives, NGO consciously seek to work on joint projects by reaching a consensus among key actors; derive much support and encouragement from their government; they are registered with the government and tend to work in close collaboration. On the other instance, NGOs and other grassroots voluntary movements, in a country where a consensus is hard to find, have functioned historically as an opposition to governments and consciously avoid close working relationships with those governments.

Given the above scenario, conceptually and even practically, there is no consensus among researchers, practitioners, and officials of NGOs and government organizations (GOs) concerning the patterns of organizational relationships that should be adopted in the politics of NGO-GO relationships.

At one extreme, some authors argue that closer cooperation with governments has great contributions to the success of NGOs' projects (Drabek, 1987:xiv). According to this approach, much emphasis was placed on the potential impact of NGOs on public policy through interaction with their governments. However, some NGO leaders were wary of this, on the assumption that such collaboration might inhibit their independence and leads eventually leaving the NGO-sector to join government either as development advisors or political leaders (Drabek, 1987:xiv).

At other extreme, some indicate that such closer collaborations with governments erode NGOs' credibility, responsibility or accountability, and independence (Fowler, 1992:27; Hulme, 1994:264; and Marcussen, 1996:418). Due to this reason, NGOs themselves placed great emphasis on remaining detached from governments but playing an increasing role in trying to influence government development strategies: through national and regional cooperation among NGOs, through provision of and participation in different direction, being outside of the government structures.

Between two extremes, the medium level proponents recommend that there should be an appropriate or reasonable division of responsibilities and duties between governments and NGOs for balanced cooperation without infringing the autonomy of each actors (Drabek, 1987:xiv; Bratton, 1989:572-573; and Lee, 1994:169).

Others, while accepting the necessary formal communication requirements, when the role of NGOs are frequently challenged by governments' unwillingness to open the political space, NGOs might be shifted to the state of co-optation. In this sense, co-optation refers to the process of absorbing new elements into the leadership or policy determining structure and organizations as a means of averting threats to its stability of existence. Co-optation, however, taken as a last resort to NGOs to survive or make themselves redundant (Gary, 1996:150).

In other instances, the politics of NGO-GO relationship is characterized by selective collaboration. This framework tries to strike a balance between the above roles. It refers to playing a new game by old rules, that is, NGOs' balancing act of exploiting the 'economy of

affection' of governments without being 'colonized' by them (Paul, 1988:66; and Goodhand and Chamberlain, 1996:200-201). However, many practitioners in the field stated that selectivity during organizational interaction is a highly one-sided choice which fails to consider the reaction of other key partners. At the same time, the line which separates between what is selective and what is not is blurred (Bratton, 1989, 572-573; and Goodhand and Chamberlain, 1996:200-201).

From the above clarifications, one can infer that there is much divergence of opinion and interest over how and why NGOs should work with governments. It is in the careful management of these differences that we can speak of managing the relationship between GOs and NGOs. Therefore, since constructive engagement is becoming increasingly preferable, there should have to be some room for manoeuvre in the NGO-GO interaction that could enhance the impact of both parties and provide more opportunities for dialogue.

A starting point might be to introduce mechanisms towards a new form of engagement, that is, to formulate working principles for peace building that comprise a broader long-term and more flexible relationship between NGOs and GOs; at the same time, more informed political analysis regarding the relationships is vital (Goodhand and Chamberlain, 1996:205-206). Then if this is the case and, if NGOs are to increase the input of their work through legal reform, in the first place, it is helpful and perhaps essential that they become accepted and trusted partners of government. Consequently, there are sound reasons particularly for NGOs to enter into a positive and creative relationship with the institutions of both regional and national government.

As Webb and Others (1995:9) stated, NGOs work in geographic areas where the presence of the state may be attenuated, have an advantage to the government's priority target populations particularly in : (1) extending the coverage of government programmes and expanding capacity; (2) providing complementary services; and (3) obtaining needed expertise not available within the ministry or locally.

To do this tasks, therefore, there are three areas of concern for NGOs in managing their relationships with government, as Garilao (1987:117) enumerated as follows.

- First, NGO must show and called upon to demonstrate more clearly their use to the poor population. It is at this stage that the NGOs develop an expertise and offer a service or a

range of services relevant to the community and be able to do this within the context of the local power structure.

- Second, once NGOs have proven that it can deliver effective services at lower costs, then, there is an opportunity to transfer this approach to the other government institutions with greater impact potential.
- Third, since NGOs have the necessary experience, expertise base and constituency from the local community to better utilize governments for broader impact, they should have proven their credibility in relation to their organization and programmes and to move more readily into the policy making arena : policy advocacy.

Based on this and through the use of local power structure, an increasing number of NGOs have acknowledged this trend and are working actively within ministries to foster changes in policy and practice at various levels. However, in strengthening overall linkage particularly in developing countries, many experts and practitioners in the field suggested that three way cooperation among key actors : local and external NGOs, the government, and the local community - with clearly defined division of tasks in the light of their role and area of assignments - is crucial for successful development work.

In support of this point, Drabek (1987:xiv); Elliott (1987:63); and Bebbington (1997:1763) stressed that since the local NGOs have the power and access to influence at the grassroots level; where external NGOs have the potential in terms of financial and human resources; and the government gives such operations legitimacy and sanction - then a “code of conduct” for use by both in forging a more productive, collaborative relationship should be considered. For that reason, relations between external and local NGOs on the one hand, and governments with NGOs in general must be based on an equal partnership, incorporating a new sense of solidarity, transparency, mutual accountability, responsiveness and risk-sharing; rather than keeping a distance the fray and paying lip-service to neutrality (Goodhand and Chamberlain, 1996:205).

To conclude, both when it comes to planning and implementation of different programmes and projects, external donors and NGOs should have to establish proper linkages in their area of assignment and to operate particularly along side the national administration of the recipient countries (Tvedt, 1994:161). In this case, an integration of development efforts in

the countries own plans is the only way to secure that local authorities obtain control over their own development, and that they take responsibility for the priorities that they made.

To do this tasks, the constraints and difficulties of the government system have to be accepted, first, by those concerned NGOs as a starting point. Eventually, there must be created successful GO-NGO partnership so as to ensure that NGO expatriate inputs really do have a lasting impact when faced with such a range of constraints and challenges.

CHAPTER THREE

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

In chapter two, we have discussed alternative theories and lessons of experience regarding the role of NGOs in financing investments in education and their interaction with governmental organizations and communities. The discussion centered around a comparative analysis of the relative roles and performance of these entities in terms of effective need assessment, coordination and implementation of educational projects. The empirical validity and robustness of the alternative hypotheses and views discussed in the last two chapters would be tested in this chapter using both primary and secondary data.

Primary data has been collected using questionnaires prepared for this purpose, structured and unstructured interviews, and direct observation by the author. In addition to this, secondary sources of data, mainly reports and internal documents of the relevant NGOs and government agencies, have been used. The characteristics of the sample surveyed using questionnaires is described in the first section of this chapter. We then proceed to data analysis on the role of the actors (community, governmental, and non-governmental organizations) in need assessment, project/program design, and implementation of educational projects.

3.1. General Characteristics of the Respondents

Questionnaires were distributed to 181 employees of governmental organizations and 35 employees of NGOs, and a response rate of 92 and 91 percent was achieved. Governmental agencies included in the study are the Regional Education and Planning and Economic Development Bureau, three Zone Education and Planning and Economic Development Departments, seven Woreda Education Offices, and 41 primary schools.

The major characteristics of individuals in the sample is summarized in Table 1 below. A striking feature is the dominance of males among the technical staff of both governmental and non-governmental organizations involved in education-related activities: there are only 4 women in a sample of 199 employees. Gender composition in NGOs is more balanced with women accounting for 9.4 percent of NGO employees— 3 of the 4 female employees are in NGOs. In terms of age, about three-quarters of the respondents are older than 30 years of age. The age distribution of employees in governmental organizations exhibits a relatively heavier

upper end compared to NGOs. Within governmental organizations, we observed a concentration of relatively older employees in higher levels of government—region and zones—compared to lower levels of government—woredas and schools.

The share of professionals (those with B.A./B.Sc. degrees and above) is much higher in NGOs. Close to one-half of the employees of NGOs, 43.75 percent, are professionals, 9.38 are semi-professionals (those with diplomas) and the remaining 46.87 percent are graduates of TTIs. An important reason in this case is that all 15 NGO respondents with TTI qualifications belong to only one NGO, that is, WLI/CSAP- worked in the BESO project as School Development Agents (SDAs). And they are recruited from among the primary school teachers of the locality so as to serve as a mediator for three groups: the school where the project is founded, the Woreda Education Office (WEO) and the organization who financed the project CSAP. Most of the professionals in government agencies are concentrated at the regional and zonal offices: there are 11 professionals in regional and zonal offices and only 4 in woredas and schools in the sample. Among employees of woredas and schools in the sample, 38.36 percent are graduates of TTIs, 56.85 are semi-professionals, and only 2.71 percent are professionals. This justifies that there is a serious shortage of qualified manpower at the grassroots level.

Table 1 indicated also that 87.5 per cent of NGO; all (100%) of the regional and zonal level; and 94.52 per cent of the woreda and school level respondents have a service of 6 - 20 years and beyond, which in turn shows that the majority of the respondents have long service and are well experienced. From table 1 the responses which inquired into the number of years of service of the respondents, it was found that all NGO field workers had served from 2 - 5 years, while 52.38 and 47.62 per cent of the respondents from the regional and zonal level served for 6 - 10 years and 1 - 5 years respectively. But the majority of the woreda and school level respondents (66.44%) had served for 6 and more years.

Table 1. General Information on the Respondents

Item	NGO		REB and ZED		WEOand school		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Sex								
• Male	29	90.63	21	100.00	145	99.32	195	97.99
• Female	3	9.38	0	0.00	1	0.68	4	2.01
Total	32	100.00	21	100.00	146	100.00	199	100.00
Age								
• 20–30 years	12	37.50	1	4.76	37	25.34	50	25.13
• 31–40 years	14	43.75	6	28.57	63	43.15	83	41.71
• Above 40 years	6	18.75	14	66.67	46	31.51	66	33.17
Total	32	100.00	21	100.00	146	100.00	199	100.00
Education								
• 12 th grade	0	0.00	0	0.00	3	2.05	3	1.51
• 12 th grade + 1	15	46.88	0	0.00	56	38.36	71	35.68
• TTI graduate	0	0.00	1	4.76	36	24.66	37	18.59
• Diploma graduate	3	9.38	9	42.86	47	32.19	59	29.65
• B.A./B.Sc. degree	11	34.38	10	47.62	4	2.74	25	12.56
• M.A./M.Sc. and above	3	9.38	1	4.76	0	0.00	4	2.01
Total	32	100.00	21	100.00	146	100.00	199	100.00
Total years of service								
• 1–5 years	4	12.50	0	0.00	8	5.48	12	6.03
• 6–10 years	13	40.63	1	4.76	28	19.18	42	21.11
• 11–15 years	10	31.25	4	19.05	32	21.92	46	23.12
• 16–20 years	3	9.38	5	23.81	49	33.56	57	28.64
• 21 years and above	2	6.25	11	52.38	29	19.86	42	21.11
Total	32	100.00	21	100.00	146	100.00	199	100.00
In-position years of service								
• 1–5 years	32	100.00	10	47.62	49	33.56	91	45.73
• 6–10 years	0	0.00	11	52.38	26	17.81	37	18.59
• 11–15 years	0	0.00	0	0.00	23	15.75	23	11.56
• 16–20 years	0	0.00	0	0.00	26	17.81	26	13.07
• 21 years and above	0	0.00	0	0.00	22	15.07	22	11.06
Total	32	100.00	21	100.00	146	100.00	199	100.00

Although NGOs have participated in different ways in the development programmes and operating in the country, their main role has been as project executors; and more specifically, they mainly involved in the country's urgent poverty alleviation needs. In this capacity, they have served as a mechanism for rapid donations to target groups.

Based on this, at present the Regional Planning and Economic Development Bureau (RPEDB), which was appointed and has a mandate for organizing and managing NGOs in the region, has approved 54 NGOs from the total of 61 registered in the region. The other seven NGOs are in the process to sign the project agreement with concerned offices (for further detailed information refer to Annex 13).

Among the NGOs who have project agreement, 47 of them have started to execute 248 projects in different development programmes by allocating adequate resources in their respective areas. All in all, 61 NGOs found in the region have started to implement 266 projects in 17 sectors or programme areas for a project duration from year 1996 through 2000 (See Table 2 and Table 3 below).

Accordingly when we examine the share of development intervention programmes in different sectors as shown in table 2, NGO participation is greatest in the health sector, where 38 (33.04%) of the total NGOs in the region execute 78 (29.32%) projects; 25 NGOs (21.74%) are executing 62 projects (23.31%) in agriculture; and 24 NGOs (20.87%) implemented 67 projects in education that accounted for about 25.19 per cent of the total projects implemented in different zones and special woredas of the region.

Furthermore, in terms of area (zones and special woredas), among those mentioned, table 3 indicates that North Omo with 22 NGOs (18.18%); Guraghe with 20 NGOs (16.53%), and Sidama with 17 NGOs (14.05%) have advantage of participation that account for 59, 48.76 per cent, and this is almost half of the 121 NGOs found in the region in general.

Table 2. NGO Participation by Sector or Development Programmes and Project in SNNPR (As of 1999)

Sector or Programme	NGOs		NGO Projects	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Education	24	20.87	67	25.19
Health	38	33.04	78	29.32
Agriculture	25	21.74	62	23.31
Water	18	15.65	42	15.80
Industry	1	0.87	4	1.50
Relief	2	1.73	3	1.12
Different Development Programmes	7	6.10	10	3.76
Total	115	100.00	266	100.00

Source: SNNPRG. (1998) "SNNPRG: A Socio - Economic Profile": RPEDB. pp. 159–161.

Moreover, as one can see from the figure given in table 3, out of the total NGOs who are participating in different sectors of the region, there is high concentration of projects in the above three zones. As mentioned earlier they implement 53 (19.92%), 44(16.54%), and 28(10.52%) of projects respectively. And, this figure accounts for 125 projects, 46.99 per cent, which means it represented nearly half of the total 266 projects in the region. However, KAT zone ranked third before Sidama in terms of number of projects implemented in the region (11.28%).

In terms of the number of NGOs committed to education sector in the region, we can observe from table 3 that the number of NGOs involved particularly in education and related activities many are concentrated in Sidama zone with 12 NGOs (17.91%), 11 NGOs in North Omo with 16.42 per cent, and 8 NGOs (11.94%) in Guraghe zone respectively. Surprisingly, out of the total number of NGOs involved in the education sector in the region, the above three zones have got also the upper hand with 31 NGOs (46.27%), almost half of the total 67 NGOs participating in the sector.

Table 3. NGO-Participation in SNNPR's Overall Development Programme and in Education (As of March 1999)

Zone/Special Wereda	Number of NGOs		Total No. of Projects		NGO-executed sectors and programme areas	NGOs in Education		Total Budget	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent		Number	Per cent	Birr	Per cent
Sidama	17	14.05	28	10.52	7	12	17.91	6,604,629	1.50
Hadiya	9	7.44	23	8.65	8	6	8.96	5,400,347	1.22
Guraghe	20	16.53	44	16.54	9	8	11.94	21,749,776	4.91
BenchMaji	6	4.96	17	6.39	4	2	2.98	134,005,885	30.23
KaffaShaka	6	4.96	9	3.38	5	2	2.98	88,868,574	20.05
S.Omo	9	7.44	25	9.40	8	5	7.46	48,111,289	10.85
N.Omo	22	18.18	53	19.92	12	11	16.42	49,182,024	11.10
KAT	11	9.09	30	11.28	9	6	8.96	24,716,399	5.58
Gedeo	4	3.31	10	3.76	4	4	5.97	51,134,208	11.54
Konso*	4	3.31	5	1.88	3	2	2.98	1,179,820	0.26
Amaro*	4	3.31	8	3.01	4	3	4.48	704,635	0.16
Derashe*	4	3.31	8	3.01	4	3	4.48	10,214,211	2.30
Burji*	3	2.48	5	1.88	4	2	2.98	1,397,500	0.31
Yem*	2	1.65	1	0.38	1	1	1.49	—	—
Total	121 ^a	100.00	266	100.00	83	67	100.00	443,269,297	100.00

Source: SNNPRG. (1998). "SNNPRG: A Socio-Economic Profile." RPEDB. p. 162.

* These are special weredas.

^a In absolute terms, the total number of NGOs that registered and participate in the region is 61; however, several NGOs have executed more than one programmes or projects in different areas (i.e. zones and weredas).

The total allocated budget for project implementation in the region is about ETB 443,269,297; and compared in size with the total capital budget of the REB in general, including external loans and assistance, it would be almost four times, that is, more than the budget of 4 years of the region. To make a comparison, the capital budget of REB of the two years are presented in Annex 14.

When we are discussing in terms of finance, though common project budget is not included in the total budget and it is difficult to compare the total budget allotted to each sector or sub-sector, based on the existing data presented in table 3 above, Bench maji with 30.23 per cent, Kaffa - Shaka with 20.05 per cent, and Gedeo zone with 11.54 per cent with a total of 61.82 per cent - which means nearly two third of the total budget were allotted to these three zones and ranked first, second, and third from the region respectively.

In view of the project duration from 1996 through the year 2000, the document of NGO-desk in the RPEDB confirmed, out of these total budget allotted to implement different projects in the region, in 1998/99, 24 projects, almost 10 per cent of the total 266 projects are now in progress in different zones and special woredas of the region.

To come to the central point of this study, even if sufficient data is lacking with regard to the total budget allotted for PEDPs particularly and for educational system in general; based on the aggregate budget allotted for all zones and special woredas, we can summarize indirectly from table 3 that the education sector of the region is far down of the list of priorities for NGOs' expenditure.

To cite an instance, on the one hand, as indicated in table 2 and table 3, we can understand simply by comparing the data from the figures given among different sectors and programmes, NGOs participation in the education sector ranked almost second next to health sector with 24 NGOs (20.87%) of the total NGOs in the region to execute 67 projects (25.19%) one fourth of the total projects implemented in the region.

Similarly, if we examine the target areas (zones) of this study Sidama, Hadiya, and Guraghe represented one third of all NGOs who participated in the region, i.e., 46 NGOs (38.02%) with 95 projects that accounts for 35.71 per cent of the total projects implementing in the different zones and special woredas of the region. More surprisingly, table 3 depicts also that, out of these mentioned total NGOs and projects implemented in the education sector, there is

much coverage of NGO services in the above three target zones - with 26 NGOs out of 67 that accounts above one third (38.81%) of the total number of NGOs involved in educational activities in the region.

Nevertheless, despite the greatest coverage of NGOs and their projects were seemingly attributable to the above target zones, when we examine the aggregate budget allotment, in round figures, 46 NGOs provided 7.63 per cent of the region total budget to implement 95 projects; while those represented with few NGOs figures - 16 NGOs (13.23%) to execute 36 projects (13.53%) of the total 266 projects - approved financing ETB 274,008,667 which accounts for 61.82 per cent of the total budget allotted for the region.

On the other side, the flow of external assistance to education on the aggregate was not only small during the last two or three years, but also declining, for example through 1997/98 to 1998/99. To cite an instance, even though external assistance comes from different directions and sources other than the existing NGOs aid in the region, for the sake of comparison and to adjust for the sharp amount changes and impact in the level of support provided, as shown in annex 14, two years running average of aid flows to the region were calculated (see also figure one and two in annex 15 and 16).

Accordingly, these data show that external assistance in the form of capital budget of education to the region in general declined by 9 per cent from 1997/98 to 1998/99 budget year. At the same time, according to the main focus of this study, the researcher tried to get further information about the trend of these NGOs participation particularly to primary education sub-sector in the target areas of the region. However, let alone to provide with full information about the involvement of NGOs in general, they didn't have well documented materials; even the little information that is available in these organs of government didn't indicate separately about each and every sub-sectors and results of NGO participation in the respective areas.

Nonetheless, to compare these data with those presented by REB and NGOs, attempts were made by the researcher to know the problems regarding the above point in the respective planning and economic development departments at regional and zonal level. As a result, it was indicated that, since its inception, the involvement of most of the NGOs in the region was initiated in response to the severe drought occurred for many consecutive years in the past. Due to the then pressure, therefore, this could be one of the reasons for higher concentrations

of NGOs on the drought prone areas and then continued to be involved in the areas for long-term development programmes without analyzing the priority areas or problems of other zones in the region.

It would be, therefore, possible to generalize from the data presented above that, although its effect on development in general has never been analyzed systematically and with full evidence, the maximum benefit, particularly in education sector, may not have been realized for two reasons: firstly, most of these assistance and provision of services were directed toward secondary and tertiary education, while primary education was generally neglected despite its great significance; secondly even the available share of assistance, support for the most cost effective educational inputs was small in quantity and poor in quality. Nevertheless, as to the results in terms of the impact of these NGOs on beneficiary participation, or the development impact of NGO-executed projects of the region on aggregate, further study may be necessary.

To sum up, unless and otherwise, the local authorities are involved in tackling the discrepancy in the benefits that resulted from the involvement of NGOs and their projects fairly among the different parts of the region; and encouraged to take a lead role in education policy formulation so that they control the outcome, their capacity to manage their education sector will not be developed. At the same time, if the existing situation continue, particularly the concentration of NGOs and their projects at a specific area as it was manifested in certain zones, then the quality of educational services will vary in different zones, depending on the external support available. And this situation as frequently people in Ethiopia comment "Donor X has bought District Y". Eventually, the resulting damage was extensive and create profound distrust among the local community in the region.

In general, it is necessary to devise measures between zone and special woredas, and within zones for investment in education which do not penalize or unduly favour specific zones or special woredas.

