

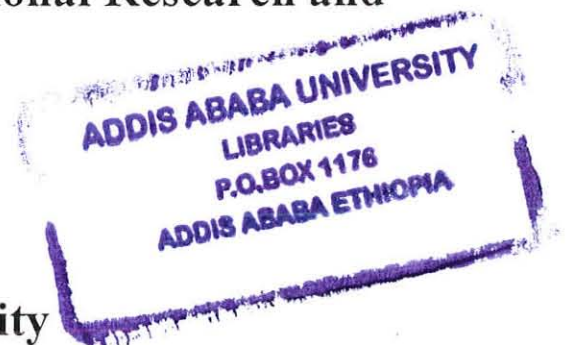
Achievements, Challenges, and Prospects in Implementing School Mapping and Micro Planning Project: the Case of Wolayta Zone

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**A Thesis Submitted to
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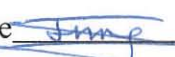
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Abstract

Achievements, Challenges, and Prospects in Implementing School Mapping and Micro Planning Project: the Case of Wolayta Zone

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Addis Ababa University, 2012

In this study, the author has assessed the achievements, challenges and prospects in implementing the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project in wolayta Zone. The study examined the impacts of implementing the project in terms of access, equity, internal efficiency, and quality of primary education in 3 sample woredas and 2 town administrations where the project was carried out. The key question that guided the study is 'To what extent has the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project increased access, equity, efficiency and quality of primary education?'

A quantitative research design was employed to conduct a descriptive survey on the case at hand. Primary data were collected from zone education department head, officers of woreda education offices, primary schools principals, chairpersons of Kebele/municipality Education and Training Management Board and Parent-Teacher-Association, 101 altogether. Besides, education-related statistical data were collected from Annual Education Abstracts of the SNNPREB and other relevant sources. Key variables analyzed were intake rates, enrolment rates, GPI, GG, dropout and repetition rates, PTR, PSR, PTBR, catchment areas, and representation index.

Through a combination of instruments- interviews, questionnaires, and document analysis- the study found that implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project impacted in varying degrees positively on development of primary education in the zone in terms of increased intake and enrolment rates, gender equity, decreased incidence of dropping out and repetition in the years 2007/08-2010/11. Among all other things, however, internal efficiency and quality of primary education demand much effort in order to contribute for the UPE national goals. Meanwhile, lack of community participation, which was at the center of the project's planning, and capacity and skill of planners and administrators at the lower tiers hamper the micro level plan's implementation. Hence, fulfilling appropriate inputs (teachers and textbooks, among others) and enhancing community participation in financing schools should continuously be employed to maximize and sustain successes of implementation of the micro level project and tackle the challenges.

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Table of Contents

Contents	Pages
List of Figures	
List of Tables	
List of Abbreviations and Acronyms	
Chapter One Introduction	1
1.1. Background of the Study	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem	3
1.3. Objectives	7
1.3.1. General Objective	7
1.3.2. Specific Objectives	7
1.4. Significance of the Study	7
1.5. Delimitation of the Study	9
1.6. Limitation of the study.....	9
1.7. Definitions of Operational Terms	10
1.8. Organization of the Study	11
Chapter Two Review of Related Literature.....	12
2.1. Approaches to Educational Planning.....	12
2.1.1. Participatory Planning.....	12
2.1.2. Strategic Planning.....	14

2.1.3. Micro planning (project planning).....	15
2.2. Defining Micro planning and its Research Component: School Mapping.....	19
2.2.1. Educational Micro Planning	19
2.2.1.1. The Concept of Educational Micro Planning	19
2.2.1.2. Benefits of Micro Planning	23
2.2.2. School Mapping as a Research Component of Micro planning	24
2.2.2.1. The Concept of School Mapping	25
2.2.2.2. Origin, Development and Forms of School Mapping	28
2.2.1.3.Functions of School Mapping	30
2.2.1.4.Goals and Benefits of School Mapping	32
2.3. Interrelation of School Mapping, Micro Planning and Macro Planning of Education	35
2.4. Diagnosis of the Local Education System: A Step Prior to School Mapping and Micro planning	36
2.5. Indicators as Diagnosis Units of an Education System	38
2.5.1. What are Indicators?	38
2.5.2. Indicators Used in Diagnosing the Education System.....	39
2.6. Major Issues in Education Development: Access, Equity, Efficiency, and Quality.....	41
2.6.1. Coverage	42
2.6.2. Equity.....	44

2.6.3. Internal Efficiency of the Education system	45
2.6.4. Quality	47
2.7. School Mapping and Micro Planning Experiences from other Countries	48
2.8. History of Implementation of SM and MP in Ethiopia: An Overview.....	51
2.9. School Mapping and Micro Planning Exercise in SNNPR	52
 Chapter Three Research Methodology	 57
3.1. Study Area.....	57
3.2. The Study Design	58
3.3. Samples and sampling Procedures	58
3.4. Methods and Instruments of Data Collection	60
3.5. Techniques of Data Analysis	61
 Chapter Four Data Analysis and Presentation of Findings.....	 62
4.1. Achievements of Implementing the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project	63
4.1.1. Successes and drawbacks of Implementation: Trends and Status of Primary Education Access, Equity, Efficiency, and Quality	63
4.1.1.1.Coverage of the Education System: Intake and Enrolment Rates	63
4.1.1.2. Equality in Primary Education.....	76
4.1.1.3. Internal Efficiency of Primary Education.....	84
4.1.1.4. Quality of Primary School	91
4.2. Challenges and Prospects of Implementing the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project	100

4.2.1. Status of Educational Planners and Administrators	100
4.2.2. Participants' Thoughts on the Challenges of Implementing the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project	110
Chapter Five Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations.....	115
5.1. Summary	115
5.2. Conclusions.....	118
5.3. Recommendations.....	123