Table 4. Sample Results Concerning Type of Intervention by Actors

Serial No.	Item	Respondents											
		NGOs		Government Organizations								Total	
		No.	%	REB		ZED		WEO		School		No.	%
1	Which organization are engaged in providing services/assistance programmes for PEDPs in your area?												
	a. LNGOs	—		—		—		—		27	23.68	27	16.17
	b. ENGOS	—		—		2	12.5	9	28.12	56	49.12	67	40.12
	c. Both LNGOs and ENGOS	—		5	100	14	87.5	23	71.88	31	27.20	73	43.71
	Total	—		5	100	16	100.0	32	100	114	100.0	167	100.0
2	What kind of assistance do you get from this NGO intervention programmes?												
	a. Financial assistance	—		5	100	10	62.5	13	40.62	46	40.35	74	44.31
	b. Technical assistance	—		2	40.0	5	31.25	7	21.88	27	23.68	41	24.55
	c. Instructional materials, furniture and equipment	—		5	100	9	56.25	15	46.87	19	16.67	48	28.74
	d. Training	—		5	100	11	68.75	23	71.88	43	37.72	82	49.10
	e. Construction and maintenance of buildings	—		5	100	14	87.50	22	68.75	29	25.44	70	41.92
	Total	—		5	100	16	100	32	100	114	100	167	100
3	Is there any new educational inputs or technological equipment installed/introduced through PEDPs by NGOs?												
	a. Yes	5	15.62	2	40.0	6	37.5	15	46.87	45	39.47	73	36.68
	b. No	27	84.38	3	60.0	10	62.5	17	53.13	69	60.53	126	63.32
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.00	199	100.0
4	Do the potential beneficiaries get any training/ orientation as to how to operate the new educational inputs or projects by NGOs in their locality ?												
	a. Always	2	40.0	—	—	1	16.67	4	26.67	—	—	7	9.60
	b. Sometimes	—	—	1	50.0	3	50.0	4	26.67	21	46.67	29	39.72
	c. Rarely	2	40.0	1	50.0	2	33.33	7	46.66	23	51.11	35	47.94
	d. Not at all	1	20.0	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	2.22	2	2.74
	Total	5	10.0	2	100	6	100	15	100	45	100	73	100.0
5	How do NGOs channel their assistance to PEDPs?												
	a. through the local government	19	59.38	4	80.0	12	75.0	23	71.88	45	39.47	103	51.76
	b. through the NGOs themselves	7	21.88	4	80.00	11	68.75	15	46.87	41	35.96	78	39.20
	c. through handing over operational projects to local community	28	87.50	3	60.00	9	56.25	13	40.62	42	36.84	95	47.74
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0

It can be clearly seen in table 4 item 1 is that the majority of the respondents from government organizations (GOs) found in REB, ZED, and WEO (79.25%) indicated that both LNGOs and ENGOs are engaged in providing assistance programmes for PEDPs in their areas. Whereas, at the school level, it was found out that 27(23.68%), 56(49.12%), and 31(27.20%) of LNGOs, ENGOs, and both organizations are found and participating in PEDPs respectively in their areas.

Regarding the type or kind of assistance, it was reported that NGOs are participating in different programmes in the region: in constructing new schools, offices, libraries; rehabilitating and upgrading the existing schools; provision of furniture and equipment; capacity building at all levels in terms of training; productive activities projects such as coffee seedling plantation programme and the like. Moreover, as project executors, NGOs are responsible for promotion activities, identification or verification of beneficiaries, community organization training, technical assistance, and supervision in addition to the services that the project is designed to provide.

In general, as it is indicated in table 4 item 2 training assistance with 49.10 percent, financial assistance with 44.31 per cent, and infrastructure programme with 41.92 per cent are found to be the major development intervention areas that NGOs identified and involved in the education sector in general and PEDPs in particular in the region. However, the infrastructure programmes that are executed in the region can be classified as having two subprogrammes: Social and Economic infrastructure projects.

The social infrastructure projects comprise financing the rehabilitation, maintenance expansion, and construction of primary schools, offices, water and sewerage facilities, latrine (toilet) construction; and including other related infrastructure programmes such as roads, bridge construction and the like. While the economic infrastructure project includes the financing of public works and simple infrastructure ranging from the regional bureau to the grassroots level in general. Hence, one may safely generalize from the above information that NGOs have executed nearly every type of projects in the region.

On the other side, from table 4 the responses to item 3 which inquired whether or not new educational inputs or technological equipment introduced through PEDPs by NGOs, it was found that the majority of the respondents from both groups, 126 (63.32%), revealed that there was no such kind of services in their respective places. However, more than one third of

the total respondents from both side (36.68%) pointed out that there are such kind of services in their surroundings. In related matters, those respondents who reacted positively to the question found in table 4 item 3 were asked to specify whether or not the potential beneficiaries get any training as to how to operate the new educational inputs by NGOs in their locality. Accordingly, the responses from the NGOs were 40 per cent for it operates always as new educational inputs are introduced, while 40 and 20 per cent rarely and never did respectively. According to the responses of the government workers, however, the concerned NGOs sometimes make an effort to give training to their respective beneficiaries accounts for 42.65 per cent and they did rarely 48.53 per cent. In general, from the figures above we can understand that training on the required amount relative to the educational inputs by NGOs are never conducted or organized for potential beneficiaries to enable them improve on their jobs.

These respondents were also asked about how NGOs channel their assistance to PEDPs in that area. Accordingly, most of the responses from the NGO side as indicated in table 4 item 5 that in most cases the assistance are channeled through handing over of projects to local community accounts for 87.50 per cent; those respondents claimed it was conducted through the local government also represented 59.38 per cent; and though they are few 21.88 per cent of the respondents indicated that NGOs themselves involved in the process of channeling the assistance in their respective places.

In related matters, those employees of government ranging from the regional head bureau to school level reacted to the question in table 4 item 5 with similar understanding that assistance was channeled both through the local government, the NGOs themselves, and through handing over to local community which account for 50.3 per cent, 42.51 per cent, and 40.12 per cent respectively.

Here it should be important to recognize that the respective NGOs have the possibility of channeling their assistance both through different mechanisms mentioned earlier, and that is why the percentage of the total respondents exceeded more than the total number of both the NGOs and government employees. Therefore, a comparison of these data with those presented by GOs, an attempt was made to conduct an interview with those of NGO project directors in their respective places, and their responses are summarized as follows.

Regarding the projects conducted by WLI - USAID/ BESO project, under CSAP, the programme is implemented on the assumption of "working through the system". And based on this, both the REB and their respective departments and offices at lower levels including the BESO project plan negotiate on priority areas or needs of the locality; and executing the projects at the school level through the SAC members accordingly. For the purpose of facilitating the overall programme and for the purpose of monitoring the activities conducted in each and every school; there are school development agents (SDAs) who assigned by the CSAP so as to serve as a mediator for all actors involved in the project. In this regard, project ideas were initiated first at the school level and the projects have had a positive impact particularly on the attachment of the local community with the school in their surroundings.

On the other hand, both SDP and GDP from Irish aid, most of the time it is through the local government that they channelled their assistance to PEDPs. Based on this, the two NGOs plan their work in cooperation with zonal council and education departments or sector offices found in their areas. It is in rare cases, that channel their assistance through handing over to local community. From this we can understand that the only channel that the two NGOs used to link with local community is through the government body. Hence, because of the NGOs' involvement in the project, it has a closer relationship with local government than with people.

Similarly, the LNGOs found in the region, that is, SEPDA, SDA, HDA, and GDA, often it is through local government authorities that they channel their assistance in PEDPs to local communities. In addition to this, SEPDA also channel sometimes their assistance through Nationalities Development Associations (NDAs) found in their respective zones and special woredas. It is in rare cases, all the above 4 LNGOs channel their assistance through handing over to local community in their proper place.

The next question in the questionnaire addressed to all respondents in the target areas are: What is the rationale to intervene NGOs in PEDPs in this area? Among the total respondents of NGOs, almost 75 per cent of them reacted to this question, and some of the reasons they cited are summarized as follows.

1. The basic needs programme aims to improve the local problems and to provide primary school plant or other related services, particularly for those communities with no public schooling in their locality.

2. Complement the REB actions through activities that directly benefit vulnerable or marginalized groups, and support with social assistance projects - to fill the gap where the government could not reach.
3. To improve the quality and equity of basic education through community involvement in the region.
4. To enhance educational standard of the area in general.
5. To facilitate particularly girl students participation in school enrollment.
6. The performing of education is not one man business, it asks participation of the whole community plus the NGOs.

From the above information, it is clear that NGOs can translate local needs and peculiarities into the formulation of their objectives and methods of action if they work genuinely in their respective places. The intervention of NGOs, based on this assumption, is mainly to facilitate the activity of education, working together for a common purpose in cooperation with the local community where they belong.

Though the responses of the government employees have almost similar view with the above point, the researcher pointed out some of the following points that are assumed to be different from the reasons given above by NGO employees.

1. Since NGOs are by nature voluntary in their establishment and operations, they have advantage over governments in organizing beneficiaries particularly at the grassroots level.
2. Besides to their involvement in developmental programmes, some NGOs might have their own hidden agenda or other ideological concern.
3. Some might have a wish to achieve instant fame, fortune, and to become internationally famous.
4. Some of the NGOs found in this area have explicit aim to proselytize Christian faith or other missionary zeal.

5. There is an acceptance of the development agenda, and the realization that what has to be done is so tremendous given the limited resources of government that the latter needs support in carrying out the agenda.
6. Some NGOs are involved in developmental activities so as to maintain and legitimize the existing power structure of their native governments.

On the other hand, even though full data are not available, the existing information regarding the type of intervention areas and number of projects for each and every NGO found in the region are presented in Annex 17. On the basis of this data, when one looks simply into their type of assistance and their total projects implemented in the region; the majority of the NGOs give more emphasis to the projects on capital investments, having only a small amount, almost negligible, of their projects spent on recurrent expenditures such as employment of teachers for the new constructed schools as GDP did in the Guraghe zone.

In this case, there are potential problems or areas for analyses regarding of the above capital and recurrent expenditures. On the basis of available data in our country, if one examined thoroughly the educational budget on aggregate, a gloomy disturbing grim picture emerges.

In order to have an accurate picture of what had happened, it is better first to look into the analyses of public expenditure in the education sector in general. In Ethiopian experience, though the distinction is not very clear cut, the structures of the budget is divided into recurrent and capital budgets.

The capital budget for each project is then divided into four major activities: (1) survey, design, and studies; (2) equipment procurement and construction; (3) operation and maintenance, personnel costs, fees, and charges; and (4) capital transfers. At the same time, recurrent budgets are divided into five major expenditure categories: (1) salaries and allowances; (2) service charges and fees; (3) materials; (4) contributions and transfers; and (5) equipment and motor vehicles.

In this regard, the public sector education budget is roughly 70 per cent recurrent and 30 per cent capital. Accordingly, the greater coverage of the education recurrent budget that was allocated by the government usually comprise between 75 and 80 per cent, leaving only 15 to 20 per cent to households in the form of education fees. On the other hand, the share of capital expenditure financed from foreign loan and assistance are instrumental in determining the

level of domestically financed projects, where loans usually comprise between 30 and 50 per cent of the total and assistance being a relatively small proportion, varying between 7 and 13 per cent of the total (PHRDP, 1996: V-Vi).

For the sake of comparison for the level and composition of education expenditures, that is recurrent and capital budgets, annex 6 and annex 18 set out the general picture for selected three years. Thus, far we have seen from the experience of the education sector in the country the national fiscal capacity to finance education expansion is severely limited; second, education budgeted real expenditures seem to be falling. Education's budgeted share of GDP (not including budgeted capital foreign grants and loans) has fallen from 3.6 per cent in 1993/94 to 3 per cent in 1995/96. The recurrent share has fallen at the same time from 3 per cent to 2.5 per cent - putting these two feature together, education's share in GDP is on the low side.

Within the education recurrent budget 'personal services' (salaries and allowances) account for around 85 per cent of the total; almost 98 per cent of services are salaries. The budget is thus dominated by salaries, leaving a negligible (1 up to 2%) of the budget to fund the rest of the operating costs. In related matter, primary education receives about 55 per cent of budgeted expenditures, out of this figure salaries account for about 93 per cent of the total primary budget (see Annex 6).

Based on existing information, even though the general education capital and recurrent budget has remarkably increased over the last 10 years in nominal terms, one can say that throughout the years, schemes which were designed one after another failed to accomplish their goals. In this regard, NGOs and the private sector in general can play an important role and it should be encouraged highly so as to minimize the prevailing gaps in the country. However, the most critical consideration for investment in education must weigh the advantages of the investment or the comparative cost effectiveness of different uses of funds and evaluated in terms of budget capacity.

Here lies the major problem that arises in relation to the participation of NGOs as project executors particularly in capital expenditures. The first relates to incremental recurrent expenditures associated with investment expenditures, and the second relates to the composition of expenditure between recurrent and capital within the education budget. In this regard, as Penrose (1996:231) pointed out :

A critical relationship is the effect of capital expenditure on future recurrent expenditures. In principle, capital expenditure in year n should be reflected by associated, and usually incremental, recurrent expenditures in years $n + x$ onwards.

Based on this relationship, if there is no such association, it would be concluded that capacity created by the respective NGOs is not being utilized fully, or that the original investment had no impact. Thus, additional classrooms could result in expanded teacher requirements and/or increased operations and maintenance costs reacting from increased enrollments and additional physical infrastructure. Here, of course, it could be raised a question in the Ethiopian case in general and SNNPR in particular that it is probably too early to judge the levels of future expenditure obligations which will be incurred by present NGO investment expenditures.

However, a key decision on the surface would appear to be how far this is the right composition, given the evident strain on recurrent expenditures. On the flip side, to our optimism on capital expenditures is the hardship suffered by many that about 85 per cent of the capital budget was thought to have originated from external loans and assistance. And, these funds are not stable in the sense that they are subjected to donor policies, the amount and type also fluctuates from time to time, that indicate a highly volatile nature.

In summary, it is necessary therefore to devise measures and accordingly steps need to be taken to support improvements to budgeting and expenditure management at the regional level.

Table 5 item 1 deals with the need assessment for the developmental projects in primary education which are currently run by NGOs. Accordingly, employees working in both NGOs and at school level shared similar understanding that the need assessment was made by local community and project ideas (proposal) were initiated at the grassroots level that accounted for (78.12%) and (42.98%); next to the local community, the local government is responsible for the need assessment represented by (43.75%) and (34.21%) respectively. While 80 per cent of the REB and 59.38 per cent of the WEO respondents revealed that it was first the local government responsible and then NGOs themselves assess the needs of the local community that accounted for 60 per cent and 37.50 per cent respectively.

Table 5. Summary on the Need Assessment and Selection of Beneficiaries (Priorities)

S.No.	Item	Respondents										Total Respondents	
		NGOs		GOs									
		No	%	REB		ZED	WEO		School		No	%	No
1	How do you make the need assessment for the developmental projects in primary education which are currently run by NGOs?												
	a. Local community come up with project proposal	25	78.12	2	40.0	7	43.75	11	34.38	49	42.98	94	47.24
	b. NGOs themselves assess the needs of the local community	6	18.75	3	60.0	8	50.0	12	37.50	35	30.70	64	32.16
	c. It is the responsibility of the local government	14	43.75	4	80.0	7	43.75	19	59.38	39	34.21	83	41.71
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0
2	Do you think that the ongoing programmes run by NGOs could address the major educational problems in the area?												
	a. Yes	25	78.12	3	60.0	9	56.25	15	46.88	71	62.28	123	61.81
	b. No	7	21.88	2	40.0	7	43.75	17	53.12	43	37.72	76	38.19
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0
3	How often do NGOs attempt to implement their own priority areas in this assistance that are different from the educational planning and priority areas in your locality?												
	a. Always	2	6.25	-	-	1	6.25	-	-	-	-	3	1.51
	b. Sometimes	3	9.38	1	20.0	3	18.75	2	6.25	11	9.65	20	10.05
	c. Rarely	2	6.25	2	40.0	5	31.25	8	25.0	42	36.84	59	29.65
	d. Not at all	25	78.12	2	40.0	7	43.75	22	68.75	61	53.51	117	58.79
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0
4	How often does the selection of project sites by NGOs alone affect/ hinder the relationship between NGOs and the intended beneficiaries?												
	a. Always	-		-		-		-		-		-	
	b. Sometimes	3	9.38	1	20.0	-	-	1	3.12	9	7.89	14	7.03
	c. Rarely	1	3.12	2	40.0	7	43.75	9	28.13	44	38.60	63	31.66
	d. Not at all	28	87.50	2	40.0	9	56.25	22	68.75	61	53.51	122	61.31
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0

On the other hand, exactly half of the respondents from ZED reacted to this question differently from the above two groups. According to them, first and foremost the need assessment was conducted by the NGOs themselves; but the local community and the government have also an equal responsibility to conduct a study for the purpose of NGOs beneficiaries (43.75%).

In related matters, the respondents were asked to list down the chief organs of government or any other agencies which are responsible in selecting beneficiaries other than NGOs. Among the total respondents, 150 (75.38%) of both groups listed the following: the regional education systems (ranging from REB to school levels); RPEDB and its branch at zonal level; Zonal Executive Council (ZEC) and woreda administrative councils; and community representatives at the local grassroots level, particularly the Kebele Administrative authorities are responsible and involved in the selection of priorities in their respective areas.

Similar to the above two points, an interview was conducted with those in charge of the seven NGOs and GOs found in the target areas. In response to the question about the selection criteria they used in the selection process, the interviewees invariably responded as summarized below.

For the purpose of selecting beneficiaries, since the BESO project works within the system, it has nothing to decide by itself with the exclusion of the REB and the intended beneficiaries; and it is the responsibility of three groups:

1. Beneficiaries - school directors with teachers and educational authorities at the local level, often WEO.
2. Local government representative (sector representative) -from REB or ZED.
3. The project - CSAP/BESO.

Concerning the selection of beneficiaries, it is the WEO who are responsible for selecting client schools for the CSAP. In this case, since its inception, the local communities (schools and WEOs) have involved in the projects' design assessment, project execution, and participate in all phases of the intervention programmes where they belong. Participation of the beneficiaries and the WEOs, in this regard, will be invaluable because their knowledge, experience, and close proximity to communities positioned them to know the community

demand for projects and to be able to communicate that information to the concerned NGOs or local government authorities.

In relation to this, since SDP and GDP work at zonal level, most of the time the responsibility for selecting beneficiaries is vested in ZED; while at the local grassroots level, the local council members and kebele Development Committee members are responsible for selecting beneficiaries. In rare cases, according to the release of GDP Monitoring Department, their organization has a role for selecting beneficiaries and they used different criteria, among them: participation of the local community, poverty focus, gender sensitivity, and sustainability of the projects are the major ones used for the selection process.

Concerning the LNGOs in the target areas - SEPDA, SDA, HDA, and GDA - the local government authorities or Council members at different hierarchical positions are responsible for selecting beneficiaries in their respective places. In rare cases, these organizations have made an assessment based on the selection criteria such as number of beneficiaries in the area as well as cost and benefit of the project. Similarly, the local government authorities have used the following criteria for selecting beneficiaries in their surroundings: backwardness, number of population, kind of needs, etc.

In this case, the number of students (that are expected) who enrolled in grade one, the total population size, and the distance of the nearby primary schools from the proposed locality must be taken into consideration. Moreover, interest of the local community, their indispensable participation and other related variables must be considered among the many factors to be assessed and studied so as to provide the appropriate facilities or school building for the community.

Finally, we can say that NGOs promote self-help and the overcoming of paternalism and dependency since they support the local mobilization of communities or groups. This means that the objectives for action are defined locally by the communities and not by the NGO: the latter supports and strengthens the initiatives. In other words, the NGOs reinforce the objectives of the local groups without directly interfering in their formulation. In this way the NGO may be short circuiting the structures of domination by local elites which, use the government apparatus to maintain them.

On the other hand, those respondents both from the NGOs and GOs were kindly requested to list down their greatest needs or the major educational problems before NGO intervention

programmes started in their respective areas. All the respondents invariably gave almost similar responses to the questions they were asked. For the problems of primary education presented by the respondents are many and varied, it is better to present the more pervasive problems encountered in the target areas as follows.

1. Physical plus infrastructure need - need for school construction expansion and renovation;
2. Lack of facilities, furniture, equipment, and different instructional materials;
3. High percentage of enrollment;
4. Gender issue - low level of girls enrollment;
5. Lack of trained teachers - need for professional development programme;
6. Lack of input supplies or budget in general;
7. Lack of communities' concern for their schools;
8. Inefficiency of SAC and administration in general;
9. Distance problem-proximity of the school to the location of the community.

In general, there are many and overlapping problems; it is very difficult to pinpoint precisely what went wrong with the local community in question. At the same time, since the schools are highly dilapidated and the general environmental condition of the schools are not totally conducive for a proper teaching-learning process, the problems are continuing as one problem leads to another in a vicious circle. However, based on the above and other related problems posed by the respondents of the target areas, what problems do schools face will be summarized as the problems of Access, Equity, Quality, and Relevance in general.

To convince that the issue is worth discussing and exploring, the respondents were also asked whether or not the ongoing programmes run by NGOs could address the above problems that the community is entangled with (Table 5 item 2).

In view of this, on the NGOs side responses were 78.12 per cent for yes, while 21.88 percent for never. However, though there is a slight variations in their responses, the government employees from REB, ZED, and at school level on aggregate revealed that the developmental programmes executed by NGOs addressed the major problems of the community and it accounted for 61.48 per cent, whereas it could not address all the problems was represented by 38.52 per cent. On the other hand, more than half of the WEO respondents (53.12%) stated

that the developmental intervention programmes run by NGOs could never address the problems of the locality, while 46.88 per cent responded that it could address.

From the above clarifications we can understand that since the WEO employees have close proximity to communities; their experience and knowledge in the need assessment of the local community placed them to know the problems and demands of their community. Thus they are the right organs to indicate the analytic framework or impacts of any intervention programmes in their surroundings. Moreover, though they were few to argue convincingly, above one third of the respondents of government employees (41.32%) revealed that there are some problems which can lead to many debatable points. At the same time, it should be considered that these government employees at REB and ZED level for they are responsible and accountable for every intervention activities in their localities, they may not want to disclose the case honestly.

To test percentile differences between the categories of respondents' responses of the two groups, chi-square test (χ^2) at 0.05 level of significance was computed and revealed that statistically there is a significant difference between NGOs and GOs in their assessment of effectiveness of NGO project (see Annex 24, No. 1).

To provide further information, those respondents reacted to the question that the developmental interventions of NGOs couldn't address the needs of the local community were also asked to state the main reasons for these failure. And, among the total respondents 35.53 per cent of them listed the following critical elements as a major factors for not having any real change in developmental activities implemented in their areas :

- When one compares the resources contribution of NGOs with the prevalent problems, it is beyond the capacity of the NGOs.
- The lack of long-term, flexible funding has trapped many NGOs in the 'projects-by-project' system, and this in turn reinforcing the image of many NGOs as only service providers.
- Primary education, as a basic right to any citizen, is vested as core responsibility of the government in general and the community in particular, not for the host organizations.
- Since NGOs become contracting agencies for specific, time-bound projects, their policies and programmes originally emanated or drawn up to some one else's agenda; and are not directly accountable to their intended beneficiaries.