References

Appendices

Appendix I: Education-Related Statistical Data Collection Format

Appendix II: WEO Planning Experts' Questionnaire

Appendix III: Primary School Principals' Questionnaire

Appendix IV: PTA/KETMB Questionnaire

Appendix V: Guidelines for Interview with Zone Education Department Head

Appendix VI: Guidelines for Interview with WEO Schools Office Heads

Appendix VII: Wolayta Zone Administrative Map

List of Figures

Figure 2.1: The Project Cycle	16
Figure 4.1: AIR by Woredas, 2007/08-2010/11	66
Figure 4.2: NIR by Year and Woredas/Town Administration, 2007/08-2010/11	67
Figure 4.3: Primary (1-8) GER by Administrative Areas, 2007/08-2010/11	70
Figure 4.4: Net Enrollment Rate (NER) of primary Education(1-8),2007/08-2010/11	72
Figure 4.5: Gender Parity Index of primary Schools by Woredas and Town Administrations,2007/08-2010/11	78
Figure 4.6: Representation Index.....	83
Figure 4.7: Pattern of Grade 1 drop- out by woreda and Town Administrations, 2007/08-2010/11	86
Figure 4.8: Pattern of Grade 1 Repetition by woredas and Town Administration, 2007/08-2010/11	88
Figure 4.9: 1-8 primary Dropout Rate, 2007/08-2010/11	89
Figure 4.10: Primary (1-8) Repetition Rate,(%) 2007/08-2010/11	90
Figure 4.11: primary (1-8) pupil-Teacher Ratio, 2007/08-2010/11.....	93
Figure 4.12: PTR of 1-4 Primary schools by Woredas and Town Administrations, 2007/08-2010/11	94
Figure 4.13: Primary(5-8) Pupil-Teacher Ratio	95

Figure 4.14: Current Status of the Qualified Primary school (1-8) Teachers by
Woredas and Town Administrations, 2010/1196

Figure 4.15: Primary (1-8) PSR Trends by Woredas and Town Administrations,
2007/08-2010/1197

Figure 4.16: Primary School (1-8) Textbook-student Ratio, 2007/08-2010/1199

Figure 4.17: Distribution of Planners by their highest level of academic
qualifications, 2010/11 103

Figure 4.18: Academic Background of the planners and
administrators,(in percent) 2010/11 104

Figure 4.19: Planners’ number of years of experience 104

Figure 4.20: Knowledge of Participants about the School Mapping and
Micro Planning Project 105

Figure 4.21: Appreciation Expressed by the Participants about Relevance of
Trainings Received (in %) 106

List of Tables

Table 2.1: School Mapping Versus Micro Planning.....	36
Table 4.1: Intake Rates in Grade 1 by Woredas and Town Administrations, 2007/08-2010/11	64
Table 4.2: GER Trend and Gender Gap in Woredas and Town Administrations by Year,2007/08-2010/11	69
Table 4.3: Changes in the number of primary schools in administrative areas by cycle, 2007/08-2010/11	73
Table 4.4: Money contributed by community to support primary schools by woredas and town administrations, 2007/08-2010/11	75
Table 4.5: Trends in Primary (1-8) Gender Parity Index (GPI) by Administrative Areas, 2007/08-2010/11	77
Table 4.6: Hexagonal Catchment Area by Administrative Areas, 2010/11	81
Table 4.7: Grade 1 Dropout Rate by Sex and Woredas and Town Administrations, 2007/08-2010/11	85
Table 4.8: Grade 1 Repetition Rate by Sex and woredas, 2007/08-2010/11	87
Table 4.9: General Characteristics of Participants.....	101
Table 4.10: Educational Planners and Managers who attempted to change their Post	109
Table 4.11: Responses of Participants on the Effects of Challenges in a List	111

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ABE	Alternative Basic Education
Adm.	Administration
AIR	Apparent Intake Rate
BESO	Basic Education System Overhaul
BPR	Business Process Re-engineering
EdLM	Educational Leadership and Management
EdPM	Educational Planning and Management
EFA	Education For All
EMIS	Education Management Information System
ESD	Education Sector Development
GER	Gross Enrollment Rate
GG	Gender Gap
GIS	Geographical Information System
GPI	Gender Parity Index
IIEP	International institute of Educational Planning
IR	Intake Rate
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
KETMB	Kebele/Municipality Education and Training Management Board
ManaBU	Community-Based Basic Education Improvement Project
MD	Millennium Development

MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MOE	Ministry of Education
MP	Micro Planning Project
No	Number
NER	Net Enrollment Rate
NIR	Net Intake Rate
OEB	Oromia Education Bureau
PQTR	Pupil-Qualified Teacher-Ratio
PSR	Pupil-Section-Ratio
PTA	Parent-Teacher-Association
PTR	Pupil-Teacher-Ratio
REB	Region Education Bureau
SM	School Mapping
SNNPR	South Nation Nationalities and Peoples Region
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Science and Cultural Organization
UPE	Universal Primary Education
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USE	Universal Secondary Education
WEO	Woreda Education Office
WoDA	Wolayta Development Association

Chapter One

1. Introduction

1.1. Background of the Study

These days, the development of education is of primary and unquestionable importance to every country in the world. Due to this, there is a resurgence of interest in education all over the world. With regard to this, Papadopoulos(1998:24) states, depending on the its representativeness, education is variously seen as “the gateway to future economic prosperity, the chosen instrument for combating unemployment, the driving force behind scientific and technological advances, the essential prerequisite for the cultural vitality of increasingly leisure-intensive societies, the spearhead of social progress and equality, the safeguard of democratic values, or the passport to individual success.” Hence, education has become the pulse of society in many important ways: economically, socially, politically and technologically as well.

Apart from the roles education plays in all aspects of human life, it has also been a long time since it is recognized as a human right. It was due to both reasons, among others, countries in the world moved to commit themselves to attain EFA by 2015 along with the MDGs. Ethiopia is one of the countries which confirmed to the EFA goals.

Attainment of EFA, however, demands financial, managerial, etc capacities of a country which plans to achieve the goals. That is why some countries in the world have been able to achieve these goals within a short time but other developing countries are far away from the track. Ethiopia is one of the countries in the world which might probably fail to achieve the EFA goals unless the problems researchers have identified are solved as quickly as possible (UNESCO, 2010).

Implementation of education development plans often requires the “institutionalization of a wider range of monitoring and evaluation approaches to contribute to a planning culture that focuses on processes, outputs and outcomes as well as tracking the delivery of inputs” (Davison, Berhanu, and Berhanu, 2010:35). A country-wide assessment conducted on capacity development in educational planning and implementation in Ethiopia, however, revealed that there are gaps in planning and managing capacity, which is an essential base for any progress towards achieving the EFA goals, in education system in Ethiopia provided that the financial bottleneck, which is common in all developing countries, have been avoided (Dramane, et.al, 2011).