- NGOs are not, after all, the 'lords of poverty' that can be regarded as crusaders against poverty or any social evils.

On the other hand, to evaluate show flaws, respondents were asked as to how often NGOs attempt to implement their own priority areas in their assistance that are different from the educational planning and priority areas of the locality. Table 5 item 3 reveals, though the majority of the respondents (58.79%) from both groups indicated that such kind of attempt never happens; if one combines separate sets of data on aggregate - (21.87%) from NGOs, (44.91%) of government employees, and totally 41.21 per cent - confirmed that even in rare cases and in same instances decisions and priorities of implementing the programmes were made by the NGOs themselves and failed to take into account the psychology of the participants as a chief factor in promoting dramatic change or development.

However, as indicated in table 5 item 4, the majority of the employees from both groups claimed that the selection of project sites by NGOs alone was not affected or hindered the relationship between NGOs and the intended beneficiaries (61.31%); while it affected rarely and sometimes accounted on aggregate for 12.5 per cent and 43.71 per cent on the NGOs side and government employees respectively.

To revise previous findings, it is not more surprising to see that the presence of NGO services does not remove the problems of local community as deterrent to accessing education services. Based on the available data on table 5, some NGOs seem to have problems in identifying the intended beneficiaries of the project, prioritizing studies, defining the types of information required by each potential users, and understanding the objectives and visualizing the potential applications of educational programmes in general. Moreover, there still seems to be a tendency in the bureaucracy to "do something for" the community; an assumption was made that development is a process moving from top to bottom, instead of encouraging them to take their own decisions and actions.

Nonetheless, to show belongingness, NGOs can and should take the initiative to identify and propose projects based on community demand to complement project menus provided by government authorities or external donor agencies. Furthermore, NGOs should also seek to develop closer community ties, as they are often the only link between the donor agencies or the local government authorities with communities, and that link should be strengthened.

Table 6. Sample Results Concerning Local Community Participation in PEDPs

S. No	Item	Respondents										Total	
		NGOs		Gos									
		No	%	REB		ZEO		WEO		School		No	%
1	Local community should participate in any interventions in their locality to get what they need?			No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
	a. Strongly Agree	31	96.88	5	100.0	12	75.0	21	65.62	66	57.89	135	67.84
	b. Agree	1	3.12	-	-	4	25.0	11	34.38	48	42.11	64	32.16
	c. Disagree	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	d. Strongly disagree	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0
2	Do local community (project beneficiaries) have any involvement/ roles, in coordinating the PEDPs run by NGOs in your area ?												
	a Yes	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	99	86.84	184	92.46
	b. No	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15	13.16	15	7.54
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0

In table 6 item 1, inquiry was made to know the respondents' attitude whether the local community should participate in any interventions in their locality to get what they need. The respondents on the NGOs side were 96.88 per cent for strongly agree; 62.28 percent and 37.72 per cent of the government employees respectively indicated, they strongly agree and agree that local community must participate in every sphere of human endeavour in their surroundings. It is axiomatic to say, to opt for development is to accept change. Therefore, if the community is inspired by a desire for change, it will have the necessary energy, determination, and commitment and will take stock of the means, resources and skills required.

To show the relevance of the theoretical aspects above to the present practical situation, respondents were asked whether the project beneficiaries have any involvement in coordinating the PEDPs run by NGOs in their locality. Accordingly, except at school level, all the respondents both from the NGOs and GOs shared similar understanding that local community has a profound involvement in the coordinating activities of PEDPs. Nevertheless, though the majority of the respondents at school level (86.84%) depicted that project beneficiaries have a great role in PEDPs, 13.16 per cent argue that there is no at all any beneficiary participation and involvement in PEDPs that are executed by NGOs in their surroundings (Table 6 item 2).

Thus, it can be concluded that project beneficiaries are participating in coordinating the PEDPs in their areas. However, although they are few, these schools were denied the opportunity of having any involvement and ignored their rights to participate. Even if any agency built up a successful school plant or any other project without involving the beneficiaries, it could be actually considered as coercive efforts - not development; and eventually the local communities did not have the will towards the projects that are implemented in their areas.

To clarify things, the researcher has made some inquiries particularly in what circumstances and to what extent that project beneficiaries are participating in the PEDPs in their respective areas (See Annex 19). As it is clearly indicated in annex 19 item 1, employees from the NGOs responded (68.75%) that project beneficiaries are participating always in the overall planning of educational projects. On the other hand, though they have some variations among the government employees on aggregate, exactly half of the respondents revealed that beneficiaries are always participating in the overall planning efforts of educational projects.

In relation to the selection of project sites as cited in item 2 in the same annex above, the majority of the respondents both from NGOs and government employees who work at zonal to school level indicated that local communities are participating accounted for 65.63 per cent and 45.58 percent respectively. Respondents from REB, however, admitted that they are participating in selection of project sites sometimes (80.0%) and rarely for 20 per cent.

On the other hand, when one examines the responses for the participating of beneficiaries in selecting type or amount of assistance, one finds out that quite differently from the figures presented above. While 46.88 per cent of the respondents working for NGOs responded that they are involved always. At the same time, above half of the respondents at WEO (56.25%) and 66.67 per cent at school level confirmed that NGOs never encouraged the local communities to choose 'what should be done' in terms of their priorities and problems in the area (Annex 19, item 3).

In view of this, chi-square (χ^2) test of significance was computed to examine the relationship between the responses of the two groups and indicated that there is a significant difference between NGOs and GOs regarding project beneficiaries in their participation in selection of type of assistance (see Annex 24, No. 2).

To revise the previous studies, Goodhand and Chamberlain (1996: 203) in their studies of survival strategies of Afghan NGOs, revealed that "NGOs are not 'owned' by rural communities, they commonly 'belong' to donors, commanders, or Afghan technocrats." Thus, they are accountable upwards to the donor or commander, but rarely downwards to the communities.

Moreover, theoretically, there is much talk about NGOs being so close to people's problems that they can speak on behalf of people and address issues from a position of both experience and knowledge. However, it is often through client's specific needs that demand is expressed, and above all development services delivered. In this regard, this result is at odds with what Kajese (1987:81) asserts that people should have the right to choose and be able to acquire any outside assistance for their self determined development.

To come to the central point of this analysis, respondents were also asked the level of community's participation in the implementation of projects. Based on the respondents that reacted to 'Always' and 'Sometimes' added together, the majority of the employees (93.75%) of the NGOs and 86.18 per cent of GOs revealed that local community is participating

regularly in the implementation of projects that are executed in their respective places (Annex 19, item 4).

With regard to monitoring and evaluation of projects (item 5), exactly half of the respondents of the NGO employees indicated that beneficiaries are always participating, while 43.75 per cent belong to those who participate sometimes. Government employees reported that beneficiaries are always involved in monitoring and evaluation of projects (53.29%) and participating sometimes represented for 35.53 per cent respectively. Similarly, in annex 19 item 6 it can be seen whether the local community in each project area is functioning or not particularly in operating the overall project after its foundation. According to the employees both from the NGOs and GOs, beneficiaries are participating always accounted for 76.10 per cent.

In general, when communities are given the responsibility and ability to identify, implement, and monitor local development programmes, they are better prepared to involve themselves in future development activities in their own terms. Otherwise, projects in the communities do not achieve their planned objectives, resulted in wastage of resources, and eventually leads communities to lose interest and confidence in the efforts of any developmental interventions executed whether by government or any NGOs. The ultimate responsibility for using the best method as a strategy, therefore, rests with beneficiaries and facilitators.

Table 7 indicates the responses of both NGO and government employees to questions related to educational policy and the level of coordination among key actors in PEDPs. In item one, the inquiry was made whether the new ETP brings important changes for NGO intervention programmes in PEDPs or not. Based on this, almost all the respondents of both groups, that is 96 per cent confirmed that the new policy brings about important changes in the intervention programmes of NGOs in their areas, while the negative response of 4 per cent is insignificant.

Table 7. Sample Results Concerning Educational Policy and Coordination Among Power Actors in PEDPs

Serial No.	Item	Respondents											
		NGOs		Government Organizations								Total	
				REB		ZED		WEO		School			
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Do you think that the new Educational and Training Policy(ETP), adopted since 1994 brings important changes particularly for NGO intervention programmes in PEDPs?												
	a. Yes	32	100.0	4	80.0	15	93.75	32	100.0	108	94.74	191	96.0
	b. No	-	-	1	20.0	1	6.25	-	-	6	5.26	8	4.0
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0
2	Is there any coordinating committee set up in your locality that is typically responsible for organizing the various activities of NGOs in PEDPs in particular and education sector in general?												
	a. Yes	30	93.75	4	80.0	7	43.75	24	75.0	75	65.80	140	70.35
	b. No	2	6.25	1	20.0	9	56.25	8	25.0	39	34.20	59	29.65
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0
3	Are project beneficiaries involved in coordinating committees?												
	a. Yes	28	93.33	3	75.0	6	85.71	21	87.5	71	94.67	129	92.14
	b. No	2	6.67	1	25.0	1	14.29	3	12.5	4	5.33	11	7.86
	Total	30	100.0	4	100.0	7	100.0	24	100.0	75	100.0	140	100.0
4	Are local authorities involved in the coordinating committee?												
	a. Yes	26	86.67	3	75.0	3	42.86	21	87.25	49	65.33	102	72.86
	b. No	4	13.33	1	25.0	4	57.14	3	12.5	26	34.67	38	27.14
	Total	30	100.0	4	100.0	7	100.0	24	100.0	75	100.0	140	100.0
5	Are NGOs members in the coordinating committes?												
	a. Yes	25	83.33	2	50.0	4	57.14	11	45.83	41	54.67	83	59.29
	b. No	5	16.67	2	50.0	3	42.86	13	54.17	34	45.33	57	40.71
	Total	30	100.0	4	100.0	7	100.0	24	100.0	75	100.0	140	100.0
6	Have you come across any problem(s) in your coordinating role?												
	a. Yes	28	93.33	2	50.0	6	85.71	11	45.83	36	48.0	83	59.29
	b. No	2	6.67	2	50.0	1	14.29	13	54.17	39	52.0	57	40.71
	Total	30	100.0	4	100.0	7	100.0	24	100.0	75	100.0	140	100.0

Similarly, in answer to the question presented in an open ended questionnaire to specify the major changes or improvements that are observed on the developmental activities and strategies of NGOs, particularly since 1994, they cited many factors among which the following are the major ones:

- NGOs are participating in curriculum development, for instance, they participate in the introduction of many nationality languages in primary education, in terms of revisions of educational materials text books production; teacher training or orientation; providing expertise; and providing financial resources, etc.
- School construction, expansion and renovation in accordance with the new policy (first cycle, second cycle of primary education).
- Capacity building area, particularly teacher training in terms of refreshment courses, workshops, on-the-job training, upgrading courses, summer courses, etc.
- Mandate to work with communities - though it is a new approach, its participatory nature, particularly to work directly with the community at the grassroots level appears promising.
- In mobilizing the community so as to participate in school affairs and contribute resources for development of their own schools.
- Attitude changes of the community participation - Active roles of SAC members in NGO intervention Programmes at school level (typically to CSAP/BESO project).
- Gender sensitive issues - to increase girls enrollment participation in schools (typically observed in BESO project and GDP) and the like.

On the other hand, item 2 in table 7 a question was raised whether or not any coordinating committee set up that is typically responsible for organizing the various activities of NGOs in PEDPs in particular and education sector in general. In this regard, the majority of the respondent from NGO employees (93.75%) admitted that there are coordinating committees in their respective areas. Among these groups, the majority of the respondents also revealed that in this steering committee all the project beneficiaries, local authorities and NGO workers are involved and are responsible for organizing the various activities of NGOs in PEDPs that accounted for (93.33%), (86.67%), and (83.33%) respectively.

Of the government employees, however, though 75.68 per cent of the respondents were from REB and WEO indicated there are coordinating committees in their respective areas, more than half of the respondents from ZED (56.25%) reported that there is no any steering committee set up in their locality. Even 34.13 per cent of government employees as a whole said that in some instances the intervention programmes of NGOs executed without any coordinating committee in their area.

In those places where coordinating committees have been set up, 8.18 per cent of project beneficiaries, 30.91 per cent of local authorities, and nearly half of NGO representatives, that is, 47.27 per cent have not participated in the coordinating committee (Table 7 item 3, 4, and 5). Similarly, except in the projects of CSAP and to some extent GDP, a review of documents have revealed that the formation of the coordinating committee in some target area have not been taken into consideration, and the projects are implemented without involving key individuals and agencies in that respective areas.

Regarding the responsibility of the committee, most of the responses both from the side of NGO and government employees indicated that the coordinating committees have the duty in coordinating the overall activities of the projects executed by NGOs such as organizing the local communities for the contribution of different resources in their respective localities; plan, monitor, evaluate and even administering the programmes; conduct need assessment and the like.

As far as the frequency of their meetings, all the responses in the open ended questionnaire vary widely in the experiences of their respective areas; some of them indicated that the committee meets once a week, once a fortnight, once a month etc. However, the majority of the respondents revealed that meetings will be conducted based on the seriousness of the subject; this in turn implies that their meetings are not planned in advance and problems were solved mostly on an ad hoc basis.

Furthermore, even those respondents claimed that steering committees are in operation, 93.33 per cent from the NGO and more than half of the respondents of government employees have complained about the coordination of the committee and revealed that the committee did not make an effort to bring about close work relationships among key actors (Table 7, item 6). The next item in the open ended questionnaire was: Would you please mention the problems that are caused in coordinating role in the steering committee? Almost 57 (68.67%) of

respondents from both groups reacted to this question. However, since the problems are many and overlapping, for the sake of convenience, the writer of this paper classified the problems into three categories based on the responses of both NGO and government employees as well as a review of documents, especially evaluation reports which are supplemented by the results of interview and organizational observation.

Accordingly, among the NGO employees almost 71.43 per cent reacted to the above question and the problems they cited summarized as follows :

- NGOs often accuse the GOs or the communities (SAC) they lack commitment to the process - this refers to issue such as failure to attend planning or evaluation meetings; lack of rigour in reporting; and playing NGOs off against one another (typically refer to local political elites).
- The costs of participation refer to administrative and bureaucratic delays, and this in turn had adversely affected the overall schedule of project execution.
- Misunderstanding of the objectives of the programme by some committee members or lack of awareness.
- In most instances, those local government authorities involved in the steering committee are busy and some of them are also a little reluctant.

More over, among the total respondents of the GOs, 37 (67.27%) of them also listed the following major problems.

- The most common problems of intermediary organizations are the lack of administrative and financial skills, and adequate logistical support; (these are major problems for LNGOs).
- Making decisions without the consent of the community.
- Local communities often accuse NGOs of hogging information; blocking (financial) resources from flowing directly to communities.
- One source of potential tension is the lack of transparency on the part of NGOs about their activities. For instance, one ZED planning, programming and project expert in the target area expressed resentment of NGOs which did not share information about their budgets and work plans. However, the director of one NGO in the target area stated: "we inform

the REB and ZED about our activities, but we discuss money only with those who gave us the money."

Thus, this is in accord with what Goodhand and Chamberlain (1996) asserted that the consensus among NGOs seemed to be a willingness, even a desire, to discuss and coordinate activities, coupled with a reluctance to divulge financial details. In this regard, though detailed information on NGO and donor funds were not collected, it seems that reporting requirements on donor funds were an area of controversy between finance and executing bodies.

It is arguably that the biggest challenge confronting NGOs is to establish a cohesive social unit as a sector in order to engage effectively with government on the mechanisms needed to create a favourable environment for NGOs to contribute to reconstruction and development. As one official from the REB stated: "the principal 'cost' to the government working with NGOs is the lack of recourse in the event that the NGO does not perform as promised."

Similarly, based on the review of documents, especially evaluation reports, as well as the results of observation and interview, the following common problems have been observed in different parts of the target areas.

- Lack of coordination among the power actors - NGOs, local government authorities, and project beneficiaries;
- Meetings are not held at the right time due to absence, late arrival or reluctance of committee members which causes unnecessary pending;
- Some committee members also do not have a sense of responsibility to take part in the steering committee;
- Lack of development planning and management skills on the part of local community;
- NGOs prefer to work alone usually;
- In most instances, except in BESO project, the NGO's head quarters are placed far from the project areas; and there is no representative assigned to monitor and follow-up the projects;
- Short period for the tenure of the local government authorities and even personnel instability among official who work at different levels from regional head bureau to school level;

- Individuals' in the different local government authorities, attempt to assign the proposed projects in their respective birth place;
- There are no clear guidelines and instructions regarding the yardstick to be used in monitoring and evaluation, and the variety of techniques that can be used in their execution this in turn restrict the flow of information among key actors of the programme;
- At the same time, there are no sanctions that the government can impose on the NGOs for poor performance and other similar attempts in their intervention programmes.

To sum up this portion, all the problems cited are closely related to lack of coordination which dilutes effectiveness of monitoring effort and wastes scarce human and financial resources. After all, NGOs are organizations that deal with various developmental issues and problems. In this regard, their activities and movements are complemented, controlled and checked by government policies. It is only within this realm that the work of NGOs can make state action more effective or the latter can support NGOs' action since the NGO, for several reasons, is better positioned to respond to the particular needs of specific zones or social groups. Therefore, for a pluralistic education sector to function well, the various actors must have clearly defined and understood roles.

Annex 20 shows that the responses of NGOs and REB employees to questions asked about the participation of NGOs; their work relationships and operations of PEDPs. In item 1 inquiry was made whether the new ETP gives equal opportunity or not to LNGOs and ENGOS to participate smoothly in their respective areas. The responses on the side of NGO were 92.86 per cent for the item that there is no any problem regarding this point and all the responses from the REB also confirmed that there is no any such kind of discrimination in this regard. According to the responses to item 2 of annex 20 there is no imposition from government authorities in the intervention programmes of NGOs. However, in an interview with project director of WLI/CSAP, the interviewee complained that CSAP wanted to work with other LNGOs found in the region, but was advised against it by REB since it encouraged us to work with LNGOs.

According to the employees of NGOs, item 3 of annex 20 the responses to the item that local government sometimes organize meetings or workshops to discuss issues on resources contribution of NGOs to education accounted for 42.86 per cent. However, as indicated by 20 and 21.43 per cent respectively of REB and NGO employees workshops are rarely organized for NGOs to discuss on different issues. Though they are few percentage wise, the responses

once more, revealed that there is a certain gap of communication between the local government authorities and NGOs in their interaction in different development programmes of the region.

On the other hand, as one sees from the responses in item 4 and 5 of annex 20, 78.57 per cent revealed that there is no any formal relationships among the NGOs working in the PEDPs; even those who reacted to 'Yes' responses showed that the concerned NGOs rarely communicate or share information among themselves regarding their intervention activities in their area. As one project director as well as training and workshop coordinator of NGO said even though "We work to separate areas and in separate sectors, no more need any formal relationships with other NGOs; however, we work closely with others but the same wings of our organization are elsewhere." Thus, this is in accord with what Landim (1987) asserted that even the NGOs criticized themselves their lack of coordination among the international cooperation agencies.

All in all, when one revises the previous variables regarding the policy issue, coordination, and relationships among power actors as shown in table 7 and annex 20, will conclude that lack of coordination between NGOs and the GOs in one hand, as well as between and among NGOs on the other can result in a duplication of efforts and thus the inefficient use of resources, as has been the case for some NGOs working in the education sector.

Apart from this instances, even the local government has not incorporated NGOs into the policies or structures. Rather, the government contracts NGOs on needed basis. NGOs are not regulated, and the local government has not established norms for NGO participation in its programmes and projects. Even one project director subjected to this study stated: "REB has no any official policy(or rules and regulations)- we make it as we go" For their part, NGOs are not also organized to help the local government develop programmes, policy or to further collaboration in general.

As it is stated in NPDPM, from the beginning DPPC(the former RRC) and its branches found at the regional or zonal level – DPPB - was mandated to register, coordinate and monitoring the activities of NGOs in their respective areas through its newly organized body called 'NGO-Desk' (DPPC, 1995:121). However, as the result of the implementing departments at zonal level were closed down and terminated recently in the region(target area), the

government charged the RPEDB and its departments at zonal level to coordinate and organized the activities of NGOs in the respective areas.

In this regard, at all levels of government structure, there is a problem related to the ability to ensure the availability of good quality data organized in a usable and meaningful form. Once again, though some offices at the regional level and even zones are trying to introduce computers, no attempt is being made to identify data, their information needs in relation to the participation of NGOs and their project execution in different part of the region. The system may not work in general, partly because staff members are not trained in their use and partly due to carelessness of the concerned body.

The shortage of experienced researchers who can coordinate and interpret the data is also another serious problem not only in monitoring and evaluation, but also in the coordination of overall development intervention programmes of different NGOs found in the region. In the target region visited, one observes differences among different zones and woredas (even among NGOs) in the type of data included; carelessness regarding the details information about NGOs; and tendency to see piles of raw data for which the employees of the organizations have no use. What is more surprising, the division of budget into capital and recurrent expenditures in spite of the presence of similar type of expenditure creates difficulties in getting information on the total volume of resources devoted for one type of activity or project; its overall performance in terms of outputs produced as well as its impact on the target.

In view of these uncertainties, coordination and organizing of NGOs become difficult; thereby creates a problem particularly in obtaining the necessary information regarding the participation of NGOs and their impact in the regions' overall development programmes.

Table 8 and table 9 below indicate that the statistical data of CSAP schools in the target zones and special woredas in the region in general and the three target zones (samples) of this study respectively. Accordingly, we can understand from the figures presented in both tables that the WLI targeted its projects in 6 zones and 5 special woredas out of 14 zones and special woredas found in the region. This means, except in three zones - Bench Maji, South Omo, and Kaffa Shaka - the organization is participating in all special woredas and it covers 66.67 percent of all zones; beyond three fourth of the region's total area as a whole benefit from the programmes run by BESO project.