Having recognized all these and other related problems in the country, decentralization of management systems was introduced in Ethiopia in all sectors so that not only the planning but also the implementation of the plans would be participatory and involve the stakeholders of the system. In line to this, the country’s education system has adopted decentralization and, hence, the education development plans got to develop in both bottom-up and top-bottom approaches of planning. Consequently, resource requests and plans and budget proposals come from the lower tiers while target setting, resource allocation and the approval of proposals descend from their respective upper levels (Caillods, et.al, 2009).

However, among all other planning exercises for education development, provision of primary education of good quality with equity and efficiency to all children, irrespective of gender, ethnic, economic or disability differences, called for a wide range of participation of people from all walks of life. Due to this, the education system administrators at the grassroots level were made to get involved in planning for UPE with great emphasis for making the local community participate in building and equipping schools along with mobilizing them to send their school-age-children to school. Since these and other strategies cannot be achieved unless there exists a guiding plan, UPE plans were prepared at district

levels after diagnosis of the education system at the grassroots levels within the woredas and town administrations.

The government was also committed to prepare various projects and programs like GEQUIP, which, for example, consist School Improvement Program in the form of package. School Mapping and Micro Planning is one of such projects which, in line with ESDP, was introduced to the education sector of the country so as to increasing access to quality basic education and attain UPE by or before 2015 (OEB/JICA, 2006). The project was exercised in various regions of the country, such as Amhara and Oromia regional states before its adoption in SNNPR in 2007/08. In SNNPR in particular, the project aimed at achieving UPE through micro-level planning (SNNPR, 2007/08:24). In Wolayta Zone, therefore, a three-year UPE plan was developed in all woredas and town administrations after this project. Effective and efficient implementation of the project was therefore assumed to contribute a lot for the move to achieve UPE in the country in general and in the region in particular. However, research-based assessments were called to investigate the achievements, challenges and prospects of implementation of the project so that timely actions can be taken if the process has encountered any problems.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Education is a corner stone of economic and social development and a principal means of improving the welfare of individuals. The fast and far-reaching social changes in progress, the enormous growth of population, the pressure of quickly developing economies and the wealth of knowledge and technology available are among the factors which call for giving due attention to education. The possible ways of meeting the various countries individual needs in education also demand trained persons in large numbers and special financial

provisions. The complexity and urgency of this task has brought planning as the best means of organizing the action required rationally and systematically for the future.

More than any time before, the limitations of macro-level planning to address locally relevant issues in education has become increasingly evident especially in the developing countries in order to meet the 'Education For All' targets, reach Millennium Development Goals , and successfully implement poverty reduction strategies(Costa, 2008). Hence, preparing the education development plans at the micro levels with involvement of all stakeholders from the respective levels has been recognized. As a result, the roles of administering education organizations in general and preparing and implementing educational plans have been shared among regions, zones, woredas/town administrations, and kebeles besides the national level (Oulai, et. al. 2010).

However, as studies conducted by different scholars have depicted, the decentralized plan implementation was entangled by so many problems though there exists encouraging trend of education development. It has been a long time since various education conferences found out lack of collaboration between the MOE and other ministries, which they stated as 'one of the hardest things in the world to achieve', and the need of people to ensure that their kids will get the secondary schooling and will also get the university education without getting interested in basic education where every child should have the right are a few of the problems the education system in Africa is entangled with (Mutunbuka,1986:35-36). Abdu (2005), depicted lack of decision making power, lack of accountability and representation, lack of meaningful participation of the population and severe shortage of skilled man power and capacity were also among the problems.

Moreover, Derebssa (2006) found out that the goal of basic education for all is far from being achieved in 2015 as there are still indicators that the situation is not as expected. The

evaluation reports of the ESDP programs also did not cover the gaps in education system in Ethiopia apart from appreciating the considerable efforts made to provide basic education to all school-age children though the evaluations were more general and take mainly the national or regional aspects of education (SNNPR, 2007/08). In light of this, careful planning and its implementation of the plans are obviously important, but it accounts for nothing unless the lower level echelons are aware of the products of such planning and have the skills to implement educational activities at the levels below federal or regional levels (Derebssa, 1998).

Having taken all these into consideration, the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project was introduced in order to increase access of free primary school of equity, efficiency and quality to all children in the region in general and in the zone in particular (SNNPR, 2007/08:3). Various strategies were also devised to attain this goal as it goes in line with the national EFA goals which Ethiopia committed itself to achieve by or before 2015 and the education sector development plans. In spite of this, reports of the zone's education development plan performance in various times shown that development of education was not as planned among the woredas and town administrations. Although there were remarkable changes in development of primary education, it remained difficult to improve efficiency and quality of the system in line with the national and regional education goals (Wolayta zone Education Department, 2010/11; SNNPR,2010/11). Furthermore, the extent to which the attempts of School Mapping and Micro Planning Project enabled to achieve the intended goals has not been assessed at the zone level in such a way that it will have been possible to identify the challenges and prospects in terms of its achievements. Thus, it has become indispensable to closely investigate the trends and status of primary education under the umbrella of the regional and national education development through well-designed researches.

In this research study, therefore, it was planned to assess what the achievements and challenges of the project in terms of increasing access to efficient, equitable and of better quality primary education to all children in Wolayta Zone, i.e. one of the zones in SNNPR, were, and project the development trends of the zone's education system in the light of the UPE national agenda. To this end, the following basic questions were raised:

1. To what extent has the school mapping and micro planning project increased access, equity, efficiency and quality of primary education?
 - a. Have the intake and enrolment rates of primary education been increased through time?
 - b. Has the implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project helped to keep equity between male and female and rural districts and town administrations?
 - c. Is the primary education efficient in terms of tackling dropouts and repetition rates?
 - d. To what extent has the quality of primary education improved during implementation of the school mapping and micro planning project?
2. What challenges have been facing while implementing the school mapping and micro planning project at the lower tiers?
3. Are the educational planning and administration personnel at the district/town administration and lower levels capable, and have skills, to implement the education development projects in their respective administrative areas?
4. What measures should be taken to initiate effective implementation of plans at lower levels?

1.3. Objectives

1.3.1. General Objective

The general objective of this study was to assess the achievements, challenges and prospects of implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project in wolayta zone.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

Specific objectives of the study were to:

1. measure the extent to which the school mapping and micro planning project has increased access to primary school of equity, efficiency and good quality on the basis of preset indicators in the zone;
2. gather evidences on the education organization leaders skills to plan for effective and efficient education development in their respective administrative levels;
3. identify major challenges faced during implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project in the zone interms of working towards UPE; and,
4. envisage about the future trends of UPE in the study area.