Table 8. Statistical Data of CSAP Schools in Target Zones and Special Woredasin SNNPR by Phases

Target Area	Phases										Total	
	1 st Phase		2 nd Phase						3 rd Phase			
			Starting		Finishing		Sub Total					
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Sidama	18	23.68	18	13.23	18	26.17	36	17.65	12	40.0	66	21.29
Hadiya	10	13.16	10	7.35	10	14.71	20	9.80	-	-	30	9.68
Guraghe	10	13.16	20	14.71	-	-	20	9.80	-	-	30	9.68
Gedeo	10	13.16	10	7.35	10	14.71	20	9.80	8	26.67	38	12.26
KAT	12	15.79	12	8.82	12	17.64	23	11.76	10	33.33	46	14.84
N.Omo	10	13.16	50	36.76	14	20.59	64	31.37	-	-	74	23.87
Amaro	2	2.63	2	1.47	2	2.94	4	1.96	-	-	6	1.93
Burji	2	2.63	2	1.47	2	2.94	4	1.96	-	-	6	1.93
Derashe	-	-	4	2.94	-	-	4	1.96	-	-	4	1.29
Konso	-	-	4	2.94	-	-	4	1.96	-	-	4	1.29
Yem	2	2.63	4	2.94	-	-	4	1.96	-	-	6	1.93
Total by phases	76	100	136	100	68	100	204	100	30	100	310	100
Total fund for Phases (ETB)	NM*		408,000 (136x3000)		884,000 (68x13,000)		1,292,000		390,000 (30x13,000)		2,158,000	
Fund: per cent	NM*		18.91		40.96		59.87		18.07		100	

Note. NM* Not mentioned. Amount of fund for the 1st phase is 3,000; 10,000 for the 2nd phase; and 20,000 for the 3rd phase.

Source: Ato Aregay Meressa, BESO/CSAP - Training and Workshop Coordinator.

Table 9. Statistical Data of CSAP Schools in Sample Zones by Phases and Actual Commitments

Zone	Phases										Total	
	1 st Phase		2 nd Phase						3 rd Phase			
			Starting		Finishing		Sub Total					
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Sidama	18	23.68	18	13.23	18	26.47	36	17.65	12	40.0	66	21.29
Hadiya	10	13.16	10	7.35	10	14.71	20	9.80	-	-	30	9.68
Guraghe	10	13.16	20	14.71	-	-	20	9.80	-	-	30	9.68
Total: target zone	38	50.00	48	35.29	28	41.18	76	37.25	12	40.0	126	40.65
Total: all zones/sp. woredas	76	100.0	136	100.0	68	100.0	204	100.0	30	100.0	310	100.0
% of fund in phases		-		6.67		16.87		23.54		7.23		30.76

Source: WLI USAID/ BESO project - document (CSAP Statistics)

Based on the two years assessment of the organization, according to the administrative staff of BESO project, showed the project outcomes met the intended objectives during the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd phases of project implementation. Though the organization claimed that the intervention programme achieved its objectives in the places, their programmes were targeted to reach 800 school in the region.

However, the observations made so far revealed that from March 1996 through Feb. 1999, the CSAP financed only 310 projects (schools), which generated an estimated 73 job opportunities; out of which 50 personnel are permanent employees of SDAs, 8 workers are part time agents in zones and woredas, that is, 4 in Arbaminch TTI and 4 in Awassa College of Teacher Education. Moreover, in addition to employees in the head office of the region, there are also one zone coordinator and four field coordinators assigned to monitor and even administer the SDAs in their respective areas.

As of March 1996 through Feb. 1999, the CSAP had disbursed a total of ETB 2.158 million amount of fund for project beneficiaries to different schools in target zones and special woredas in the region (Table 8). For that reason for the same period mentioned earlier, 18.91 per cent of fund were disbursed to schools who are completed phase one, 40.96 per cent for those who completed second phase, 18.07 per cent for the third phase and totally 77.97 per cent were distributed out of the total budget of the programme; though the remaining budget (22.06%) was not calculated with other figures in table 8 it was left for the CSAP schools who are entering into phase one, since they have reached a certain development stages as required by the BESO project so as to get fund from the organization.

As indicated in table 8, among these mentioned CSAP schools or projects, North Omo zone with 74 schools (23.87%), Sidama with 66 projects (21.29%), and KAT zone with 46 projects (14.84%) have got great advantage by being involved in the BESO project that accounts for 186 projects, that is, 60 per cent of the total commitment of the projects in the region.

When one examines the CSAP schools in target zones and special woredas in the region overall in terms of fund, as shown in table 8, the largest share of WLI-USAID/BESO financed projects were disbursed to Sidama with a total of ETB 440,000 that accounted for 20.57 per cent, total ETB 332,000 or 15.38 per cent for North Omo, and KAT zone had received total ETB 322,000 (4.92%) and that means almost half of the total budget were allotted to these schools found in three zones respectively.

To come to the central sample zones of this study, as indicated in table 9, CSAP schools of the sample area - Sidama, Hadiya and Guraghe - covered 50 per cent of the total commitments of the intervention programme for the first phase, compared to the 50 per cent for the rest of 3 zones and 5 special woredas found in the region; second phase - including all the completed operations and at the operational level represented 37.25 per cent of total commitments; and

in third phase 40 percent are referred only for those schools in Sidama zone, leaving 60 per cent for the rest 11 target areas of BESO project. All in all, the sample zones of this study covered 40.65 per cent of the region's total projects that are executed by BESO project.

Similarly, when we are looking in terms of budget for the same period as indicated in tables 8 and 9, 66 schools of Sidama zone provided a total of ETB 444,000 (20.57%) of the programme total budget; a total of ETB 160,000 (7.41%) were allotted to 30 projects found in Hadiya; while 2.78 per cent of the total budget were disbursed to execute 30 projects in Guraghe zone. In general, the schools in the sample zones had received a total of ETB 664,000 (30.76%) of the total budget allotted for the execution of 126 projects from overall programmes of BESO projects executed in the region.

According to the local government officials in REB, they expressed about the good relations that the local government (the representative office) has with BESO project (WLI) officials. In this regard, a steering committee at the regional level coordinates all project activities executed in the region. And, some form of relationship or a process of cooperation between WLI and some government agencies begun to evolve ranging from the REB to the local grassroots level - schools; and these demonstrates the existence of specific areas for complementing action between NGOs and GOs. At the same time, this is an important step towards achieving a significant position within regional and local development processes as a recognized actor.

On the other hand, officials from the BESO project and GOs who work at different echelons of the education sector from regional head bureau to woreda level also claimed that School Administration Committee (SAC) can serve as development intermediaries between the BESO project and their respective schools in the one hand; at the same time, between them and the community. To cite a positive view of events in the study areas visited, it is evident particularly at the grassroots level, that NGO field workers (SDAs) and educational personnel found at woreda and school level are more familiar with each other's activities in their respective places.

To get fund from BESO project, the share of participation of the local community determines largely the potential of the community in the resources they possess and in the amount of funds they are able to allocate to the project. In doing so, the allocation of resources for each category (in each phase) of CSAP schools increased steadily between 1996 through 1998/99

by evaluating the efficiency of the projects, participation and commitment of the local community. At the same time, an outstanding example of project performance of schools are awarded some amount of money more than double of the allotted budget for other similar projects in their respective areas.

Nevertheless, as a requirement of the organization, a certain amount of fixed contribution - counter part financing of at least 20 per cent of the total proposed project costs and other local (mostly - construction) materials and facilities as well as labour participation must be provided by the local community so as to get direct funds from the BESO project. In addition to this, it is also required to move the projects in question to a certain planning or development stages.

In this regard, counter part financing ensures the achievement of good quality projects that are likely to be sustained beyond NGO support. Especially, the project run by CSAP is succeeded in mobilizing local community financing to schools. For instance, between 1997/98 and 1998/99, the documents collected from some of the sample schools of this study have shown that, seven schools have collected ETB 182, 047.35 from the local community. Added with the fund of BESO project that accounted to ETB 181,000, gives a total of ETB 363,047.35 and this was disbursed to these seven schools. Besides these financial contributions, different construction materials and facilities including labour force were supplemented; and these different assistance are not included in the amount of fund contributed by the local community (for further information refer annex 21).

In general, the educational experiences developed by CSAP, particularly in participating and mobilizing local community financing, give rise to new knowledge appropriate to the regional reality but could not be transferred to other areas (schools) in their surroundings where the projects are executed. However, as it was reported by school administrators and SDAs, community participation, particularly in terms of finance, is low. This problem, according to these respondents, has been attributed partly due to various contributions of money requested by the local government for different purposes; partly due to a lack of confidence in the quality of service, especially in education. Nevertheless, it is difficult to verify the latter problem.

Similar to the BESO, the SDP and GDP (Irish Aid financed projects) have projects in Sidama and Guraghe zone respectively. Nonetheless, these two organizations are different from the

other NGOs in the region; because as their names indicate, they are restricted and involved only in the development activities of their respective zones - Sidama and Guraghe.

Regarding the GDP's concern, as shown in table 10, GDP targeted its projects only in five out of 11 woredas in the Guraghe zone. These are: Soddo, Seltie, Meskannena Marcko, Gummer, and Koker - thus, the intervention areas GDP covers only 45.45 per cent of the zone's total area. However, though their programmes are based on these five woredas, it was found that they are participating in development activities of other woredas which are not their target areas, but in an ad hoc basis.

According to the assessment of the organization, in the five project areas more than 1579 girls and 7023 boys - total 9401 students are attending in newly constructed and rehabilitated schools. Based on this, they claimed that there is a substantial increase in primary school percentage participation from 17 per cent to 25 per cent girls and with a total from 21 per cent to 37 per cent in 5 woredas from 1996/97 to 1998/99. This figure represents the average number of direct beneficiaries per project, that means, GDP uses only for those directly enrolled students in newly constructed and rehabilitated schools in same period indicated above.

However, beneficiary numbers (all direct and indirectly influenced by the projects) are not reliable because of their vague definitions. In this regard, in calculating beneficiaries for infrastructure projects and other related activities, it must be based on the number of individual users (in this case students) multiplied by the average life span of the project. The number of indirect beneficiaries are also calculated on the basis of average household of specific area in question by examining all possible beneficiaries of the project.

When one examines the five years budget of GDP as it is indicated in Annex 22, the largest share of GDP financed projects are allotted to the agriculture sector (20.60%), 18.43 per cent for education, and 16.80 per cent for capacity building respectively. In this regard, the volume and scale of the educational budget including capacity building provided by GDP for five years at zonal level should be encouraged highly. However, this trend in turn will necessitate a fundamental reorganization: by recognizing the current challenges facing educational development of the area, an effort is needed to coordinate and emphasize in the context of broad subsectoral development programmes as well as to invest for the most cost effective

Table 10. SDP and GDP Number of Projects and Beneficiaries by Programme, March 1996–Feb. 15,1999

Name of NGOs	Programme	Number of Projects	Beneficiaries per projects	Budget allocated to all projects by year		Remark
				year	Amount	
SDP ^a	Infrastructure - Expansion of schools	8		1991 E.C	ETB 3,082,000.00	These figures are found in Sidama ZED (Similar reasons annex 17)
	- Maintenance of schools	3		"	" 664,000.00	
	- New construction	6		"	" 1,483,000.00	
GDP	Infrastructure:				(IRf)	Budgeted (the budgets refer to all projects)
	- New construction of schools	10	1579 girls	1997	900,000.00	
	- Rehabilitation of schools	9	7023 boys	1998	1,867,000.00	
	- Construction of dry latrine for boys, girls, and teachers	15	9402 total			
	- Rehabilitation of schools	18		1999	1,407,762.00	Actual total ETB b/
	- Expansion/ upgrading from 1-6 to 1-8	1		1999	400,000.00	2,227,769.00
	- Furniture for schools	13		1999	420,000.00	
	- Teacher training					
	- Refreshment courses		608	1997/98		
	" "		340	1998/99		
	- Upgrading courses from TTI to Diploma		90	1997/98		1 st Round
	" " " "		66	1998/99		2 nd Round
	- Upgrading courses for direct (job) teachers to TTI level		40	-		1 st Round
			89			2 nd Round
			74			3 rd Round
			94			Not mentioned
	Management Training					
	- School Director courses		195	-		
	Employment of teachers, assigned for new schools constructed by GDP		23	-		

Source: Documents from GDP - Monitoring Department

^a Documents from Sidama zone Education Department and Awassa Zuria Woreda Education Office.

^b Documents from Guraghe zone Education Department

educational inputs, particularly to finance the development of primary education at the grassroots level.

To summarize the discussions regarding the implementation performance of NGOs, the governing types of intervention activities in which NGOs participated in the study areas are mostly concentrated in infrastructure programmes: construction, expansion, and renovation schools; and professional development programmes. Particularly different refreshment and upgrading courses for teachers; and involving in the development of girls participation so as to minimize the prevalent problems of gender gap in gross enrollment ratio for girls, etc., activities that were once considered as exemplary deeds particularly for CSAP and GDP.

Moreover, in terms of their relationships with project beneficiaries, the observations made revealed that there are significant variations among the NGOs involved in this study in the three zones. From these observations, it seems reasonable to argue that, the variations could affect not only the types and patterns of NGO - project beneficiary relationships in the study areas; but also influence their project performance achievements' of the NGOs in question, which will be dealt have under.

Table 11 shows the impact of NGO intervention programmes and their outcomes particularly in PEDPs in sample zones of this study. According to the responses to item 1, the majority of NGO employees (93.75%) and 64.07 per cent from the GOs revealed that the intervention programmes run by NGOs in PEDPs brought about important changes in the capacity building or empowering the communities in their areas. Almost more than one third of the responses from the GOs side, however, indicated they never did (35.93%).

In a similar manner, 96.88 per cent of NGOs and 62.87 per cent from government employees revealed that the resources assisted by NGOs in PEDPs brought about sustainable benefits at the local grassroots level; while 37.13 per cent from GOs indicated that they never brought such kinds of improvements (Table 11, item 2). What is more, though the majority of the respondents from both groups (65.83%) responded positively to the question in table 11 item 3, 25 per cent from the NGO side and more than above one third (35.23%) from government employees argued that they were confronted with different problems for running the projects after the termination of NGO involvement in their respective areas.

Table 11. Sample Results Concerning the Impact of NGO Interventions and their Outcomes in PEDPs

S. No	Item	Respondents											
		NGOs		Government Organizations								Total	
				REB		ZED		WEO	School				
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Do you think that ENGOs interventions in PEDPs would bring about important changes in the capacity building or empowering the local community in your area ?												
	a. Yes	30	93.75	3	60.00	8	50.0	23	71.88	73	64.04	137	68.84
	b. No	2	6.25	2	40.0	8	50.0	9	28.12	41	35.96	62	31.16
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0
2	Do you think that the resources assisted/ supplied by NGOs in PEDPs bring sustainable benefits at the local grassroots level?												
	a. yes	31	96.88	3	60.00	10	62.5	15	46.88	77	67.54	136	68.34
	b. No	1	3.12	2	40.0	6	37.5	17	53.12	37	32.46	63	31.66
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0
3	In your experience, do you face any problem for running the projects after the termination of NGO involvement in your area?												
	a. Yes	8	25.0	3	60.0	5	31.25	11	34.38	41	35.96	68	34.17
	b. No	24	75.0	2	40.0	11	68.75	21	65.62	73	64.04	131	65.83
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0

From this observations and from item 1 and 2 above in the same table, it is evident that project performance of NGOs and their impacts, while generally good, opinions vary widely from one project type to the other in different places and this probably depends on how the project is designed.

To test this, chi-square (χ^2) test at 0.05 level of significance has been employed to determine between two sets of categorical data based on the frequency counts. Based on this, the fact that project beneficiaries have much less confidence on the effectiveness of NGO intervention programmes in terms of capacity building and empowering the local community as shown by the highly significant chi-square test. Especially when it comes to the sustainability issue, one can generalize from the results of the chi-square test that there is high significant difference and worse than the results of capacity building or empowerment (for further information, refer Annex 24, No. 3 and 4).

When these are analyzed in relation to the basic questions about how effective is the capacity of the NGOs in serving the education sector and efforts to integrate their projects with regional planning efforts; it is difficult to conclude - to accept or reject the trends - because there are low and high participation as well as high return from these intervention development programmes; which are practiced by some NGOs in the region. At the same time, since the NGOs subjected to this study are at their initial stage and some are found in a state of conducting pilot programme; it is very difficult to criticize or evaluate flaws on this regard. This can be answered, however, after having experienced a certain longer period of project life.

Thus, this is in accord with what Webb and Others (1995:16) assert that project sustainability might require technical assistance beyond the arrangements of any intervention programmes of NGO financing, which many NGOs cannot provide partly, because of lack of human and financial skills and partly, the most probable cause, because of NGOs' activities tend to be project specific and therefore limited in time. As a result, the evaluations of many projects executed in different places so far revealed that project sustainability was more likely to occur in areas where the NGO executing agency maintained a permanent presence.

Moreover, although project sustainability is an issue that the NGOs continues to address, it was reported by the respondents of this study that some projects experienced significant delays and construction problems as a result of NGO's inexperience and fast execution

timetables. This indicates indirectly that there are significant variations among the NGOs' project performance in different areas of the region. In this regard, experiences from many projects executed at the grassroots level have shown that the performance of project executors is a key factor in project outcomes, and NGO weaknesses that affect the project outcome are poor financial administration and insufficient logistical support. At the same time, some problems that emanate from bureaucratic process such as local government (REB) readiness to carry out the programme on time of completion; frequent changes of local government authorities, educational officials and other isolated problems were also reported by the employees of the NGOs as the major drawbacks and factors that affect the project outcomes executed by NGOs.

Accordingly, as it was indicated similar problems in tables 5, 7 and annex 17, in the absence of high quality information systems; sound management structures; developed monitoring and evaluation systems; and limited experience to work on medium and large scales; it is likely that only a small number of NGOs could demonstrate such a capacity.

By way of recapitulating outcomes in the study areas, there is a good start at this time; and especially since the change of government in 1991, NGOs are playing significant role in implementation of the SNNPR five years education plan; and some of them are trying their best to lay down the educational foundation of a new approach - community involvement.

According to the observations made so far, the projects that have worked best are those that provide training and technical assistance to project executors (schools in this case); creating awareness and facilitating participation in view of the new ETP; developing administration capacity in project identification, planning, and related activities; cost sharing mechanisms with local community; and enjoying a high degree of coordination among relevant key actors; etc., which are practiced especially by CSAP and GDP to some extent - offer a good example of such NGO participation respectively.

Especially, the key factors for programme success of CSAP or BESO project, among other things, are: CSAP does not do an operational project by itself, but delegates this role to intermediary organizations (SAC in this case); building the capacity of SAC to continue with the project; increasing the capacity of the schools in generating their own income (resources); CSAP also requires significant cost-sharing (at least 20%) from these intermediary organizations, which motivates them to present quality projects. In this regard, it seems

reasonable to argue that the goal of the BESO project is certain towards project sustainability; and eventually schools will run their activities together with their local communities even after CSAP leaves the place in question.

To sum up this portion, to bring sustainable development, first and foremost, there must be an integrated approach for a common goal and objectives; strengthening community participation in education so as to develop a feeling of ownership towards their schools where they belong; and eventually local organizations with their communities should be involved in a mobilized, decentralized, and democratic - autonomous system.

Table 12. Sample Results Concerning Monitoring and Evaluation and Beneficiaries Complainants' About the Outcome of PEDPs

S No	Item	Respondents											
		Government Organizations										Total	
		NGOs		REB		ZEO		WEO		School			
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1.	Do you think that currently there is a continuous monitoring and evaluation of PEDPs/ programmes that are assisted by NGOs?												
	a. Always	6	18.75	3	60.0	4	25.00	12	37.50	39	34.21	64	32.16
	b. Sometimes	24	75.0	1	20.0	5	31.25	10	31.25	32	28.07	72	36.18
	c. Rarely	2	6.25	1	20.0	4	25.0	6	18.75	27	23.68	40	20.10
	d. Not at all	-	-	-	-	3	18.75	4	12.50	16	14.04	23	11.56
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0
2	In your experiences, how often do the beneficiaries make complaints about the outcome of projects												
	a. Always	1	3.12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.50
	b. Sometimes	3	9.38	1	20.0	-	-	4	12.50	12	10.53	20	10.05
	c. Rarely	17	53.12	3	60.0	8	50.0	13	40.62	39	34.21	80	40.20
	d. Not at all	11	34.38	1	20.0	8	50.0	15	46.88	63	55.26	98	49.25
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0
3	In your experience, is there any difference between what NGO supposes the educational inputs in primary education should be and what the local community or local government supposes it should be ?												
	a. Yes	14	43.75	3	60.0	12	75.0	28	87.50	78	68.42	135	67.84
	b. No	18	56.25	2	40.0	4	25.0	4	12.50	36	31.58	64	32.16
	Total	32	100.0	5	100.0	16	100.0	32	100.0	114	100.0	199	100.0

off

Table 12 indicates that the responses of NGOs and GOs employees to the questions asked about the process of monitoring and evaluation as well as community complaints' regarding the outcome of PEDPs. On item one inquiry was made whether there is a continuous monitoring and evaluation of PEDPs in their localities or not. The responses from the NGO employees were 75 per cent said they operate sometimes, the other 18.75 per cent said they always did. From the GOs side, however, though 34.73 per cent said they conducted always and 28.74 per cent reported that sometimes.

Similarly, a comparison of this data with those presented by all respondents in open ended questionnaire concludes that the executing agencies (particularly GOs), do not make an effort to conduct a complete monitoring and evaluating programmes. For instance, among the total respondents from both groups 78.89 per cent of them listed many factors regarding their responsibilities and mechanisms used in monitoring and evaluation practices relating to implementation conditions.

One may safely generalize from the above information that the efforts made by all agencies are concentrated on monitoring inputs in conformity with internal and financial rules. Mostly, it tends to be similar with the evaluation of infrastructure projects which focuses on the quantifiable, physical dimension of projects rather than on the social dimension such as community participation. In this regard, evaluation focuses only on implementation phase; it does not monitor progress towards project objectives; and almost ignores the sustainability and impact of expenditures. In the region visited, however, regular monthly field staff meetings to conduct a systematic evaluation of the project; consultations with other staff members; and joint field assessment with community representatives (SAC) and local government structures (WEO) are a good examples exercised by CSAP /BESO project in the region.

In general, we can generalize from the practical aspect of the target area that a complete monitoring and evaluation of the programmes (projects) have not been conducted and little information exists on the results of NGOs participation in terms of how NGO involvement has changed over time; the impact of NGOs on local community participation; and on the overall development impact of NGO-executed projects.

Thus, this result is at odds with what Baum and Tolbert (1985:584-585) and Magnen (1991:116-119) assert that by and large evaluation requires: information about programmes or projects particularly with respect to what has taken place and what is going on; involves comparing between what has been obtained, and intended; and requires weighing specifically whether or not what has been attained deserves a value. As Magnen (1991:117) further stated in the absence of appropriate information the consequence will be:

- Managers can neither detect improper functioning, nor of course take early decisions to remedy them;
- Decision-makers can neither analyse the causes of problems, nor choose more appropriate objectives and implementation strategies on the basis of good understanding.

Regarding the information systems in our country - Ethiopia, at present Planning Bureau (RPEDB) is responsible for the preparation of studies and research for long-term planning; the preparation of programmes and projects in the current long-term plan; preparation and follow-up implementation of development plans; collect, compilation and dissemination of development-related information; and for evaluating the execution of plans and submission of evaluation reports to the Regional Executive Council (REC) and other concerned bodies. At the same time, its branch at zonal level (ZPEDD) is also responsible for the same set of activities as the bureau and reports to ZEC and RPEDB. More over, the responsibility for implementing a part of social sector, in this case education, plans as well as providing monitoring and evaluation information are vested in REB, the offices in lower levels of government, and the service providers.

In the zones and woredas of the region observed (according to what was available in the statistics office of these agencies), even though there appears to be a good start in RPEDB; but generally it seems reasonable to argue that the local government(as REB and other government representatives) has not undertaken a comprehensive evaluation of NGOs, nor is a structure within the government agencies to inform about the detailed picture of NGO intervention programmes in the region. This vacuum exists not only in government offices but also among different levels of NGO offices. Thus, lack of coordination and clear assignment of responsibility probably contribute to this problem.

To sum up this part, a major cause of difficulties in monitoring and evaluation seem the absence of a consolidated strategy and a coordination framework that assigns responsibility to

different agencies and individuals involved in the executing of development programmes in the region in general.

On the other hand, respondents were asked whether the project beneficiaries make any complaints about the outcome of projects run by NGOs in their areas (table 12, item 2). Accordingly, adding together the responses 'Not at all' and 'Rarely', shared similar understanding that beneficiaries never complained about the outcomes of projects (89.45%).

Moreover, to test percentile differences between the category of respondents' responses of the two groups, chi-square (χ^2) test at 0.05 level of significance was computed and it was revealed that there is no statistical significant difference. However, this similar responses might arise due to completely different reasons and at times it might be based on contradictory direction (see Annex 24, No. five).

The last question in the questionnaire addressed to all respondents of both groups was whether there is any differences between what NGO supposes the educational inputs in primary education should be and what the beneficiaries or local government representatives suppose it should be; responses on the part of NGOs were 56.25 per cent for no and 43.75 per cent for yes. On the government side, however, nearly three fourth of the total respondents (72.46%) revealed that there are marked differences between the two groups, while 27.54 per cent said there is no difference at all (table 12, item 3).

Furthermore, chi-square (χ^2) test of significance was computed to examine the relationship between responses of the two groups; it was found that the results of this test do not correlate closely. The reason for this probably, could be the result of perceptive differences of project beneficiaries - for they are immediately affected by the project outcomes of the educational inputs in their locality (for the result of chi-square test refer Annex 24, No. 6).

In related matters, those respondents who argued that there are differences were also asked to choose from and rank order their reasons for their differences from the more critical problem to less critical (see Table 13 below and Annex 23).

As indicated clearly in annex 23, many factors negatively affecting the current intervention programmes of NGOs in their execution of different projects in the region. According to the respondents on the NGOs side, the main critical reasons for difference regarding educational inputs are the policy from the centre (71.43%); regional rules and regulations (57.14%); and

reluctance on the side of NGOs (50%). On the other hand, the respondents from government employees ranging from REB to school level also singled out the following major reasons for difference between two groups: lack of community participation in project planning and selecting priorities; regional rules and regulations; and the policy from the centre.

To test these percentile differences and to examine the consistency of the two ratings, rank order correlation coefficient was computed. Accordingly, the ranks given to each reason as the main factor for the differences regarding educational inputs by each respondent were converted into scores by assigning 3 points to the reason cited as more critical, 2 to the critical, and 1 to the less critical. Based on the results of the rank order correlation, the reasons cited from the NGO side based on frequency counts mentioned earlier have similar rank order; however, on the GOs side the results are quite different and it was found that regional rules and regulations was ranked first, lack of community participation and policy from the centre were ranked second and third respectively (refer Table 13 below).

Table 13. Reasons For Difference Between NGOs and Local Community Regarding Educational Inputs to PEDPs (Rank Order)

Reasons for difference	NGOs (No.= 14)		GOs (No.= 121)		Difference D=R1-R2	D-square
	Score	Rank-R1	Score	Rank-R2		
The policy from the centre (MoE)	37.00	12.000	259.0	10.000	2.00	4.00
Regional state rules and regulations	35.00	11.000	276.0	12.000	-1.00	1.00
Reluctance on the side of NGOs	31.00	9.500	254.0	9.000	0.50	0.25
Lack of coordination on the side of REB	29.00	5.500	232.0	4.000	1.50	2.25
Lack of community participation in project planning and selecting priorities	24.00	1.000	273.0	11.000	-10.00	100.00
Incompatible with the principle of national self-reliance scheme	29.00	5.500	244.0	7.000	-1.50	2.25
Inappropriate technology in relation to the local capabilities	31.00	9.500	251.0	8.000	1.50	2.25
Lack of comparative advantage in relation to the nation's curricula and teaching methods	26.00	3.500	236.0	6.000	-2.50	6.25
Over ambitious design in relation to institutional and managerial capability	30.00	7.500	235.0	5.000	2.50	6.25
Culturally and socially unacceptable project areas	26.00	3.500	213.0	2.000	1.50	2.25
The project feasibility in financial terms	30.00	7.500	225.0	3.000	4.50	20.25
NGOs do not operate as per their agreement	25.00	2.000	208.0	1.000	1.00	1.00
Spearman correlation coefficient					0.4789	(0.115)

To wind up, the table shows that the reasons whether first, second, or third are related to the policy issues or rules and regulations; all the other factors confirmed that any intervention programme or external assistance work only in a good policy environment and with sound economic management. Table 13 and annex 23 also showed that not all NGOs fulfilled their

contractual obligation and agreement to provide the necessary services to beneficiary communities or schools in the required time, place, or type of projects. Therefore, with better management and policies, local government authorities together with the development agencies should become more selective and better coordinated to one another.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to gain some insights into the role of local and external NGOs and their resources contribution to the development and expansion of primary education projects. It assessed the effectiveness of the methods and procedures used to determine the need, adequacy and relevance of the projects to meet the region's educational objectives. It also looked at the degree of involvement of local governments and communities in the design, financing, implementation, and evaluation of primary education development projects undertaken by NGOs. Finally, it attempted to identify the key managerial skills needed for efficient administration and coordination of NGO activities so as to enhance the capacity to implement educational programmes. This final chapter summarizes the major findings and draws conclusions and recommendations based on the major findings.

4.1. SUMMARY

In this study, the descriptive survey method of research was employed. To collect the necessary data, questionnaire survey, interview, document analysis and organizational observation were used as an instrument for the study. The subjects for this study were chosen using a purposive and availability sampling procedures. Based on this, the research study involved two categories of sample population: NGOs and GOs ranging from regional head bureaux to grassroots level (schools). The study was carried out in three zones found in SNNPR based on the intervention programmes of 7 NGOs (4 LNGOs and 3 ENGOs).

1. According to the findings of the study, there are 61 NGOs registered and currently operating in different zones and special woredas of the region (SNNPR). Among these mentioned NGOs, the RPEDB has approved financing for 54 NGOs, while the remaining 7 NGOs are in the process to sign the project agreement with concerned offices. All in all, 61 NGOs have started to execute 266 projects in 17 sectors or programme areas.
2. The spatial distribution of NGOs varies widely between different zones and special woredas in the region. The participation of most of the NGOs in the region was initiated in response to the severe drought that occurred for many consecutive years in the past. Hence, there is high concentration of NGOs on the drought prone areas and continued to be involved in the area for long term development programmes. However, in terms of

volume of resources, the zones getting the highest share of assistance from NGOs are Bench Maji, Kaffa-Shaka, and Gedeo. The total allocated budget for the project implementation in the region is about Birr 443,260,297, out of which 30.23 per cent is accounted for by Bench Maji zone, 20.05 per cent by Kaffa-Shaka zone, and 11.54 per cent by Gedeo zone.

3. The number of NGOs involved particularly in education and related activities are more concentrated in Sidama zone with 12 NGOs (17.91%), 11 NGOs in North Omo (16.42%), and 8 NGOs (11.94%) in Guraghe respectively; covered almost half of the total 67 NGOs (46.27%) participating in the sector. Despite the large number of NGOs and projects in the education sector, education sector of the region is far down of the list of priorities in terms of NGO expenditures compared with other sectors.
4. In terms of intervention programmes, training assistance, financial assistance, and infrastructure programme are the major development intervention areas in the education sector in the region. Moreover, we have found that the majority of the NGO-implemented projects gave emphasis to capital investment and devoted a negligible, part of their resource for financing recurrent expenditures.
5. The study brings to the fore that the greatest needs or the major educational problems encountered in the target areas in order of critical importance presented as follows.
 - the need for school construction, expansion, and renovation;
 - lack of facilities, furniture, equipment, and instructional materials;
 - low level of girls participation in school enrolment at all levels;
 - lack of trained manpower; and
 - lack of inputs or budget in general.
6. The findings indicate that the rationale of NGOs for intervention in PEDPs, in order of importance, are (1) complementing the action of REB and filling the gap left by the government through activities that directly benefit communities; (2) improving the quality and equity of basic education through community involvement; and, (3) increasing the school enrolment rate of girls. In addition to their developmental objectives, some NGOs have different religious and/or other ideological reasons for involvement in PEDPs.
7. In most cases, assistance was channelled through the local government, the NGOs themselves, and through handing over an operational project to local community. In the

- study area, the local community (47.24%) of cases, local government (41.71%) of cases, and the NGOs themselves (32.16%) of cases are responsible for need assessment.
8. It was found that most of the employees of NGOs and GOs in the sample (61.81%) believe that the ongoing developmental programmes executed by NGOs addressed the major problems of the community. The new education and training policy, the findings indicated, is believed to be capable of bringing about important changes in the intervention programmes of NGOs. Accordingly, most NGOs are undertaking intervention programmes in the region in accordance with the new policy without any imposition from government authorities.
 9. According to the findings of the study, project beneficiaries have some involvement in coordinating the PEDPs in their areas (92.46%). More over, project beneficiaries are participating always in the planning of educational activities (49.25%); in the selection of project sites (45.23%); in implementing the projects (51.26%); in monitoring and evaluation of projects (48.74%); and in operating the project after its foundation (70.35%). In most cases, NGOs never set their own priority areas in their assistance that are different from the educational and priority areas in the region (58.79%).
 10. Yet, in some instances, priorities were set by the NGOs themselves (41.21%). Surprisingly, a large proportion of the respondents believe the setting of priorities by NGOs alone has not affected the relationship between NGOs and the intended beneficiaries (61.31%). Nevertheless, the findings finally indicated that there are marked differences between what NGOs supposes the educational inputs in PEDPs should be with what the local community or local government supposes it should be (67.84%). Based on this, the more critical element or reasons for differences are due to lack of community participation in project planning and selecting priorities.
 11. It was found out that there are coordinating committees set up in many places that are typically responsible for organizing the various activities of NGOs in PEDPs in particular and education sector in general (70.35%). In these committees it was reported that almost all the project beneficiaries (98.57%), local authorities (72.86%), and NGO representatives (59.29%) are involved and participating for organizing the various programmes executed by NGOs. The meeting schedule of coordinating committee, however, was conducted based on the seriousness of the subject; and it was found out that most of the time these committees were entangled with many difficulties and did not make an effort to bring about close work relationships among key actors.

12. It was found that the most common management constraints are:

- lack of coordination and commitment among power actors - NGOs, local government authorities, and project beneficiaries;
- lack of awareness of some of the participants about the trends of the programmes;
- some of the committee members particularly the local government authorities are busy and some of them are a little reluctant;
- some of the local government authorities attempt to assign the proposed projects in their respective birth place;
- some projects experienced significant delays and construction problems as a result of NGO inexperience and rapid execution timetables;
- lack of administrative and financial skills coupled with the lack of adequate logistical support, particularly in LNGOs;
- lack of transparency about NGOs' activities, work plans, and their budgets - hogging information and blocking (financial) resources from flowing directly to community, particularly in ENGOs.

13. The findings indicated that there is no formal relationships among the NGOs working in the PEDPs. They do not generally communicate or share information among themselves regarding their intervention activities. At the same time, there is a communication gap between local government authorities and NGOs. Regarding project performance, under CSAP, it was found out that at the grassroots level NGO field workers (SDAs) and educational personnel found at woreda and school level are more familiar with each other's activities in their areas. Hence, the project run by CSAP is succeeded in mobilizing community financing to schools where they belongs.

14. The study seems to show that the intervention programmes run by NGOs in PEDPs brought about important changes in the capacity building or empowering the local community (68.84%); and brings also sustainable benefits at the local grassroots level (68.34%). More over, it was reported that there is no any problem for running the projects after the termination of NGO involvement in the area (65.83%). It is interesting to note that project beneficiaries generally do not complain about the outcomes of projects. About half of the respondents (49.25%) claim that beneficiaries *never* complained about the outcomes of projects run by NGOs in the region.

15. Analysis of the data collected for the study shows that monitoring and evaluation are conducted sometimes for the programmes that are assisted by NGOs. Similarly, the efforts by agencies are concentrated on monitoring inputs in conformity with internal and financial rules; evaluation of infrastructure projects; and physical dimension of projects.

4.2. CONCLUSION

1. It has been shown that NGOs are not homogenous in the extent to which they reflect different social and political interests. These differences are partly reflected in their differences in their structure, objectives and methods of project/beneficiary identification, implementation, and evaluation. Based on this, there has been a large variation in the effectiveness of NGO interventions.
2. The most critical considerations for investment in education are the comparative cost-effectiveness of different investments and the implication of current capital investments on future demand for recurrent expenditure. In this regard, two important issues that should be taken into account are the incremental recurrent expenditures associated with NGOs' investment, and the current composition of expenditure between recurrent and capital within the education budget of the public sector. A potential problem that might arise in relation to the participation of NGOs as project executors is the effect of their investments on the recurrent-capital balance in the education sector. The study shows that the majority of the NGOs gave more emphasis to projects on capital investment; having devoted only a small amount of their resources used to finance recurrent expenditures. The evident strain on recurrent expenditures in the educational sector casts doubt on the appropriateness of the observed bias of expenditures of NGOs towards capital investment.
3. Regarding the projects executed by WLI-USAID/BESO, under CSAP, the programme is conducted based on the "working through the system" approach that enables it to directly channel resources to project beneficiaries; and projects are executed at the school level. In this regard, project ideas were initiated first at the school level and the project have had a positive impact particularly on the attachment of the local community to the schools in their surroundings. On the other hand, all the NGOs considered in this study channel their assistance to through local government authorities. As a result, local NGOs tend have a closer relationship with local government than with people.
4. It is widely accepted principle of administration that NGOs should promote self-help and the overcome paternalism and dependency since they support mobilization of

communities and the objectives of action are defined locally by the population. The study shows that some NGOs never encouraged the project beneficiaries to identify the priority areas or the type of assistance needed in their respective community. Hence, they were not able to base need identification on the interest of the local community. These NGOs seem to have faced problems in identifying the intended beneficiaries of their projects, the type of information required by potential users, and of visualizing the potential applications of educational programmes. Partly due to this, a significant percentage (about 38 per cent) of the target groups have reported that the ongoing programmes executed by NGOs could never address the problems of the community. From this we may conclude that many NGO projects fail to achieve their planned objectives, no more than build works, and resulted to waste of resources.

5. Administrative and bureaucratic delays have reportedly hampered the effectiveness of the intervention programmes of NGOs. The study shows that though many of the PEDPs are executed through steering committees, there are some intervention programmes of NGOs executed without the benefit of such a committee. Even in those instances where steering committees were in place, there were many cases where the committees had been improperly constituted, and therefore had not resulted in greater efficiency.
6. Most problems identified in this study are closely related to lack of coordination between NGOs and the local government or local community in the one hand, as well as between and among NGOs on the other. The local government has not incorporated NGOs into its policies or structures; and the NGOs for their part did not act in a coordinated way to help local governments develop programmes, policy, or to collaboration among themselves in project identification and implementation.
7. Since the NGOs considered in this study are found at their initial stage of development, it is very difficult to evaluate their performance. Hence, the conclusions in this study should be regarded cautiously and taken as preliminary and tentative. The study seems to show that the intervention programmes run by NGOs in PEDPs brought about sustainable benefits at the local grassroots level in terms of capacity building and in empowering the local community. While the performance of NGOs and their impact on development generally appear good, there is significant divergence in opinion on the performance of different projects and the performance of projects in different target areas of the region.
8. It has been found that monitoring and evaluation are conducted only for some of the projects assisted by NGOs. The evaluations undertaken generally focuses on the

implementation phase and does not monitor progress towards project objectives. Moreover, it generally ignores the sustainability, social dimension, and impact of expenditures. We can generalize that complete monitoring and evaluations of the programmes have not been conducted. Little information exists on the results of NGO participation in terms of how it has changed over time, the impact on project beneficiaries, and on the overall impact on development.

4.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the findings and conclusions, the following recommendations have been forwarded. When one examine the existing educational institutions in the region (SNNPR), we can understand from the findings of this study that there is disparity between the need of the communities and the provision of educational services. Shortage of instructional materials, textbooks, shortage of trained manpower coupled with insufficient of training of teachers, inadequate facilities, and other related teaching materials, all indicate for the low quality of education - this calls in turn, for a strong need for assistance and capacity building from regional to the grassroots level. However, the study shows that there still seems to be a tendency in the bureaucracy on the part of some NGOs to do something for the community, instead of encouraging them to take their own decisions and actions.

In this regard, people are not perceived as ‘passive recipient’ who accept whatever benefits and services are given to them but rather as active participants who make demands on the delivery systems or on whatever benefits. Once again, if development is really to belong to local community, it must be shared by them, achieved only ‘by people’, and cannot be done ‘to people’.

Based on this premise, NGOs can translate local needs and peculiarities into formulation of their objectives and methods of action if they:

- maintain close contact with local communities and explore ways to work with them;
- getting resources to them requires strengthening their ability to act for themselves, help in mobilizing funds or cost sharing mechanisms for development projects;
- encourage local community participation at all levels of project cycle and involved beneficiaries starting from the inception of project identification and design;

- involve local organizations in a way that provides them with incentive for autonomous development;
- local organizations together with project beneficiaries should be involved in a mobilized, decentralized, and democratic autonomous system.

For this purpose, people-centred development strategies is one of the most important strategies for the goal of enabling the local community to take control of the decision making process which affect their lives, and for identifying institutions and mechanisms that can get opportunities and resources into their hands. And it is only in this trend that participatory planning and priority arrangements must take into consideration of the community's values, beliefs, perceived needs, and goals.

On the other hand, the major findings of this study have revealed that most of the NGOs who participate in developmental programmes of the region give more emphasis to execute projects on capital investment; and it is not clear what the future recurrent expenditure effects of these capital expenditures will be. The most probable effect depends on the mix of allocation between expenditures for rehabilitation and those for expansion. Thus, it is absolutely imperative that to devise a scheme and measures need to be taken to support improvements to budgeting and expenditure management at the regional level. For this purpose, there must be an integral part of project preparation regarding the financial plan between the concerned NGOs and government agencies so as to guarantee that there will be adequate funds not only for completing the project but also for operating it.

In this context, every planning and implementation decision should be make in the light of sustainability issues. Accordingly, whatever the project, a minimum of financial information and reporting will be necessary to keep track of the progress of expenditures. Therefore, the impact of individual project has to be considered in the context of the overall financial situation of the concerned NGOs and above all of the government expenditure budget as whole.

In order to facilitate coordination among the various tasks and executing agencies, mutual commitment and support is needed between the relevant local government authorities, the concerned NGOs financing the project and the intended beneficiaries. In this context, the study seems to show that many of the PEDPs are organized and coordinated through the steering committees set up in the respective places in the region. For that reason, the

committee is vested with the legal power of making everything to coordinate the various activities and programmes that are executed by NGOs in their surroundings. But the findings show that the coordinating committee is not functional as required. Once again, local government authorities are not doing what is required of them in bringing close relations among all power actors involved in the programme.

Therefore, it seems that there is an urgent need for coordination among the power actors and some mechanisms must be found; among these:

- clear cut policies and plans - provide NGOs not only with precise definition of their roles in projects, but also clarify the project's objectives, how NGOs will contribute to achieving them; and able to do this within the context of the local power structure;
- a clear definition of the responsibilities of each of the participatory agencies;
- sector coordination - organizing NGOs working in the same sector or on the same project so that they can assess project performance and make discussions on how to improve the project and NGO participation in general;
- establish a systematic channel of communication with NGOs to disseminate information like operational procedures, investment priorities, and other related issues;
- revising job description of REB so that they can play a collaborative role according to the agreement between NGOs and the local government.

The findings revealed also that the intervention programmes run by NGOs in PEDPs seems good. However, there are significant differences among the NGOs' performance in different target areas of the region. Each of these NGOs' plays a distinctive role in development process and faces a different range of choice and strategies when considering the question of impact. However development is judged as successful by whether or not it lasts. To bring sustainable development, first and foremost, there must be an integrated approach for a common goal and objectives. Above all, it requires building up in people the confidence, skills, assets and freedoms necessary to achieve this goal. NGOs should also to seek to develop closer community ties so as to develop and encourage ownership and innovation among the people in general. At the same time, training and technical assistance of the bodies responsible for day to day operation of the facilities must be considered as an essential part of the projects executed.

For that reason, since the intervention programmes of NGOs in the region have aimed at ensuring the sustainability of investment and benefits of their projects; and involved in establishing the institutional development in practice, then, the following critical elements must be considered.

- Early local community analysis, involvement, and learning from the community;
- Learning about the grassroots' priorities;
- Understanding existing community organizations;
- Information sharing and dialogue among the power actors;
- Institutional strengthening and building on traditional structure; and
- Appropriate systems of monitoring/evaluation mechanisms for ensuring accountability.

These strategies must be adaptable to the local situation and flexible enough to deal or to manage properly the comparative advantage of NGOs in mobilizing of funds from external sources; eventually to move from participation in aid projects to responsibility for their own programmes.

Finally, project quality depends among others on the executing agencies' technical abilities and monitoring capacity as well as on participatory evaluation of all power actors involved in executing the developmental projects. In this context, monitoring and evaluation must be considered as valuable and integral part of management; which in combination with other inputs may have a role to play in the overall development so as to remind the executing bodies of their original purpose and measure their own performance in terms of impact and efficiency.