1.4. Significance of the Study

The research was designed to address the following contributions.

1. Findings of this study add to the current body of knowledge about the concepts of School Mapping and Micro Planning at the districts' levels by improving the techniques of school mapping and micro planning employed. Besides, the

findings make a contribution to policy that will lead to effective implementation of school mapping and micro planning at the grassroots levels.

2. The study may provide fertile information and build awareness among policy makers, officials, experts, school principals, community representatives and other stakeholders on the importance of cooperative planning at micro levels. As a result, it strengthens the capacity and skills of planners at central and decentralized levels in terms of school mapping and micro-planning along with clarification of the exact nature of the conceptual and operational aspects of the school mapping and micro planning process and its implementation.
3. It may help educators and policy makers to identify and tackle challenges that hamper implementation of school mapping and micro planning at the lower administrative levels.
4. The officials and experts at the woreda/town administration and zone levels get adequate information on the trends and status of access, equity, efficiency and quality of primary education opportunities at their respective administrative areas. Hence, they can see descriptive image of their administrative areas' education development in the light of UPE and plan for future improvements on the areas where problems were identified.
5. Findings of the study is helpful for the education system administrators at the higher (zone, region and federal) levels as it gives an insight on the primary education status at the study area. Thus, they can pave ways of bringing more children to school and sustain them in the school by revisiting the strategies put forward to attain the EFA and MDG. Further, the study might be used as a reference for those researchers and professionals who are interested to conduct researches on the same or related issues in the study area.

1.5. Delimitation of the Study

The study was delimited in scope in terms of area and time. This was done to make it manageable. The research study was, therefore, delimited to achievements, challenges and prospects of implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project in terms of access, equity, efficiency and quality primary (grades 1-8) education in Wolayta zone, SNNPR, in the years 2007/08 to 2010/11. Besides, capacity of planners and administrators at the lower levels, i.e. woreda/town administration and school level were assessed. In SNNPR there are two programs that provide primary education for students: regular program and ABE program. In this study, however, the ABE program was not considered.

In terms of achievements, trends and status of primary education access, equity, internal efficiency and quality were investigated using pre-identified education indicators. Hence, based on the baseline data and targets set for the year 2010/11, the changes revealed were compared, along with the regional status of primary education development where needed. Meanwhile, the challenges faced while implementing the project were analyzed by taking into consideration the financial and administrative aspects (or capacity) of the planning and education organization administration personnel at the local levels.

1.6. Limitation of the Study

One of the challenges confronted in the course of this study was shortage of time. As a result, it was difficult to analyze the education statistical data of all woredas and town administrations and hence conclusions were made based on the achievements and challenges of sample administrative areas.

Besides, the indicators used to measure education development in the study were by nature crude and liable to measure other variables which were not the concern of this study.

However, clear boundary was demarcated for utilization of each instrument in advance so as to avoid confusions. Meanwhile, endeavors were also made to validate the data from different sources so as to check their reliability and tackle likelihood of errors. It is also to be noted that the variables selected were also not the only tools to measure primary education development, but they describe the situation under consideration as first instances.

1.7. Definitions of Operational Terms

Achievements- are accomplishments recorded in the course of implementing the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project since its launch.

Administrators- are the personnel consisting school principals, KETMB and PTA chairpersons who are responsible of managing education organizations at the lower tiers of administration.

Challenges- are the demanding or stimulating situations which are related with the research problem at hand in the study area.

Micro Planning- is preparation of educational plans at the grassroots (zonal, district or school) level by participating the beneficiaries.

Prospects- is the process of surveying of current situations of a school management planning activities in order to predict about the future successes.

Woreda (also termed as **district**)- is an area marked off and developed for administrative purposes with defined authority and responsibility representing a population of upto 100,000 people. A woreda is termed as 'rural woreda' unless it is not known as town administration in the region's division of administrative areas.

School Mapping- is a process of assessing more accurately the educational needs at the local level and the amount of resources required as well as means of ensuring

proper implementation of the educational plan at the district and community levels before preparing micro level plans.

School Mapping and Micro Planning Project- a project launched to develop primary education at the lower levels of administration so as to achieve UPE by or before 2015 (2008 E.C).

1.8. Organization of the Report

The report of this study was compiled in six chapters. Chapter one dealt with the problem and its approach whereby background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives, significance, delimitation, limitation and organization of the study were presented. In chapter two, reviews of the related literatures and studies were treated. Chapter three dealt with the research design and methodology. Data analysis and presentation of the findings were presented in chapter four. Finally, in chapter five, summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations were presented. Later on, lists of reference materials used during the study and appendices were attached to the report.

Chapter Two

2. Review of Related Literatures

In this chapter, literatures which relate to the study topic were reviewed.

2.1. Approaches to Educational Planning

There is a wide spread agreement today in academic and governmental circles that decisions regarding education should be made 'plan-fully' rather than improvised. Hence, the need of planning comes to the point whenever the issue of education is raised. However, there is no equally firm agreement on precisely what planning is or should be or what approaches of planning best serve all sorts of organizations among scholars. Besides, educational planning has got various forms and approaches through time. In this section, participatory, strategic, and micro planning approaches which are widely exercised contemporarily and relate to the issue at hand are discussed in detail.

2.1.1. Participatory Planning

This approach essentially involves public participation in policy making. Public participation does not merely involve decentralization of planning and the involvement of regional and local bodies in the process but also the involvement of the people who will be affected by the planning decisions (Haddad, 1995). The participation of teachers, pupils, and parents in decision making will help them to understand what is intended and, more so, will win their acceptance of the changes and develop their commitment to making the changes work. Thompson (1981:67) argues that when people are involved in planning, it is

likely that they will develop their capacity to contribute to effective decision making and thereby increase the likelihood that decisions will be soundly based.

Participatory planning may be based on either the advocacy or the cellular model (Mayer 1985:123). The advocacy model, according to Mayer (1985) is rooted in Davidoff's (1965) ideas. The model assumes that there is no unitary public interest: what exists is a pluralism of interests and these are of two types: (1) Those held by groups, which are in control of government institutions and which can therefore be declared to be interests of the public. (2) Those held by groups that are not in power, the poor and the minorities, which go unrecognized. The model then suggests that in order to equalize the opportunity for all groups in society to have their interests reflected in public plans or policies, the process by which they are developed should be an adversary one. If citizens are to be included in the planning process, they should be given the opportunity not only to be heard but also to propose alternative plans.

This model advocates for a network of publicly supported planners assigned to all organized groups in society to help them prepare plans to be advocated for public adoption. In a country where trained planners are not available, the model fails and, furthermore, the model competes with the function that politicians are best equipped to perform, that is to advocate on behalf of constituent groups.

Mayer (1995) also adds that the cellular structure model on the other hand argues that individuals and planners hold different perspectives on the same interests. The perspectives of individuals derive from their experience with the singular, concrete events. The perspectives of planners derive from symbolic abstractions of concrete events. They constitute processed knowledge. In order to bridge this disparity, planning is transactive processes of mutual learning in which individuals and planners through continual dialogue

translate their respective perspectives into each other's and thereby achieve a fusion of personal and processed knowledge that leads to a recognition of common interests.

It is important to note that although participatory planning is promising, it makes the process of decision-making more complex, attenuated and possibly more expensive. Above all, participatory planning demands very efficient multi-directional communication between all those involved. Finally, it calls for genuine willingness on the part of politicians to consult and to listen, and on the part of the planners to modify and explain their techniques (Kebede, 2002). Hence, all concerned bodies should be committed for the effect of participatory planning.

2.1.2. Strategic Planning

Basically, strategic planning is a proactive method for dealing with change. The role of strategic planning is to establish what could be done, when and how, in relation to the adopted educational philosophy (Packer, 2009). It involves generating a mission statement and beliefs, followed by priorities or goals to address. Action plans are then generated, implemented, and evaluated over time. The process' final product is a plan (the document) to be implemented. According to Saint (1992:36) such a product should:

- be short and readable, spelling out operational objectives;
- demonstrate the institution's ability to plan and manage its future and to provide a basis for government and donor investment decisions;
- be produced through an institution's strategic planning exercise and incorporate extensive internal consultation and consensus-building with staff through management audits and self-studies; and

- integrate attention to educational quality, output mix, finances, curriculum, staff development, research, access, governance and management.

Strategic planning is applied at the institutional level and one of its purposes is to adjust the organization to its environment. This is more successful if it is assumed that the institution already has a considerable measure of autonomy to manage its own affairs, to determine both the ends and the means (Farrant and Lioudmilla, 1997).

The main advantage of strategic planning is that it can enable the institution to determine its own priorities and find donors to fund projects consistent with those priorities. Experience with the use of strategic planning in OECD countries indicates that there are three main obstacles: (1) the failure of planning units to dominate uncertainty, thus permitting it to dominate policy planning; (2) the inability of policy planning to make full use of available research and development outputs; and (3) the failure of policy planning, on many occasions, to resist short-term political pressures and in many respects, being conditioned by the strategic plans (Sournelis, 1989:179). Getting aware of such obstacles in advance, therefore, might be helpful to foster its advantages.

2.1.3. Micro Planning (Project Planning)

According to Magnen (1991) cited in Itaaga (1998:24), micro planning “seeks means of achieving broad goals and determining resource allocation at a much lower level in particular sectors of the economy, in particular kinds of occupations, and in particular regions of the country.” In this way, planning becomes a cyclical and on-going process of inquiry and illumination intended to inform and facilitate decision making.

The life of a project is divided into several successive stages with each stage as the logical successor of the preceding one, while the last stage prepares the first of the next. This is diagrammatically represented as shown in the Figure 2.1 and each stage is discussed later on.

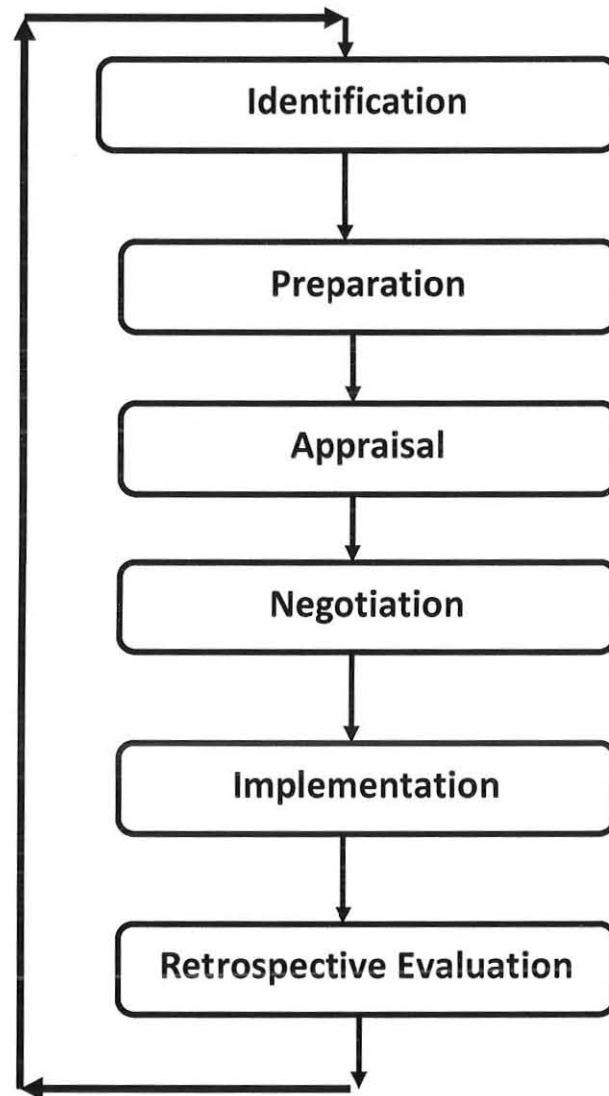


Figure 2.1: The project Cycle

Source: Magnen (1991) cited in Itaaga (1998:24)

Identification

According to Itaaga (1998:26), project identification involves selection of one or several projects with high priority for the country's development, and then definition of their objectives, strategy and main characteristics. The main purpose of identification is to justify the priority of identified projects. To justify an education project is to show that it is likely to substantially improve the performance of education. It is also to demonstrate that the project is in conformity with the national development and education policies. The responsibility for identifying education projects usually falls on the ministry of education and in particular the unit entrusted with planning.