Nevertheless, the major findings of the this study have revealed that there are no clear guidelines and instructions regarding the yardstick to be used in monitoring and evaluation, and the variety of techniques that can be used in their execution. This in turn restrict the flow of information among the various key actors involved in the programmes executed in the region. To take the effectual action, then, local government authorities (especially educational authorities in this case) together with the concerned NGOs, and with other concerned line ministries might consider the possibility of comparative issue or sector specific studies of NGOs activities instead of using the more common project by project approach.

Among the many techniques of monitoring and evaluation used for educational projects, the following techniques must be considered.

- Conduct participatory monitoring and evaluation activities;
- Project beneficiaries should have participated in monitoring and evaluation of projects executed in their respective place;
- Evaluation in addition to physical progress and disbursement, concentrate on the quality output and services offered;
- Project evaluation requires clearly stated objectives and indicators for each type of projects as well as a well defined evaluation methodology in terms of anticipated project impact so that they can be measured;
- Design or adapt computerized management information systems to process NGO data separately and in combination with programme and project data to facilitate the process of monitoring and evaluation.

Based on the above factors, continuous monitoring and evaluation as well as follow-up mechanisms should be strictly realized; and evaluate NGO capacity with respect to sector experience; administrative structure; number and availability of professional and support personnel; logistical support; community participation; partnership with grassroots organizations, and so on. Finally, on the part of NGOs, critical self-evaluation of their role and work in the overall development and societal context is an important exercise to remind themselves of their organizational purpose.

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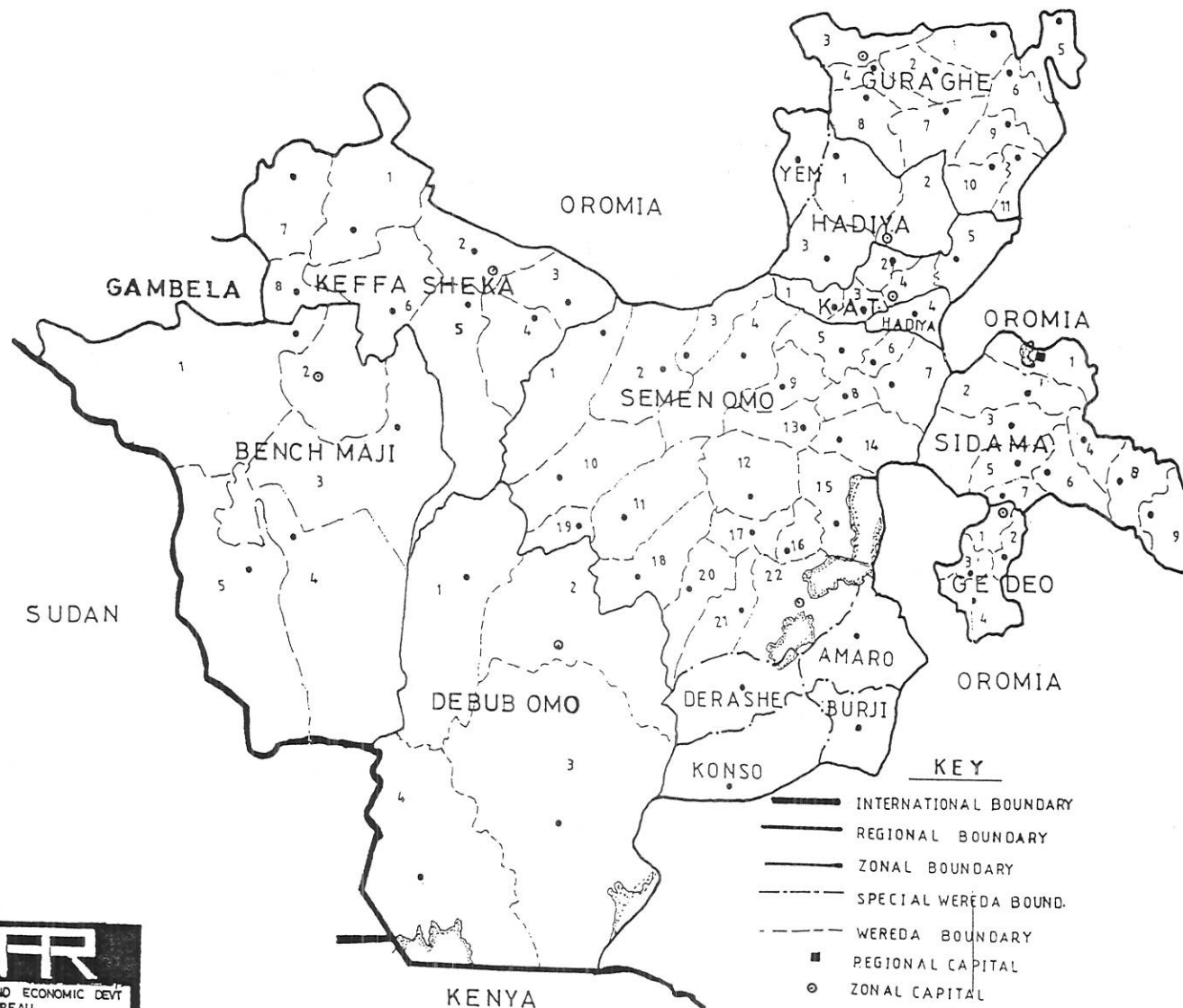
ANNEX

Annex 1
Sample Schools, Woredas and Zones of the Study

S. No	Name of the Primary School	Woreda	Zone
1	Bete Khenet	Awassa Zuria	Sidama
2	Ethiopia Tekdem	"	"
3	Hayik	"	"
4	Tabor	"	"
5	Genbe Gennet	"	"
6	Chaffi Sene	"	"
7	Fenchawo	"	"
8	Alla Murra	"	"
9	Bushullo	"	"
10	Gerrewa	"	"
11	Tara Meesa	Shebedino	"
12	Telamo Kentese	"	"
13	Diramo Aferara	"	"
14	Sadeca	"	"
15	Dilla Gunbe	"	"
16	Anburse	Badawochu	Hadiya
17	Shonne	"	"
18	Jarso	"	"
19	Weberra	"	"
20	Langano	"	"
21	Ambicho Gode	Lemmu	"
22	Wachemmo Kuttir 3	"	"
23	Belessa	"	"
24	Achamo	"	"
25	Anagero Darrsha	"	"
26	Ras Zeselassie	Gorre	Guraghe
27	Fenta	"	"
28	Edeget Ber	"	"
29	Mamnede	"	"
30	Huddad 5	"	"
31	Huddad 7	"	"
32	Weltegne	"	"

S. No	Name of the Primary School	Woreda	Zone
33	Wesherbe Negedima	Gorre	Guraghe
34	Entebarria	Cheha	"
35	Emdeber	"	"
36	Derrar	"	"
37	Gasere Aricha	"	"
38	Baken Wette	"	"
39	Jalle	Meskcanenna Mereka	"
40	Gubo Totto	"	"
41	Jarre Demeka	"	"

SOUTHERN NATIONS NATIONALITIES AND PEOPLES REGIONAL STATE ADMINISTRATIVE MAP (Sample Zones)



SIDAMA ZONE
1. Awassa (Awassa)
2. Shebedino (Leku)
3. Dais (T. Alex)
4. Arbogona (Arbogona)
5. Alata Wendu (A. Wendu)
6. Hagere Selam (E. Selam)
7. Dara (Teferikela)
8. Bensha (Deye)
9. Arorera (Mejo)

GEDEO ZONE
1. Wenago (Wenago)
2. Irigachefe (T. Chiefe)
3. Bule (Bule)
4. Kochore (Chalelekt)

NORTH OMO ZONE
1. Ella/Konta (Aneya)
2. Issra Tocha (Tocha)
3. Kereke Genu (Waka)
4. Lona Bossa (Bale)
5. Boloso Bore (Aneka)
6. Danot Gale (Boditi)
7. Danot Woyde (Badesa)
8. Sodo Joria (Sodo)
9. Lindo Koyisha (Bule)
10. Meletoza (Leha)
11. Gofa Joria (Sawia)
12. Kucha (Selan Ber)
13. Ofra (Ganaba)
14. Buno Tebela (Tebela)
15. Boreda-Absya (Berbir)
16. Chenchu Joria (Chenchu)
17. Dita Derannilo (Vacha)
18. Jala Obanale (Beto)
19. Basketo (Lanka)
20. Lemba (Lemba)
21. Bonke (Gerese)
22. A/Kinch Joria (A. Kinch)

SOUTH OMO ZONE
1. Selanago (Bana)
2. Bakogaser (Jibha)
3. Buner (Turali)
4. Seleb (Onorate)

HADIYA ZONE
1. Konteb (Korsito)
2. Lina (Bosaina)
3. Soro (Gimbicho)
4. Badewacho (Shone)

K.A.T ZONE
1. Ousheleto (Maddala)
2. Angacha (Angacha)
3. Kacozbira (Shinshicho)
4. Tedisa Gwela (Durane)
5. Alaba (Kulito)
6. E. Gedebezo (Guranda)
7. E. Wejene (Agona)
8. Goro (Welkite)
9. Chene (Zandibir)
10. Sodo (Buei)
11. K. K. Hareko (Butajira)
12. Gumer (Zrekitt)
13. Zhenorena Ener (Guchere)
14. Selti (Kibet)

KEFFA-SHEKA
1. Gesha (Data)
2. Gimbo (Offa)
3. Mengewa (Adiakata)
4. Tello (Felegeselam)
5. Decha (Chiri)
6. Chena (Vacha)
7. Masha (Masha)
8. Teki (Tepi)

BENCH-MAJI ZONE
1. Sheko (Sheko)
2. Bench (Anze)
3. Meinit (Bachuna)
4. Dizi (Yun)
5. Sorno (Kardor)

SPECIAL WOREDA
1. Ten (Sekoru)
2. Anzro (Teke)
3. Burji (Soyena)
4. Derashe (Gidole)
5. Konso (Karat)

ABBREVIATION
A. Kinch - Arba Minch
E. Wejene - Erenna Wejene
E. Selam - Hagere Selam
K.A.T. - Kembata, Alaba, Tembaro
M. Kereko - Meskanene Kereko
T. Alex - Tirga Alex
T. Chiefe - Tirga Chiefe
T. Gedebezo - Gedebezo

KEY

- INTERNATIONAL BOUNDARY
- REGIONAL BOUNDARY
- ZONAL BOUNDARY
- SPECIAL WEREDA BOUND.
- WEREDA BOUNDARY
- REGIONAL CAPITAL
- ZONAL CAPITAL
- WEREDA SPE-WEREDA CAP.
- LAKE

CAUTION

The delineation of all boundaries on this map are not Authoritative

SCALE 1:2 000 000

Date July 1998

NB. Weredas and Spe. Weredas' Capitals are indicated in brackets



Annex 3

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION**

**QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE FILLED BY
GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES AND
NGO FIELD WORKERS**

PURPOSE

The main objective of this questionnaire is to collect first hand information for the study on "The Resources Contribution of Local and External NGOs in Primary Education Development projects in Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Regional State". Your cooperation in providing pertinent and reliable information will be invaluable. So, Please fill out the questionnaire completely and honestly.

Thank You For Your Cooperation

INSTRUCTION

- a) No need to write your name
- b) Please put " X " mark in the space provided for your answers given in a multiple choice form.
- c) Please give short answers in space provided for question items that require your opinion.

GENERAL INFORMATION

- 1. Place: Zone _____ Woreda _____ Village/Town _____
- 2. Name of the organization you work for _____
- 3. Career position _____
- 4. Age: below 20 _____ between 20 and 30 _____
between 31 and 40 _____ Above 41 _____
- 5. Sex: Male _____ Female _____
- 6. Current Educational level _____
- 7. Service:
 - a) At your present position _____ years.
 - b) Total years of service _____ years.

I- Concerning Type of Intervention Areas by Actors

(Questions number 1 and 2 are for government employees)

1. Which organization are engaged in providing services/assistance programmes particularly for the Primary Education Development Projects(PEDPs) in your area ?

- i) Local NGOs(LNGOs) _____
- ii) External NGOs(ENGOS) _____
- iii) Both local and external NGOs _____
- iv) Other, Please specify _____

2. what kind of assistance do you get from these NGO intervention programmes?

(You may give more than one answer, if any)

- i) financial assistance _____ ii) technical assistance _____
- iii) Instructional materials, furniture, and equipment ____ iv) training ____
- v) Construction and maintenance of buildings ____
- vi) Other, Please specify _____

3. What is the rational to intervene NGOs in Primary Education Development Projects (PEDPs) in this area according to your view ?(Mention please)

4. How do NGOs channel their assistance to PEDPs in your area ? (You may give more than one answer, if any)

- a) through the local government _____
- b) through the NGOs themselves _____
- c) through handing over an operational project to local community _____
- d) Other means, please mention the means or agencies that are involved in the process

II. Concerning the Need Assessment and Selection of Beneficiaries(Priorities)

1. How do you make the need assessment for the developmental projects in primary education which are currently run by NGOs ?

- a) Local community come up with project proposal _____
- b) NGOs themselves assess the needs of the local community _____
- c) It is the responsibility of the local government _____
- d) Other ways, (if any) _____

2. What are the greatest needs of primary education in your area before NGO intervention programmes started ? (Please state the major educational problems according to their critical importance in the area)

- a) _____
- b) _____
- c) _____
- d) _____

3. Do you think that the ongoing programmes run by NGOs could address these needs ?

- a) Yes _____
- b) No _____

4. If your response to question number 3 is no, Please state the reason.

- a) _____
- b) _____
- c) _____
- d) _____

5. How often do NGOs attempt to implement their own priority areas in their assistance that are different from the educational planning and priority areas in your locality ?

- a) Always ____
- b) Sometimes ____
- c) Rarely ____
- d) Not at all ____

6. If your response to question number 5 is always or sometimes, how is it that the priorities identified by NGOs coincided with that of the planning efforts of the area ?

7. How often the selection of project sites by NGOs alone affect/hinder the relationship between NGOs and local government ?

- a) Always ____
- b) Sometimes ____
- c) Rarely ____
- d) Not at all ____

8. If your response to question number 7 is always and sometimes, how do you reconcile these differences in your area ? (Please specify)

9. Are there any organization/institution, government bodies, or any other agencies which are responsible in selecting beneficiaries other than NGOs ?

a) Yes _____ b) No _____

10. If your response to question number 9 is yes , please mention them.

11. Do local community(project beneficiaries) have any involvement/roles in coordinating the developmental projects run by NGOs in primary education sub-sector in your area ?

Yes _____ b) No _____

12. If your response to question number 11 is yes, do project beneficiaries have roles particularly in the:

	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Not at all
Overall planning of education projects				
Selection of project sites/areas				
Type/amount of assistance/service				
Implementation of projects				
Monitoring and evaluation of projects				
Operating the project after its foundation				

13. If your organization has a role for selecting beneficiaries, what criteria do you use in your selection process ? (Please specify)

a) _____

b) _____

c) _____

d) _____

14. Is there any new educational inputs or technological equipment installed/introduced through primary education development projects by NGOs in your area ?

a) Yes _____ b) No _____

15. If yes, do the potential beneficiaries get any training/orientation as to how to operate the new educational inputs or developmental projects by NGOs in their locality ?

a) Always ____ b) Sometimes ____ c) Rarely ____ d) Not at all ____

III. Concerning the Resources Contribution of NGOs: Policy Issues, Relationships, and Operations of PEDPs

1. Do you think that the new Education and Training Policy(ETP), adopted since 1994, brings important changes particularly for NGO intervention programmes in PEDPs ?

a) Yes _____ b) No _____

2. If Yes,

a) What changes or improvements have you observed on the developmental activities and strategies of NGOs in PEDPs after 1994 ? (please specify)

b) What problems have you observed/ encountered in this respect ?

(Form question number 3 to 10 refer only to REB and NGOs employees)

3. Do you think that the ETP give equal opportunity to LNGOs and ENGOs to participate smoothly in PEDPs in your area ?

a) Yes _____ b) No _____

1. If no, Please state the reason.

5. Do you see any imposition to the NGOs from the governmental authorities in your intervention ?

a) Yes _____ b) No _____

6. If your response to question number 5 is yes, what kind of imposition ?(Please mention)

7. Does the local government organize meetings or workshops to discuss issues on resources contribution of NGOs to primary education in your area ?

a) Always _____ b) Sometimes _____ c) Rarely _____ d) Not at all _____

8. Do you have any formal relationships with other NGOs working in the primary education developmental projects in your area ?

a) Yes _____ b) No _____

9. If no, would you specify the reason ?

10. If your response to question number 8 is yes, how often do you share information about the activities of different donor agencies in your area ?

a) Always ____ b) Sometimes ____ c) Rarely ____ d) Not at all ____

11. Is there any coordinating committee set up in your locality that is typically responsible for organizing the various activities of NGOs in primary education in particular and education sector in general ?

a) Yes ____ b) No ____

12. If your response to question number 11 is yes:

a) What are its duties ?

b) How often does the committee meet ?

c) Are project beneficiaries involved in the coordinating committee ? Yes__ No__

d) Are local authorities involved in the coordinating committee ? Yes ____ No ____

e) Are NGOs members in the coordinating committee ? Yes ____ No ____

13. Have you come across any problem(s) in your coordinating role ?

a) Yes ____ b) No ____

14. If yes, what are they ? (Mention please)

a) _____

b) _____

c) _____

d) _____

15. What is your responsibility particularly in monitoring/evaluating the projects in your area ? (Please list them)

A. _____

B. _____

C. _____

D. _____

16. How do you monitor and evaluate practices relating to implementation conditions, results of projects, and undertakings associated to developmental projects' performance in your area ? (Mention please)

17. Do you think that currently there is a continuous monitoring and evaluation of primary education developmental programmes/projects that are assisted by NGOs ?

a) Always ____ b) Sometimes ____ c) Rarely ____ d) Not at all ____

IV. Attitude on NGO Interventions and their Impact in PEDPs

1. Local community should participate in any interventions in their locality to get what they need ?

a) Strongly Agree ____ b) Agree ____ c) Disagree ____ d) Strongly Disagree ____

2. Do you think that external NGO developmental project interventions in primary education would bring about important changes in the capacity building or empowering the local community in your area ?

a) Yes _____ b) No _____

3. If your response to question no. 2 is no, please give your reason why it happened so.

____4. Do you think that the resources assisted/supplied by NGOs in PEDPs bring sustainable benefits at the local grassroots level?

a) Yes _____ b) No _____

5. If your response to question number 4 is no, please state the main problems.

6. What solutions do you propose to bring sustainable development in primary education sub-sector at the local grassroots level?

____7. What plans do you have for running the projects after the termination of NGO involvement ? (Please mention, if any)

____8. In your experience, do you face any problem in the above cases ?

a) Yes _____ b) No _____

9. If your response to question number 8 is yes, what kind of problems and what measures/solutions did/do you take to resolve these problems ? (Please mention)

____10. How do you evaluate the overall scheme of the NGO programmes in its effort to achieve development and expansion of primary education opportunities in the area? (Please give your opinion and general comment on the programmes assisted by NGOs)

11. What is the degree of success of the NGO intervention scheme in primary education in general from your point of view? Please forward your opinion in relation to the experience of NGO intervention operations in your area.

- A. _____
B. _____
C. _____
D. _____

12. What other comments would you like to give concerning the relationship between:

a) Local NGOs and External NGOs working in PEDPs

b) NGOs and local government (such as local administrative authorities, Regional Education and Planning Bureaux, Zonal and Woreda Education Offices)

c) NGOs and local community (project beneficiaries)

13. In your experience, how often do the beneficiaries make complaints about the outcome of projects run by NGOs in your area?

a) Always ____ b) Sometimes ____ c) Rarely ____ d) Not at all ____

14. If your response to question number 13 is always or sometimes:

a) What is/are the base(s) of complaint? (Please mention them)

b) How do you resolve the complaints? (Please give vivid examples, if any)

15. In your experience, is there any difference between what NGO supposes the educational inputs in primary education should be and what the local community or local government supposes it should be?

a) Yes _____ b) No _____

16. If your response to question number 15 is yes, please rank order the following problem areas by marking "X" from the most critical problem to the less critical.

Reasons for difference	Rank Order of Reason's Difference		
	More Critical	Critical	Less Critical
The policy from the centre (MoE)			
Regional state rules and regulations			
Reluctance on the side of NGOs			
Lack of coordination on the side of REB			
Lack of community participation in project planning and selecting priorities			
Incompatible with the principle of national self-reliance scheme			
Inappropriate technology in relation to the local capabilities			
Lack of comparative advantage in relation to the nation's curricula and teaching methods			
Over ambitious design in relation to institutional and managerial capability			
Culturally and socially unacceptable project areas			
The project feasibility in financial terms			
NGOs do not operate as per their agreement			

17. Please mention any other problems, if any.

18. What measures/solutions do you suggest to resolve these problems?

- a) _____
- b) _____
- c) _____

Thank You for Your Cooperation.

Annex 4
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

QUESTIONS FOR INTERVIEW

Name of the organization the interviewee works in _____

Career position _____

Place (town/city) _____

Questions For NGOs

1. When did your project commence in Ethiopia ?
2. Do you have primary education developmental programmes in Southern Nation, Nationalities and People's Regional State (SNNP) ? If so, how do you define the project undertaking in this region ?
3. For how long have you worked in this region ?
4. What are the main objectives of your project ?
5. Do you give special priority to your project beneficiaries ? If so, which groups of your beneficiaries receive priority in your primary education development programmes ?

Questions For Both NGOs and GOs

1. Is there a document or a report that consolidates the total picture of NGO intervention operations ? (For instance, the scope, source, volume, and

impact in the resources contribution of NGO to any developmental projects in general and educational or PEDPs in particular).