Preparation

Project preparation studies all the aspects (technical, institutional, socio-political, economic, and financial) that have a bearing on the project's success. The purpose of project preparation is twofold: studying in detail all the aspects of the project so as to ensure that it is reasonably feasible; and planning its execution so that it can start without any delays. It involves a detailed account of the necessary items, their costs as well as the additional recurrent expenditure generated by the project. It finally envisages the organization to be provided and the measures to be taken for project execution as well as the subsequent functioning of the institution concerned.

Appraisal

This is more or less an in-depth study of the project by government or organizations that are to arrange for financing (ministry of finance, external aid agencies) before approval is given.

In Itaaga (1998:24) words, appraisal must verify that the project has been sufficiently well prepared for implementation to start as soon as the project has been approved.

Negotiations

These are agreements between representatives of the ministry of education and the financial decision-makers. The negotiations often result in conformity as to the project's objectives, design, content and mode of financing.

Implementation / Management

This is the time when the entire project plan is put into action. It includes the implementation of all the investments and other actions provided for by the project, for example, construction of buildings, purchase of equipment, training of staff, technical assistance, miscellaneous services, etc. This stage only ends when the schools or other institutions developed by the project can function normally.

Retrospective Evaluation

This involves studying the project's results after its completion and hence when its final costs are known. It compares actual outlays and results achieved with the project's original estimates. Its main purpose is to identify the reasons for apparent successes and failures so as to inform the competent authorities and to draw lessons for future projects (Itaaga1998:27).

Apparently, the identification, preparation and management of projects are complex tasks requiring the availability within an educational planning unit of an adequate number of experienced specialists having received appropriate training.

Furthermore, Darniba (1992) argues that success of the project method is affected by the economic, social and general political context. In developing countries, the economic crisis, structural adjustment programs and the search for immediate profitability often lead to a cutback on the education budget, hence limit the success of the project approach. Generally, each of the planning approaches have their own merits and while employing the approaches in the education system, getting aware of the disadvantages is helpful to include the strategies of tackling the problem in advance. The next part examines micro planning and its research component, i.e. school mapping, more closely.

2.2. Defining Micro Planning and its Research Component:

School Mapping

2.2.1. Educational Micro Planning

As shown above, micro planning is an instrument of achieving broad goals and determining resource allocation at a much lower level in particular sectors of the economy, in particular kinds of occupations, and in particular regions (or levels below) of a country. The concept is further discussed in relation to its research component, i.e. school mapping, below.

2.2.1.1. The Concept of Educational Micro Planning

Educational planning is the process through which educational issues are analyzed and policies are generated, implemented, evaluated and updated. An educational plan is a written strategy or strategies for the education sector. Based on an analysis of the national or local

contexts, a plan specifies policies, strategies, targets and the resources needed to achieve the stated policy objectives (Comim, Qizilbash, and Alkire, 2005).

As an approach of educational planning, micro planning is defined by different authors according to their interest and the context in which they are applying the term. This is because lack of people's participation in the planning and implementation has been one of the reasons for unsuccessful implementation of different plans since ever. Logically, plans should be prepared and implemented in collaboration with the people. It is assumed that the active cooperation and support of the local people in the identification of genuine needs and available resources at the local level is essential for the successful implementation of plans. This is termed as micro planning (Aggarwal and Thakur 2003:24). The authors also add that micro planning takes place in the grassroots level as noted below:

Micro-Planning in education starts from grass root level. For instance, the head of an institution has to plan how best he/she should bring all the children to school in his/her area. Here planning at the village level has to be done. How best individual schools can bring and retain all the children in schools; how schools in individual habitations can be provided; and whether eligible students are getting their scholarships on time.

Broadly speaking, according to UNESCO (1991), planning at micro level means the participation of the beneficiaries, the local people, in identifying needs, generating available resources in terms of material inputs, cooperative actions, creation of more resources through supportive efforts, and preparation of a plan, and keeping in view the available resources

In the field of education, a distinction is usually drawn between the concepts of educational macro-planning and micro-planning (Amhara Regional State Education Bureau, 2006?). Accordingly, educational macro planning is often used to refer to decisions at a very aggregate level (or national level). For example, such decisions could refer to *the way* the

state budget is allocated between different levels of schooling (primary, secondary or higher education). In this manual, we use the terms .macro planning, and central level planning roughly to refer to planning activities at the national and regional levels.

In the similar way, Pandey (2003:101) defines educational micro planning as a term used to refer broadly to planning below the national level. In our context, such planning particularly refers to planning at the Woreda, Kebele, school (institutional), and individual levels. Hence, micro-level plans address the educational needs of units below the central level, be they region, zone, woreda or any other administrative units for which the plan may have been written. The process of preparing local level (woreda, kebele, or school) plans.

Micro planning is the methodology to prepare a plan at the micro-level: at the institution, the community, and the local governance levels. In the SMAAP Project, for instance, the micro-planning activities were the plan preparations of primary education sub-sector at the woreda-level in Oromia region due to the fact that it will enable to ensure greater equity in the distribution of educational services and, due to adaptation of education services to local needs, it was more likely to address the local needs of the woreds than a national or regional plan would (OEB/JICA, 2006).

Plans developed in this way are perhaps more likely to reflect the actual situation from the point of view of policies, strategies, and targets (Tilak, 2008). Moreover, the best woreda plans will require the participation of all key educational stakeholder groups, which in turn result (when it took place at all levels of the planning process) in the stakeholders' feeling that they are part and parcel of the plan so that they are more committed to the achievement of the plan objectives.

In a restricted sense, micro planning concentrates on the improvement of the functioning of the education system by strengthening regional and local planning activities. While main

lines are drawn at the national level, micro planning seeks to ensure greater equality in the distribution of educational services, a better adaptation of these to the needs of local communities, and a more efficient use of all the resources available. Lastly, it suggests, as a working method, participation of the communities in planning efforts.

Since educational micro planning is to be done at the local level, its need, along with that of school mapping, arises from deficiencies of macro planning. The deficiencies include (Amhara Regional State Education Bureau, 2006?:45):

- Complexity: Central level plans are complex. Thus local level implementers usually find such plans difficult to translate into action.
- Communication: It is usually the case that goals of education defined at the national levels are not well communicated to the grass roots.
- Relevance: One major problem of many planning activities at the central level is that they are too far removed from the realities of the local situation, hence lacking relevance.
- Inequalities: particularly in developing countries, centrally designed plans fail to reduce inequalities in educational provision.

Perhaps, failure of the central planning, which in turn calls for planning at the micro level, emanate from different sources. According to UNESCO (1991), lack of sufficient knowledge of the planners at the central level about the local situation (educational, environmental, demographic, etc.) which may result in definition of objectives and targets that are irrelevant to the needs of certain regions and districts is the most prominent one. Besides, lack of appropriate administrative, organizational, and financial means to implement the objectives and targets in the regions and districts and absence of participation of regional/district and local stakeholders/actors in the process of planning hamper proper

planning as well as implementation of centralized plans. Moreover, as centralized plans may fail to be implanted, this in turn is obviously wasteful from the economic, social and educational viewpoints. Hence, it is indispensable to look for another way of effectively planning and implementing for development particularly in education sector.

2.2.1.2. Benefits of Micro Planning

In development sectors like education, it is often recorded that planning at the macro level would have resulted in great failures unless it had been complemented by the micro level plans (UNESCO, 1991). Many times, not only the plans which have been depended on the central situation but also the records kept there are incomplete or inaccurate, especially where socio-economic conditions are difficult and/or worker performance is poor. But even more important, low service coverage points only to the existence of a problem. The interventions to reduce unmet need and improve coverage would depend on identification of specific reasons for non-receipt or non-use of services, and understanding what underlies these reasons which could be the local socio-economic conditions, geographic conditions, worker characteristics or programme's operating practices. Consequently, detailed planning at a lower level, usually at or below a district, which takes into account the variations in the community, is always in a quest.

Micro-level planning methodology should, therefore, be able to overcome some of such shortcomings. On basis of this, Rao (1998:68) states that a good micro-level planning methodology should be a) based on an assessment of the local situation, b) client sensitive and participative, c) replicable, and d) easy to institutionalize. Simplicity of such a system and possibility of integrating it in the existing system without radical modifications would increase the chances of acceptance in an organization.

Generally, the need for micro planning before the implementation of national educational plans at grassroots level is justified by the following benefits (Singh, 2009: 234):

- a) It will enable policy makers, planners, and implementers to clearly see merging problems of implementation at an earlier stage and in closer perspective;
- b) It will enable planners to identify different alternatives that may help to solve current Problems at local levels;
- c) It will enable planners to assess and weigh the merits and feasibilities of all proposed alternatives;
- d) It will help to build the capacity of local level functionaries.

In addition, as a great benefit, according to Varghese (1997), micro planning offers the possibility of correcting the deficiencies of macro planning in that it involves the participation and interaction of decision-making between the central level and the levels below. It enables coordinated efforts in the definition of educational objectives and targets, and in planning, implementation, management of educational services and decisions. Thus, micro planning is complementary to macro planning rather than a substitute for it though its advantage beats that of the national/regional level macro planning.

2.2.2. School Mapping as a Research Component of Micro Planning

As it has already been stated, school mapping is used as a tool for educational micro planning for it provides, among other planning tools, “a basic data for preparation of the plan” (Singh, 2009:254). As a result, researches on micro planning often look for this aspect of the plan. Due to this, it is quite relevant to review some literatures on it.

2.2.2.1. The Concept of School Mapping

The term 'school mapping' got various meanings through time. With regard to this, OEB/JICA (2006) states that the term 'school mapping' is, in a sense, an old term that has taken on a new meaning in current education planning. Traditionally, to 'map schools' signified a process of identifying school locations, and displaying this information on a map. The resulting school map (typically produced by hand) showed schools in relation to education administrative boundaries and other key features such as major towns, roads, rivers, etc. planners and administrators have been using maps for many years as a means of visually displaying the distribution of education provisions. It is, however, fair to say that such mapping of schools has been rare in an African context-educational planning and resourcing decisions have in most cases taken places without the aid of a visual representation of the distribution of schools (Packer, 2009).

More recently, the advent of geographical information system (GIS) and the trend towards decentralized decision-making in education has given new meaning to the term *school mapping*. The availability of GIS means that, in addition to making maps, it is also possible to analyze education data and explore important scenarios in planning such as where to locate new schools, how to distribute scarce education resources equitably, or how to prioritize school infrastructure upgrading programs (Attfield, et. al., 2001). Decentralization has meant that education planners have been empowered to make decisions at a local level, using information about local education provision, conditions and demand in order to best provide for local education needs. This has created new demand for localized education planning tools such as school mapping.

UNESCO's International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) suggests that school mapping "focuses largely on inequalities in the provision of education services between

different regions and localities within a country” (IIEP, 1983: 35). They state that a typical use of school mapping would be to address issues of inequalities in the distribution of educational services that occur between different regions and districts: it can channel educational investment to poorly served areas. In this sense, school mapping is a potent planning instrument for equalizing educational opportunities. It can ensure allocative efficiency in planning process (Ibid, p.42).

School mapping usually commences with the process of identifying and geo-locating all schools within the area of interest. This often (but not always) involves physical visits by field workers who use a Global Positioning System (GPS) to record the location of the school. At the same time, information about the school may be captured relating to numbers of teachers, pupils, physical infrastructure and teaching resources, but where functioning EMIS system exists, the collection of these information may not be necessary (OEB/JICA, 2006: 40).

The field work exercise may be restricted to schools of certain type, e.g. primary schools, or with in specific targeted districts, depending on the resources available and the project objectives. Many countries in Africa, according to OEB/JICA (2006), have decided to geo-locate all their schools in one exercise, which implies a significant amount of financial and human resources as well as considerable organizational ability.

There are great many applications of school mapping, which may vary in spatial scale, level of sophistication and resource demands. The suitability or relevance of a particular application will depend on the peculiarities of the local education environment and local education needs. Above all, it has to be demonstrated that the proposed analytical process meets a need for information and decision support.

A school mapping project, to prepare an education information database and to develop a planning tool for micro planning, has been implemented in several countries, such as South Africa, Botswana, Kenya, and Malawi. There are some projects in Ethiopia, such as the ManaBU Project and the BESO Project (SNNPR, 2007/08). The experiences and lessons from these projects are useful to design a concrete action plan of the SMAAP Project.

Generally, school mapping deals with the planning of the distribution, size, and spacing of schools. It refers to the set of techniques and procedures that are used to identify future needs in education at the local level and to plan for measures to be taken to meet them. It is a practical means of assessing more accurately the educational needs at the local level and the amount of resources required, as well as means of ensuring proper implementation of the educational plan at the district and community levels.