2. How do NGOs channel their assistance to PEDPs in the area ?
3. If your organization has a role for selecting beneficiaries, what criteria do you use in your selection process ? And, please mention the main organs of government or any other agencies which are responsible in selecting beneficiaries other than your organization.
4. How often the local government create a favourable condition for the NGO to intervene in the primary education sub-sector in the area ?
5. How do local authorities get feedback on the project operations of NGO that are implemented at different localities ?
6. How do you evaluate the overall scheme of the NGO programme in its effort to achieve development and expansion of primary education projects in the area ?
7. What are the major development intervention areas that NGOs identified and involved in the education sector in general and Primary Education Developmental Projects (PEDPs) in particular in your locality ? (Please enumerate the list in the table below)

No.	Type of Intervention areas/ projects (Sub-sector Programme e.g. primary ed., Adult ed., Curriculum, etc.)	Type of Assistance /Service(e.g. Construction of buildings, text books, etc.)	No. of Projects in the Region	Zone	Woreda (District)	Schools

Annex 5

Three Generation of NGO Development Programme Strategies

	Generation		
	First	Second	Third
- Defining features	- Relief and welfare	- Small scale self-reliant local development	- Sustainable systems development
- Problem definition	- Shortage of goods and services	- Local inertia	- Institutional and Policy constraints
- Time frame	- Immediate	- Project life	- Indefinite long-term
- Spatial scope	- Individual or family	- Neighborhood or village	- Region or nation
- Chief actors	- NGO	- NGO + beneficiary organizations	- All public and private institutions that define the relevant system
- Development education	- Starving children	- Community self-help initiatives	- Failures in inter-dependent systems
- Management orientation	- Logistics management	- Project management	- Strategic management

Source: Korten, David C. (1987). "Third Generation NGO Strategies: A key to people - centered Development", World Development, Vol. 15, Supplement: p.148.

Annex 6

Education Budgeted Expenditures by Sub-Sector of three years ('000,000 birr at Current Prices)

S.No	Category	1993/94	Per cent share	1994/95	Per cent Share	1995/96	per cent share
1	Total Education	825.0	100.0	875.5	100.0	934.1	100.0
2	Primary Education	455.1	55.2	485.5	55.4	517.6	55.4
	o/w* salaries	423.7	93.1	450.9	92.9	483.3	93.4
3	Junior Secondary	105.5	12.8	109.5	12.5	115.9	12.4
	o/w* salaries	87.7	83.1	92.3	84.3	98.1	84.7
4	Senior secondary	98.8	12.0	103.4	11.8	107.2	11.5
	o/w* salaries	83.3	84.3	89.3	86.3	92.3	86.1
5	Technical and vocational	3.7	0.4	3.5	0.4	3.8	0.4
6	Teacher Training	17.4	2.1	17.9	2.0	22.0	2.4
7	Higher Education	77.9	9.4	82.6	9.4	78.3	8.4
8	Administration (central and Regional)	32.4	3.9	36.0	4.1	57.5	6.2
9	Other	34.4	4.2	37.3	4.3	31.7	3.4

* o/w - Over which salaries

Source: Ministry of Finance: Budget and Expenditure (of three years)

Annex.7 - ETHIOPIA: BASIC DATA ON GOVERNMENT EDUCATION EXPENDITURE

(Millions of Birr)

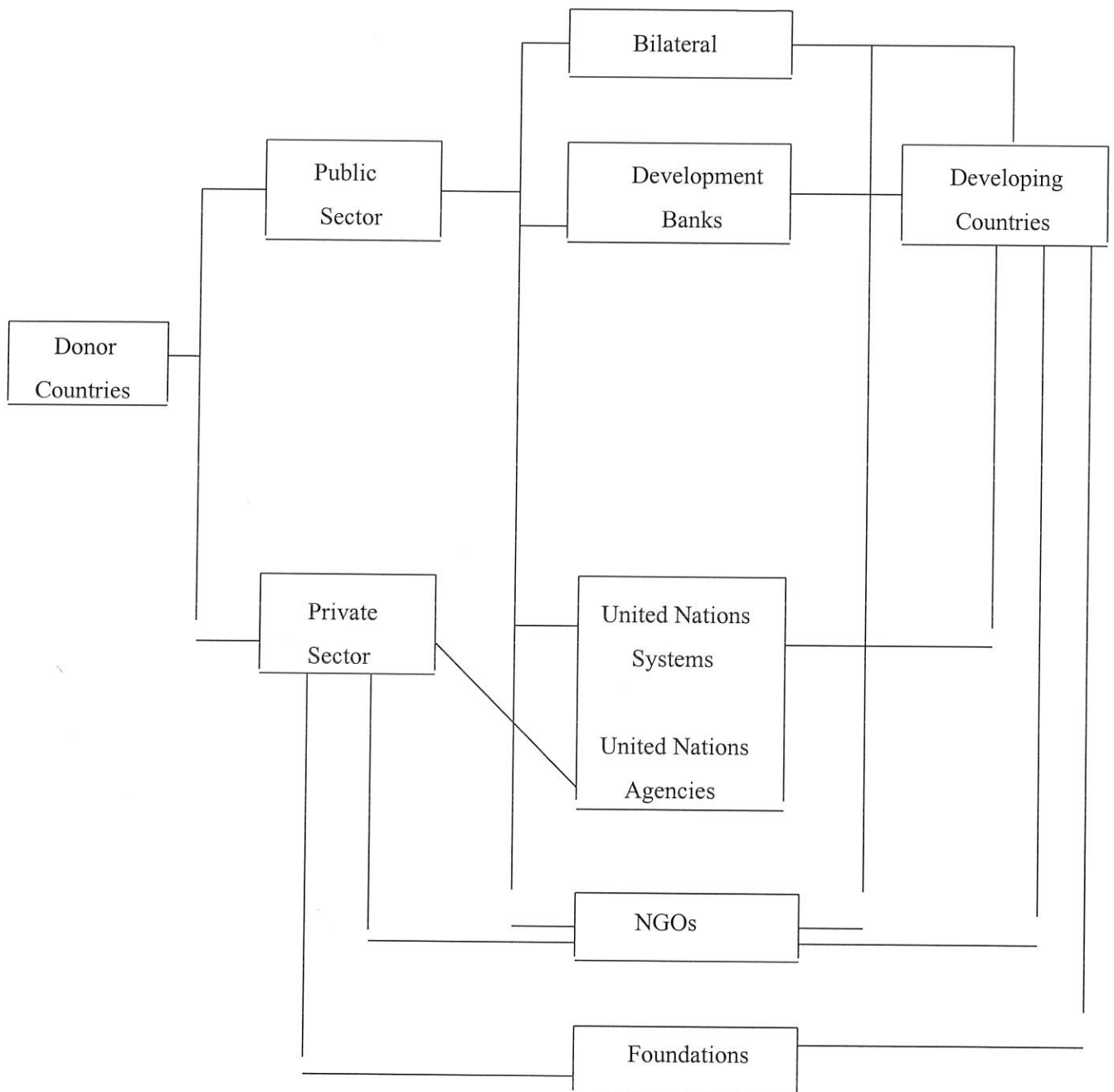
YEAR e.c	YEAR g.c	STATUS	RECURRENT			CAPITAL			GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURE			GDP	EDUC EXP AS SHARE OF GDP
			EDUCATION	TOTAL	% SHARE	EDUCATION	TOTAL	% SHARE	EDUCATION	TOTAL	% SHARE		
1961	1968/69	Budgeted	60.4	509.1	11.9%	1.7	142.5	1.2%	62.1	651.6	9.5%	-	-
1962	1969/70	Budgeted	70.3	501.4	14.0%	8.9	129.7	6.9%	79.2	631.1	12.5%	-	-
1963	1970/71	Budgeted	75.0	516.2	14.5%	6.3	131.9	4.8%	81.3	648.1	12.5%	4710.4	1.7%
1964	1971/72	Budgeted	85.3	538.3	15.9%	13.8	194.6	7.1%	99.1	732.9	13.5%	4743.7	2.1%
1965	1972/73	Budgeted	97.8	584.2	16.7%	17.6	172.8	10.2%	115.4	757	15.2%	5005.2	2.3%
1966	1973/74	Budgeted	113.5	620.9	18.3%	25.9	236.3	11.0%	139.4	857.2	16.3%	5551.2	2.5%
1967	1974/75	Budgeted	132.4	672.9	19.7%	25.9	245.9	10.5%	158.3	918.8	17.2%	5524.5	2.9%
1968	1975/76	Budgeted	139.9	898.5	15.6%	32.0	432.4	7.4%	171.9	1331	12.9%	6042.5	2.8%
1969	1976/77	Budgeted	164.4	987.1	16.7%	59.4	478.6	12.4%	223.8	1465.7	15.3%	6502.1	3.4%
1970	1977/78	Budgeted	182.4	1149.0	15.9%	48.6	451.9	10.8%	231	1600.9	14.4%	-	-
1971	1978/79	Budgeted	195.6	1513.2	12.9%	51.9	605.6	8.6%	247.5	2118.8	11.7%	-	-
1972	1979/80	Budgeted	212.1	1654.6	12.8%	41.2	710.4	5.8%	253.3	2365	10.7%	8462.0	3.0%
1973	1980/81	Budgeted	220.5	1741.2	12.7%	57.0	937.4	6.1%	277.5	2678.6	10.4%	8742.0	3.2%
1974	1981/82	Budgeted	253.3	1838.9	13.8%	72.7	1044.8	7.0%	326.0	2883.8	11.3%	9135.4	3.6%
1975	1982/83	Budgeted	290.2	2043.5	14.2%	86.1	1281.7	6.7%	376.3	3325.2	11.3%	9637.8	3.9%
1976	1983/84	Budgeted	306.7	2224.8	13.8%	67.9	1235.0	5.5%	374.6	3459.8	10.8%	10216.1	3.7%
1977	1984/85	Budgeted	332.4	2419.3	13.7%	59.4	1563.8	3.8%	391.8	3983	9.8%	10880.1	3.6%
1978	1985/86	Budgeted	353.9	2466.9	14.3%	65.7	1931.5	3.4%	419.6	4398.4	9.5%	11630.8	3.6%
1979	1986/87	Actual	379.4	2754.1	13.8%	39.6	1383.1	2.9%	419.0	4137.2	10.1%	11463.8	3.7%
1980	1987/88	Actual	405.5	3598.4	11.3%	41.9	1459.2	2.9%	447.4	5057.6	8.8%	11850.9	3.8%
1981	1988/89	Actual	425.6	3972.6	10.7%	59.1	1939.6	3.0%	484.7	5912.2	8.2%	12413.5	3.9%
1982	1989/90	Pro. Actual	456.2	3833.4	11.9%	39.7	1307.5	3.0%	495.9	5140.9	9.6%	12430.2	4.0%
1983	1990/91	Pro. Actual	441.7	2286.9	19.3%	19.1	1047.8	1.8%	480.8	3334.7	13.8%	13645.5	3.4%
1984	1991/92	Pro. Actual	474.0	2484.0	19.1%	3.7	429.5	0.9%	477.7	2913.5	16.4%	13607.5	3.5%
1985	1992/93	Budgeted	567.6	3164.0	17.9%	160.9	2767.9	5.8%	728.5	5931.9	12.3%	19165.5	3.8%
1986	1993/94	Budgeted	789.9	4600.0	17.2%	316.9	3847.1	8.2%	1106.8	8447.1	13.1%	21402.0	5.2%

Source: Ministry of Finance: Budget and Expenditure
(of various years)

Annex 8

Chart 1

External Assistance for Educational Projects in Developing Countries



Source: Hallak, Jacques. (1995). Negotiation with aid agencies: a dwarf against a giant.

Paris: UNESCO - IIEP. p.2.

Annex 9

Development Related Grants (by year) in the country's Annual budget

(In Millions ETB)

Year	Cash grants	Technical Grants	Total	Year	Cash Grants	Technical Grants	Total
1973/74	NA*	NA	97.9	1985/86	51.3	392.0	443.1
1974/75	NA	NA	114.3	1986/87	79.8	242.2	322.0
1975/76	NA	NA	77.2(1.3)	1987/88	46.4	589.5	635.9
1976/77	32.4	50.1	82.5(1.2)	1988/89	190.9	608.1	799.0
1977/78	6.5	65.3	71.8	1989/90	66.8	334.6(2.25)	401.4
1978/79	26.8	167.4	194.5	1990/91	104.2	359.1	463.3
1979/80	6.8	167.2	174.0(2.04)	1991/92	122.5	420.4	542.9
1980/81	3.0	187.4	190.4	1992/93	265.7	200.6(1.8)	466.1
1981/82	13.1	248.4	261.5	1993/94	756.7	230.5	987.2
1982/83	30.0	229.3	259.3	1994/95	668.7	463.5(3.4)	1132.2
1983/84	20.7	233.0	253.7	NA* Not Available			
1984/85	79.3	552.0	631.3(4.55)				

Source: Ministry of Finance: Budgetary Revenue and Expenditure

Note: figures in the parenthesis indicate that the total grants as a percentage of GDP of some selected years.

Annex 10
Aid Disbursed to 143 Countries for Primary Education, 1981 - 86
(billions of dollars)

S. No	Country Group	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	Annual Average 1981-86
1	Low – income	58,510	60,874	54,262	55,422	60,182	58,185	57,995
2	Lower-middle-income	102,527	77,654	68,406	99,325	91,908	95,324	103,828
3	Upper-middle income	14,599	11,842	2,426	10,845	5,574	42,187	14,568
4	Miscellaneous ^a	4,377	3,405	7,722	4,775	4,953	4,702	4,939
	Total	180.013	253,775	132,816	170,367	162,617	200,398	181,328

a. Includes high-income oil exporters and countries with populations under 1 million.

Source: Lockheed, Marlaine E. et al. (1994). Improving Primary Education in Developing Countries.

New York: Oxford University press p. 208.

Annex 11

Average Annul Contribution of Major Bilateral and Multilateral Donors to Primary Education, 1981 - 86

S. No	Donors	Millions of dollars	Percentage of total Pending to Primary Education	Remark
	Bilateral donors	60.7	33.5	
1	United States	25.8	14.3	
2	France	7.4	4.1	
3	Saudi Arabia	6.2	3.4	
4	Sweden	5.1	2.8	
5	United Kingdom	3.1	1.7	
6	Germany	2.9	1.6	Federal Republic of Germany before Unification
7	NGOs	3.8	2.1	
8	Other	6.3	3.5	
	Multilateral donors	120.6	66.5	
9	World Bank	48.5	27.3	
10	World Food Programme	25.4	14.0	
11	Inter American Development Bank	6.3	9.1	
12	UNICEF	12.7	7.0	
13	UNDP	2.5	1.4	
14	European Development Fund	2.2	1.2	
15	Other	11.8	6.5	
	Total	181.3	100.0	

Source: Lackheed, Marlaine E. et al. (1994). Improving Primary Educaiton Developing Countries.

New York: Oxford University Press. p. 211

Annex 12

Type of Aid for Primary Education by Country Income Group and Region, 1981 - 86 (Per cent)

S.No	Type of Assistance	Country Group				Region				All Countries
		Low-income	Lower-middle-income	Upper-income oil exporters	High-income oil exporters	Europe, the middle East and North Africa	Latin America and the Caribbean	Asia	Africa	
1	Technical assistance									
	Teachers	5.4	8.5	0.2	0.0	12.9	0.4	2.3	9.1	7.1
	Others	12.1	4.2	0.1	98.4	1.2	3.5	8.7	12.6	6.6
2	Short-term consultants	0.1	0.4	0.6	1.6	0.1	0.4	0.8	0.3	0.3
3	Books	5.0	0.5	0.1	-	0.5	0.4	5.2	2.7	1.8
4	Other didactic materials	2.5	3.4	0.7	-	7.5	0.5	2.0	1.5	3.0
5	Furniture and small equipment	13.8	0.7	0.1	-	0.6	0.7	9.3	8.5	4.3
6	Social expenditure (such as food)	19.5	11.4	0.3	-	17.9	1.4	11.9	18.1	13.0
7	Scholarships	1.2	2.9	0.4	-	6.3	0.2	2.1	0.5	2.3
8	Budgetary assistance	5.7	34.8	90.3	-	29.5	58.1	30.9	7.0	29.9
9	Big equipment	2.4	1.9	0.9	-	2.0	1.8	2.7	1.9	2.0
10	Buildings	22.1	25.8	3.3	-	20.6	22.6	16.0	28.9	23.4
11	Other and undistributed aid	10.2	5.6	3.0	-	0.9	10.0	8.1	8.9	6.3
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Lockheed, Marlaine E. et al. (1994). Improving Primary Educaiton in Developing Countries.

Annex 13

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOS)
and Their Area of Operation in the SNNPR

Ser. No	Name of NGOs	Operation area		Total Projects	Total Budget	Devt Section
		Zone	Woreda			
1	Ethiopian Evangelical Mekane Yesus Dev't program	Sidama, Bench Hadya, KAT, N/Omo, S/Omo Guraghe, Gedeo Konso, Derashe & Amaro	various woredas	34	25500203	Health Education Agriculture
2	Catholic Church (APOSTELIC SODDO HOSSAENA)	N/Omo, S/Omo KAT & Hadiya	various woredas	15	88774787	Health Small Scale Industry Education Water
3	Catholic apostelic vic	Sidama, Gedeo		34	88774787	Health Education
4	Catholic (ACS)(Jima catholic Secretariat)	Gurage, Keffa-Sheka		5	15916809	Agriculture Health Water Education Relief
5	Ethiopian Kale Hiwote Dev't Program	Hadiya KAT, N/Omo S/Omo, Sidama, Gedeo, Burji, Amaro		31	26234774	Water Health Agriculture Training (Educ)
6	Wolaita Kale Hiwot Dev't program	N/Omo	Damot waide, Damotgale Offa, Soddo Boloso sore	6	2275117.2	Health Agriculture Education
7	Hadiya Kale Hiwot Dev't Program	Hadiya				
8	Ethiopian Orthodox Dev't Program	Guraghe, N/Omo		4	11078773	Fishery Dev't Agriculture Relief Water
			Sub Total	114	65088867.2	
9	World vision international	Hadiya, KAT N/Omo	Omo sheleko Bedawacho Soro, Humbo Mirab Abaya Chenchu Soddo Zuria	24	93133824	Education Health Water Agriculture
10	Action Aid	Guraghe N/Omo	Dalocha Waka(Kosha)	8	35288297	Education Health Water Agriculture
11	Agri-Service	N/Omo	Chenchu, Boreda, Abaya, Kucha	4	6430000	Education Health Water Agriculture

Ser. No	Name of NGOs	Operation area		Total Projects	Total Budget	Devt Section
		Zone	Woreda			
12	Self Help	Guraghe	Meskanena & Mareka	3	11201900	Soil Cons Health Water
13	Norwegian Church Aid (NCA)	S/Omo	Backo Gazer Kuraz Hamer Bena Salamago	1	8192362	Water
14	SIM	S/Omo Bench Maji	Backo Gazer Hamer Bena Salam Bench	4	1916680	Water Health Agriculture
15	SPCM (?)	S/Omo Sidama	Kuraz Arbegona,	5	1603300	Health Agriculture Education
16	Patmos International	Sidama	Awassa Zuria	3	4772157	Health Education Orphans
17	NLM	N/Omo,Sidama	Arbaminch Dale	3	13726000	Health Education
18	CIDR	N/Omo	Zalauba male Goffa	1	2580900	Agriculture
19	Habitat	N/Omo	Soddo Zuria	1	1530100	House construction
20	Ethio-Swedish	Hadiya	Badawacho	1	4000000	health
21	ADRA	KAT	Kadida gamela	2	328194	Agriculture
22	SoS-Sahel	N/Omo	Kindo koria	1	2167219	Agriculture
23	Fam Africa	N/Omo Konso Guraghe Kefa Sheka	Humbo, Woide,gale Konso,meskan & Mareko Bonga	4	4532727	Agriculture
24	Marie Stops	Sidama	Awassa Zuria	1	2840475	Health
25	Sos-Children Village	Sidama	Awassa Zuria	3	1594473	Agriculture Health Education
26	Finland Mission	Sidama	Awassa Zuria	1	3300000	Health
27	VOCA/Ethiopia	Sidama	Awassa Zuria	1	2305751	Education
28	Resurrection & Life Children Village Service	Sidama	Awassa Zuria	1	216075	Education
29	Nanna Family help & Social Dev't	Sidama	Awassa Zuria	3	906647.72	Education
30	OSSA	Sidama	Awassa Zuria	1	2575000	Health
31	Arbaminch Rehabilitation center	N/Omo	Arbaminch	1	1000000	Edu-for disabled
32	Save the children	N/Omo	woliata woredas	1	4336800	Early warning
33	Inter Aid /France	N/Omo	Offa and kindo Koysha	6	20	Health Water Agriculture
34	Lutheran World Federation	N/Omo	Dita Dameio & Arbaminch Z	1	5572000	Agriculture

Ser. No	Name of NGOs	Operation area		Total Projects	Total Budget	Devt Section
		Zone	Woreda			
35	Cher Ethiopia	Gurage	Sodo	3	3575481	Health, Agri Road & Bridge
36	Feed the children	Gurage	Sodo & Enemor & Ener	8	1852000	Agri.Water Health Education
37	Swiss Evangelical Nile Mission	Gurage	Goro	1	5036436	Health
38	Goal/Ethiopia	Gurage	Enemore & Ener	1	1510429	Health
39	Arrica/Ethiopia	Gurage	Gumer & Silte	1 1	259000 2500000	Health
40	IIRO	Gurage	Silte	1	120000	Health
41	Girarbetledikuman	Gurage	Meskan & Mareko	1	3550000	Education Health
42	Project Mercy	Gurage	Meskan & Mareko	2	10726830	School Construction, Health
43	Rural Community water Dev't	Gurage	Meskan & Mareko	1	2455328	Water
44	Christian Children fund	Gurage	Sodo	1	3300000	Health (MCH) Water
45	MKC-Mesert Kirstos Church	kaffa Sheka	Bonga	1	418418	Health
46	Lem Ethiopia	All Zones & Spec.Woredas		1	142661	Education
47	Hope International	N/Omo	Ghencha & Derashe	1	Not yet signed	Water
48	Water Action	KAT & Gurage	Shinsicho Gumer	2	10626	Water 'Health
49	Derashe Dev't Ass.	Derashe Special woreda		4	10665304	Health Agriculture Water Education
50	FHI	KAT	Alaba	2	126300	Health Agriculture
51	KMG	KAT	Three woredas	3	14780205	health Agriculture
52	Kambata Society Dev't program	KAT	Five woredas	1		Integration rural Dev't Program
53	SELU-Swedish Ethiopia	Hadiya	Badawacho	1	4000000	Health
54	CUAMM	Guraghe		1	New	Health
55	Concern	Bench maji and N/Omo		6		Agri,Water and Health
56	MSF-Switzerland	S.Omo	Salamyo	1	663047	Health
57	Ethiop-Sewdish young girl prostitute	Sidama	Awassa Zuria	1	Not yet signed	Education
58	Center for Human Environment	In all zones	Special Woredas			
59	Winrock International Ethiopia	Keffa Sheka Bench maji	Yem	1	Not yet signed	Agriculture
60	Action for Dev't	N/Omo	Konso Special Wo.	1	Not yet signed	
61	Open Children	Sidama	Awassa Zuria	248	Project agreement is not yet signed	

Annex 14
Capital Budget of SNNPR Education Sector by Zone and Special
Woredas of 1997/98 and 1998/99

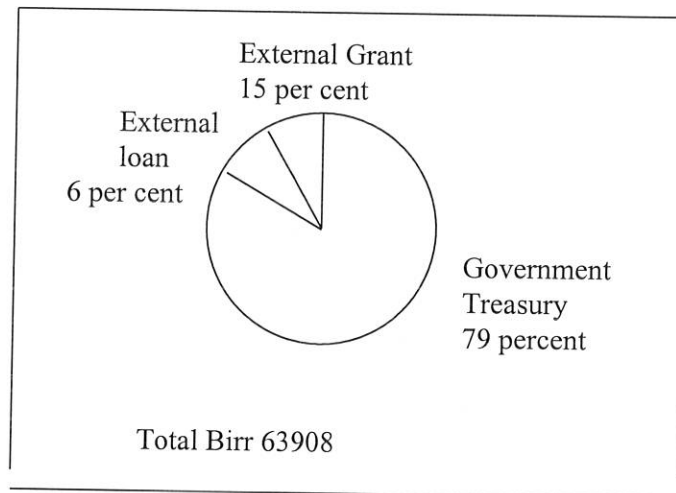
S. No	Name of Zone or Special Woreda	1990 E.C. (1997/98)				1991 E.C. (1998/99)			
		Government Treasury (1000)	External Loan (1000)	External Grant (1000)	Total	Government Treasury (1000)	External Loan (1000)	External Grant (1000)	Total
1	Sidama	3682.7	306.8	3709.2	7698.7	3341.1	1479.6	3659.3	8480
2	Hadiya	6561.6	371.6	260	7193.2	5186.9	1004.4	67.6	6258.9
3	Guraghe	7871.3	415.8	707.5	8994.6	5839.5	2554.2	1402.9	9796.6
4	Bench Maji	1258	415.8	9.3	1683.1	826.8	334.8	36.4	1198
5	Keffa Sheka	2966.4	569.3	14.5	3550.2	1638.7	-	54.1	1692.8
6	South Omo	1605.8	153.4	8.3	1767.5	1925.1	1074.6	26.1	3025.8
7	North Omo	3183.3	460.1	16.6	3660	2753	402.8	182	3337.8
8	KAT	3574.1	415.8	246.2	4236.1	2594.3	2079	53	4726.3
9	Gedeo	1908.8	371.7	8.3	2288.8	1455	669.6	41.6	2166.2
10	Konso	441.8	-	3.1	444.9	159.3	-	19.8	179.1
11	Amaro	247.6	109.1	3.1	359.8	237.6	-	20.8	258.4
12	Derrashe	500	153.4	3.1	656.5	274.2	-	20.8	295
13	Burji	709.5	-	3.1	712.6	216.8	-	20.8	237.6
14	yem	110.6	153.41	3.1	267.1	29.2	17.7	-	46.9
15	SNNPR EB*	15795.87		4599.03	20394.9	-	-	-	20642.1
	Total	50417.37	3896.2	9594.43	63908	26477.5	9616.7	5605.2	62341.5

Source: Document from REB

* SNNPR EB refers to the education bureau itself as one organization

Annex 15

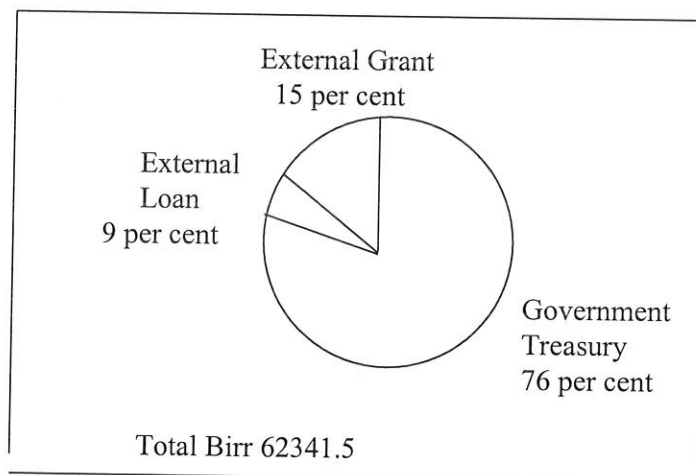
Figure 1 Capital Budget of SNNPR - REB 1990 E.C. (1997/98)



Annex 16

Figure 2

Capital Budget of SNNPR REB 1991 E.C. (1998/99)



Annex 17
Concerning Type of Assistance of NGOs and
Number of PEDPs in the Target Areas

S. No.	Name of the organization (NGO)	Type of Assistance/ Services	No. of projects in the Region (zone)	No. of zone included by the project	Total No. of Woredas included by the project	Remark
1	WLI/ USAID BESO Project (CSAP)	- Construction of new buildings /expansion/upgrading/ - Rehabilitation or maintenance of the existing building - Fences and other related activities - Provision of text books furniture, equipment and other audio-visual materials. - Training or capacity building in different area.	310	6	29	
2	SDP/Irish Aid	- Capacity building at all levels - Construction and rehabilitation of schools - Teacher training at all levels - Provision of furniture and equipment		1 (Sidama)	9	
3	GDP/Irish Aid	- Capacity building at all levels, technical and managerial capacities among officials and school leaders. - Refreshment courses for teachers - Upgrading courses for teachers and other training - Training for NFAE and adult education promoters - Provide access to primary education through constructing new schools. - Rehabilitation dilapidated schools with furniture and text books. - Employment of teachers assigned for new schools constructed	24	1 (Guraghe)	5	
4	SEPDA	- Construction of new buildings - Expansion and maintenance of the existing schools - provision of text books for libraries - provision of furniture and equipment	116	14*	17	14* = 9 zones and 5 special woredas
5	SDA	- Construction of new buildings	9	1(Sidama)	9	
6	HDA	- Provision of furniture and equipment - Provision of text books - Establishing of public Library	8	1 (Hadiya)	4	the projects are found in progress of design
7	GDA	- Rehabilitation of the existing schools - provision of furniture	4 6	1 (Guraghe)	4	
		Total	477(a)	25 (b)	77 (c)	

- (a) In the total projects of the region, the SDP total projects are not included in 477 total projects indicated in the table above. The organization (SDP) at the centre doesn't have a proper data base of the number of projects implemented in the respective place.
- (b) In absolute terms, the total number of zones in the region are 9; however, for sake of convenience, 5 special woredas found in the region are included in this column, and several NGOs have executed more than one projects in one or more zones or special woredas in the region.
- (c) At the same time, the total number of woredas in the region in real terms are 66 and 5 special woredas but it has similar reason with the above point (b).

Annex 18

Total Government and Education Budgeted Expenditures

(000,000 Birr)

	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96
Total Government Expenditure	692	8,315	8,150
Total Recurrent Budgeted Expenditure	4,716	5,472	5,700
Total Budgeted Capital Expenditure (1)	2,196	2,843	2,449
Total Budgeted 'Others' (2)	1,576	2,024	2,030
Total Budgeted Discretionary Expenditure	3,141	3,448	3,070
Total Budgeted Education Recurrent Expenditure (2)	825	876	931
Total Budgeted Education capital Expenditure	145	221	183
Total Budgeted Education Expenditure	970	1,097	1,114
Central Budgeted Expenditure	2,762	3,333	2,735
Discretionary Expenditure	1,437	1,545	1,375
Capital	1,325	1,788	1,160
Total Discretionary Expenditure % GDP	11.6	10.6	9.9
Total Discretionary Expenditure % Total Recurrent Exp.	66.6	63.0	64.4
Education % GDP	3.6	3.4	3.0
Recurrent Education % GDP	3.0	2.7	2.5
Total Education % Total Expenditure	14.0	13.2	13.8
Recurrent Education % Total Recurrent	17.5	16.0	16.4
Recurrent Education % Total Discretionary Recurrent	26.3	25.4	25.4
Education Capital % Total Capital	6.6	7.8	7.7
Education capital % Total Education	14.9	20.2	16.6
Annual GDP Growth		19.8	13.9
Annual Total Expenditure Growth		20.3	-2.0
Annual Recurrent Discretionary Expenditure Growth		9.8	0.5
Annual Total Education Budget Growth		13.1	2.2
Annual Education Recurrent Budget Growth		6.1	5.7

Notes and Sources : Ministry of Finance: Budget and Expenditure

(1) Capital expenditure from domestic sources only but including counterpart funds throughout the tables.

(2) 'Other' includes pensions, domestic debt payments and other non-discretionary items

Annex 19

Summary on the Role of Project Beneficiaries in PEDPs

S. No	Item	Respondents										Total	
		NGOs		GOs									
				REB		ZED		WEO		School			
1	I. Project beneficiaries have roles particularly in the: Overall planning of educational projects	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
	a. Always	22	68.75	1	20.00	6	37.5	10	31.25	59	59.60	98	53.26
	b. Sometimes	4	12.50	3	60.00	4	25.00	16	50.00	20	20.20	47	25.54
	c. Rarely	6	18,75	1	20.00	6	37.5	6	18.75	20	20.20	39	21.20
	d. Not at all	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	32	100.00	5	100.00	16	100.00	32	100.00	99	100.00	184	100.00
2	Selection of project sites/areas												
	a. Always	21	65.63	-	-	8	50.00	23	71.88	36	36.36	88	48.91
	b. Sometimes	5	15.62	4	80.00	4	25.0	9	28.12	31	31.31	53	27.72
	c. Rarely	6	18.75	1	20.00	4	25.0	-	-	21	21.21	32	17.39
	d. Not at all	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	11.11	11	5.98
	Total	32	100.00	5	100.00	16	100.0	32	100.0	99	100.0	184	100.0
3	Selection of Type/amount of assistance/service												
	a. Always	15	46.88	-	-	2	12.5	4	12.50	26	26.26	47	25.54
	b. Sometimes	2	6.25	-	-	2	12.5	10	31.25	7	7.07	21	11.41
	c. Rarely	2	6.25	1	20.00	9	56.25	7	21.88	31	31.31	50	27.18
	d. Not at all	13	40.62	4	80.00	3	18.75	11	34.37	35	35.35	66	35.87
	Total	32	100.00	5	100.00	16	100.0	32	100.0	99	100.0	184	100.0
4	Implementation of Projects												
	a. Always	22	68.75	-	-	3	18.75	16	50.0	61	61.61	102	55.43
	b. Sometimes	8	25.0	4	80.00	6	37.50	10	31.25	31	31.31	59	32.07
	c. Rarely	2	6.25	1	20.00	7	43.75	6	18.75	6	6.06	22	11.96
	d. Not at all	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.01	1	0.54
	Total	32	100.00	5	100.00	16	100.0	32	100.0	99	100.0	184	100.0

S. No	Item	Respondents										Total	
		NGOs		GOs									
				REB		ZED		WEO		School			
5	Monitoring and evaluating of projects	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
	a. Always	16	50.0	1	20.00	7	43.75	19	59.37	54	54.55	97	52.72
	b. Sometimes	14	43.75	1	20.00	6	37.50	7	21.88	40	40.40	68	36.96
	c. Rarely	2	6.25	3	60.00	3	18.75	6	18.75	5	5.05	19	10.32
	d. Not at all	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	32	100.00	5	100.00	16	100.0	32	100.0	99	100.0	184	100.0
6	Operating the project after its foundation												
	a. Always	23	71.88	4	80.0	10	62.50	25	78.12	78	78.79	140	76.10
	b. Sometimes	6	18.75	1	20.00	6	37.50	7	21.88	20	20.20	40	21.73
	c. Rarely	3	9.37	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.01	4	2.17
	d. Not at all	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	32	100.00	5	100.00	16	100.0	32	100.0	99	100.0	184	100.0

Annex 20

**Concerning the Participation of NGOs and their
Relationships in Operations of PEDPs**

S. No	Item	Respondents					
		NGOs		REB		Total	
		No	%	No	%	No	%
1	Do you think that the new ETP give equal opportunity to LNGOs and ENGOS to participate smoothly in PEDPs in your area?						
	a. yes	13	92.86	5	100	18	94.74
	b. No	1	7.14	-	-	1	5.26
	Total	14	100	5	100	19	100
2	Do you see any imposition to the NGOs from the governmental authorities in your intervention?						
	a. yes	2	14.29	-	-	2	10.53
	b No	12	85.71	5	100	17	89.47
	Total	14	100	5	100	19	100
3	Does the local government organize meetings/workshops to discuss issues on resources contributions of NGOs to primary education in your area?						
	a. Always	5	35.71	2	40	7	36.84
	b. Sometimes	6	42.86	2	40	8	42.11
	c. Rarely	-	-	1	20.	1	5.26
	d. Not at all	3	21.43	-	-	3	15.79
	Total	14	100	5	100	19	100

4	Do you have any formal relationships with other NGOs working in the PEDPs in your area?						
	a. yes	3	21.43			3	21.43
	b. No	11	78.57			11	78.57
	Total	14	100			14	100
5	If yes, how often do you share information about the activities of different donor agencies in your area?						
	a. Always	-	-			-	-
	b. Sometimes	-	-			-	-
	c. Rarely	3	100			3	100
	d. Not at all	-	-			-	-
	Total	3	100			3	100

**Local Community Participation and Assistance of NGOs for
CSAP School projects of Some Selected Sample Schools**

S. No.	Name of the Primary School	Woreda	Zone	project Phase	Community Contribution		Fund from the BESO project/ CSAP/	Tasks
					Cash	a/ Others		
1	Haike	Awassa Zuria	Sidama	I	23,000.00	-	3,000.00	Construction of 6 classrooms; maintenance of classrooms, water-pipe, student desks, provision of furniture and equipment; to cement the floor of classroom.
				II	17,000.00		10,000.00	
2	Taramessa	Shebedino	Sidama	I	1,544.00	-	3,000,000	- Maintenance of 6 classrooms, to cement the floor of classrooms; painting classrooms, - Construction of 2 additional classrooms, toilet, etc.
				II	6,186.00		10,000.00	
3	Sedeka	Shebedino	Sidama	I	5,000.00		3,000.00	- Maintenance of 6 classrooms - Maintenance of 14 classrooms, Provision of desks for two classroom.
				II	2,750.00		10,000.00	
				III b	b/		30,000.00	
4	Telamo Kentese	Shebedino	Sidama	I	7,000.00	1154.00	3,000.00	- 250m barbed wire fence; maintenance of 52 desks, 13 blackboards, 5 office tables, 4 classrooms - 200m barbed wire fence; maintenance of 4 classrooms, 35 desks; provision of materials and furniture for library and pedagogical centre, to plant 1000 coffee seedlings.
				II	19,296.00	930.00	10,000.00	
				III	b/		30,000.00	
5	Anburse	Badawocho	Hadiya	I	9,330.35	1,882.00	3,000.00	- Maintenance of 9 classrooms, 100 student desks; to cement the floor of 4 classrooms; construction of one pedagogical centre and toilet; to plant 1500 coffee seedlings.
				II	6,300.00	-	10,000.00	
				III	21,000.00	-	30,000.00	
6	Wachemmo Kuttir 3	Limmu	Hadiya	I	32,000.00	5,000.00	3,000.00	- Construction of additional classrooms - Maintenance of classrooms
				II	8,000.00	3,000.00	10,000.00	
7	Ras Zeselassie	Gorro	Guraghe	I	11,675.00	-	3,000.00	- Maintenance of 58 student desks, 30 office tables 12 blackboards; purchasing of 50 student desks and 35 office tables.
				II	b/		10,000.00 30,000.00	
	Total				170,081.35	11,966.00	181,000.00	

a/ Others - includes different materials and facilities including labour force; and these assistance are not included in the amount of fund contributed by the local communities. And, though the presence of similar type of community contributions of these kind in all schools, they are not accustomed to register and document the contributions of the local community and it is difficult to provide the total picture of the programmes.

b/ The community contribution in terms of financial and other materials are now in progress, at the same time, the BESO project has not released the funds to the respective CSAP schools since the projects reached certain developmental stages and the required counter- part finance are provided by the local community

Source: Based on Discussions with the School Principals of Sample Schools

Annex 22

GDP Proposed Budget 1999 - 2003 IRf

S. No.	Sectors	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	Total
1	Education	700,000	900,000	800,000	600,000	400,000	3,400,000
2	Agriculture	900,000	1,000,000	900,000	600,000	400,000	3,800,000
3	Health	600,000	600,000	500,000	400,000	300,000	2,400,000
4	Water	500,000	500,000	500,000	400,000	300,000	2,200,000
5	Road	500,000	400,000	400,000	300,000	200,000	1,800,000
6	Capacity Building a/	1,000,000	600,000	600,000	500,000	400,000	3,100,000
7	Municipality (council)	1,200,000	400,000	100,000	50,000	-	1,750,000
	Total	5,400,000	4,400,000	3,800,000	2,850,000	2,000,000	18,450,000

a/ The budget required for office construction of GDP and Gurage zone Plan and Economic Development Department and for multipurpose training centre is included in capacity building.

Source: Documents from GDP - Monitoring Department

Annex 23

Reasons for Difference of Educational Inputs Between NGOs and Local Comminty/ Local Authorities

S. No	Reasons for Difference	Rank Order of Reason's Difference																	
		NGOs						GOs						Total					
		More Critical		Critical		Less Critical		More Critical		Critical		Less Critical		More Critical		Critical		Less Critical	
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	The policy from the centre (MOE)	10	71.43	3	21.43	1	7.14	48	39.67	42	34.71	31	25.62	58	42.96	45	33.33	32	23.70
2	Tied regional state rules and regulations	8	57.14	5	35.71	1	7.14	59	48.76	37	30.58	25	20.66	67	49.63	42	31.11	26	19.26
3	Reluctance on the side of NGOs	7	50.0	3	21.43	4	28.57	44	36.36	45	37.19	32	26.45	51	37.78	48	35.56	36	26.67
4	Lack of coordination on the side of REB	5	35.71	5	35.71	4	28.57	39	32.23	33	27.27	49	40.50	44	32.59	38	28.15	53	39.26
5	Lack of community participation in project planning and selecting priorities	3	21.43	4	28.57	7	50.0	62	51.24	28	23.14	31	25.62	65	48.15	32	23.70	38	28.15
6	Incompatible with the principle of national self-reliance scheme	6	42.86	3	21.43	5	35.71	46	38.02	31	25.62	44	36.36	52	38.52	34	25.19	49	36.30
7	Inappropriate technology in relation to the local capabilities	6	42.86	5	35.71	3	21.43	48	39.67	34	28.10	39	32.23	54	40.0	39	28.89	42	31.11
8	Lack of comparative advantage in relation to the nation's curricula and teaching methods	3	21.43	6	42.86	5	35.71	43	35.54	29	23.97	49	40.50	46	34.07	35	25.93	54	40.0
9	Over ambitious design in relation to institutional and managerial capability	6	42.46	4	28.57	4	28.57	44	36.36	26	21.49	51	42.15	50	37.04	30	22.22	55	40.74
10	Culturally and socially unacceptable project areas	3	21.43	6	42.86	5	35.71	32	26.45	28	23.14	61	50.41	35	25.93	34	25.19	66	48.89
11	The project feasibility in financial terms	6	42.46	4	28.57	4	28.57	39	32.23	26	21.49	56	46.28	45	33.33	30	22.22	60	44.44
12	NGOs do not operate as per their agreement	4	28.57	3	21.43	7	50.0	24	19.83	39	32.23	58	47.93	28	20.74	42	31.11	65	48.15

Annex 24
Summary of Chi-Square (χ^2)Test

No. 1. - NGO Intervention Programmes vis-à-vis Educational Problems of the Community (Table 17 - Item 2)

Sector	Yes		No		Sub-Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
NGOs	25	78.1	7	21.9	32	16.1
GOs	98	58.7	69	41.3	167	83.9
Total	123	61.8	76	38.2	199	100.0

Chi-Square (χ^2)	Value	DF	Significant
Pearson	4.30030	1	.03811
Likelihood Ratio	4.59633	1	.03204

No. of missing Observations = 0

DF = Degree of Freedom

Minimum Expected Frequency (MEF) = 12.221

At 0.05 Level of Significant

No. 2 -Project Beneficiaries Participation in the Selection of Type of Assistance (Table 19 - Item 3)

	Sector					
	NGOs		GOs		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Always	15	46.9	32	21.1	47	25.5
Sometimes	4	12.5	67	44.1	71	38.6
Never	13	40.6	53	34.9	66	35.9
Sub-Total	32	17.4	152	82.6	184	100.0

Chi-Square (χ^2)	Value	DF	Significant
Pearson	13.97656	2	.00092
Likelihood Ratio	14.88814	2	.00058

No. of missing Observations = 15

Minimum Expected Frequency (MEF) = 8.174

Impact of NGO Intervention and their
Outcomes in PEDPs (Table 27)

No. 3. -Item 1 Capacity Building and Empowerment

Sector	Yes		No		Sub-Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
NGOs	30	93.8	2	6.3	32	16.6
GOs	107	64.4	60	35.9	167	83.9
Total	137	68.8	62	31.2	199	100.0

No. 4 -Item 2 Sustainability

Sector	Yes		No		Sub-Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
NGOs	31	96.9	1	3.1	32	16.6
GOs	105	62.9	62	37.1	167	83.9
Total	136	68.3	63	31.7	199	100.0

No. 5 -Item 3 Project problems after the Termination of the NGO Involvement

Sector	Yes		No		Sub-Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
NGOs	8	25.0	24	75.0	32	16.1
GOs	60	35.9	107	64.1	167	83.9
Total	68	34.2	131	65.8	199	100.0

No	Chi-Square (x ²)	Value	DF	Significant	MEF
3	Pearson	11.02759	1	.00090	9.9970
	Likelihood Ratio	13.83000	1	.00020	
4	Pearson	14.34885	1	.00015	10.131
	Likelihood Ratio	19.24473	1	.00001	
5	Pearson	1.42571	1	.23247	10.935
	Likelihood Ratio	1.48791	1	.22254	

No. 6 -Differences Between Resources Made Available by NGOs and the Need of the Community (Table 28 - Item 3)

Sector	Yes		No		Sub-Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
NGOs	14	43.3	18	56.3	32	16.1
GOs	121	72.5	46	27.5	167	83.9
Total	135	67.8	64	32.2	199	100.0

Chi-Square (x ²)	Value	DF	Significant
Pearson	10.14200	1	.00145
Likelihood Ratio	9.52037	1	.00203

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my original work,
has not been presented for a degree in any other university
and that all sources of materials used for this thesis
have been duly acknowledged.

Name : Tarekegn Haile Selassie

Signature 

Date of Submission : 21/05/99