In terms of its application, Caillods (1983) notes that 'school mapping can be applied to all levels of education but its greatest value is in the planning of primary and secondary schools' (p. 78). This is because ensuring access to primary and secondary education for all school age children is an important goal of all countries. In Ethiopia, ensuring access to primary education is of great emphasis at this time.

Govinda (1999) also adds that school mapping attempts to plan the pattern of educational provision in order to enable more pupils to have easier access to schools as well as to allow more efficient use of current and additional resources. School mapping is thus more than simply compiling a map showing the distribution of schools. Moreover, it is concerned with the planning and distribution of schools and inputs such as learning materials and teachers for the efficient functioning of the school system.

2.2.2.2. Origin, Development and Forms of School Mapping

School mapping was first appeared in France in 1963. This is briefly described by Caillods

(1983:6- 7):

... in 1963 the Government [of France] decided to extend the period of compulsory schooling to the age of 16, which required the establishment of a large number of new schools. It quickly became apparent that the Ministry of Education could not itself plan the location of all the new schools, nor did the regional offices have the methodological means to decide what types of schools were needed and where. A collection of circulars, regulations, standards and procedures were prepared at that time and given the name 'the school map'.

Later on, as it becomes a technical exercise which became a relatively normalized and institutionalized practice in education micro-planning. Its function in offering technical input into any educational micro-planning effort is virtually self-evident. It should be noted that school mapping (a process) is not the same as a school map (one typical product of the school mapping process):

More than simply being a tabular, graphical or cartographical representation of a particular space or place, school mapping involves the consideration and inclusion of various forms of technical data that impact and "populate" the physical and social context of analysis.

As a process that produces specific functional products, school mapping is fundamentally an educational micro-planning effort focused on increasing school resource efficiency and equity (Varghese, 1997).

The context for education planning differs from country to country depending on local conditions (sparse versus dense settlement patterns, urban versus rural environments, etc), education priorities, funding levels and the degree of decentralization. This in turn places

different demands on the use of GIS and the ways in which school mapping is applied.

Specific forms of school mapping include (OEB/JICA, 2006:40):

- School clustering;
- New school construction;
- Prioritization of school upgrade program;
- Rationalization (merging) of small schools;
- Improving access to secondary schools;
- Resource targeting;
- Regional restructuring/redistricting;
- Equitable allocation of human resources; and,
- Identifying under-served areas or gaps in education provision.

Further, more applications may develop as new countries recognize the value of including a spatial dimension in educational planning. There is also an emerging demand for planning tools that are appropriate in a decentralized education context-decision makers need the tool and skills to plan effectively in a local context. It can allow planners and managers to make better use of limited resources and spatial information allows managers to defend fair decisions with visually transparent information since maps are often easier to interpret than tables and statistics.

2.2.2.3. Functions of School Mapping

The basic function of school mapping is to enable a detailed analysis of existing educational services in any one region or district in order to identify problems such as imbalances in geographical distribution of educational services, differences in pupil enrolment and attendance, under-and over- utilization of resources (buildings, equipment, teachers), and variations in teaching and learning conditions (Varghese, 1997).

Varghese (1997) further underlines that, through school mapping, planners try to find out solutions for the following types of questions: are the existing school facilities used to full capacity, and if not, how can their use be maximized? Which kinds of school facilities will ensure the best use of resources to achieve a given objective and, if new schools, classrooms, laboratories, workshops and teacher centers are needed, where should they be ideally located?

Hence, answering these questions adequately will lead to the rationalization of the education system in a certain region, district or community.

School mapping (particularly in developing countries) is most often used to facilitate one or more of six functions:

1. Create the necessary conditions for achieving universal primary and Secondary education (UPE and USE),
2. Increase access for females and members of other traditionally under-represented socio-economic groups,
3. Promote the equitable distribution of educational benefits within and between different regions and populations,
4. Improve the quality of educational efforts,

5. Optimize the efficient use of existing capital, human and financial resources, and,
6. Organize, coordinate and rationalize efforts at technical, vocational, and Post-secondary education (Caillods, 1983; Varghese, 1997).

Therefore, a diagnosis of the school network as it exists in the area under consideration is the first step in a process of rationalization of education system is. The diagnosis, which implies the process of school mapping, will reveal possible weaknesses of the existing school network, helping to redesign and rationalize the school network. School mapping is an important planning technique to arrive at rational decisions regarding distribution of educational facilities across different geographical locations.

The major objective of school mapping exercise is to equalize educational opportunities by leveling-out the existing inequalities in the distribution of educational facilities across different localities.

Since school mapping is typically defined as a micro-planning exercise, the expectation is that it operates at the sub-national, or decentralized level. In the normal application of school mapping processes, decentralized participants and organizations must necessarily work and cooperate with centralized data and decision support services. Caillods (1983:13) describes an iterative school mapping process:

Adoption of the school map implies acceptance of a type of planning which does not result in one-way communication from the centre to the peripheries, or vice versa, but in a series of successive loops and iterations which make possible the progressive revision of proposals as well as the preparation of final decisions.

School mapping exercise tries to ensure that the new schools, which are to be opened in future, will be more rationally located so that the existing in-equalities in the allocation of schooling provisions can be reduced to a considerable extent

It is optimal when this iterative process between decentralized and centralized units leads to creative cooperation while preserving the necessary responsibilities at all levels. In practice, however, there can often be serious tension and sometimes even cooptation between the decentralized and centralized players. When there are difficulties in maintaining influence and control at either level, the negative results may more often accrue at the decentralized level. This introduces one of the most common functional challenges with school mapping as a micro-level process – the apparently unavoidable reliance of decentralized participants on centralized policy expertise, resources and/or decision-making. This condition of dependence can disable significant decision making and influence at the decentralized level.

2.2.2.4. Goals and Outcomes of School Mapping

The school map is part and parcel of the educational planning process. One of its essential functions is assisting in the realization of the targets (objectives) of the educational plan. It occurs at the local level once the major educational goals have been set out by the central or regional planning teams. Hence, the basic objective of any school mapping work is to establish a network of institutions or, more broadly speaking, of an educational service which will enable to equitably and efficiently meet the projected demand for education to be met as equitably and efficiently as possible (Dash, 2004).

School mapping always precedes proper diagnosis of the existing education system, which in turn helps to make proposals for the location of new institutions, for the repair of facilities or the allocation of teachers, and the reorganization of existing schools. In line to this, Dash

(2004:67) suggests that in school mapping diagnosis, one should deal with various activities, such as general development of the education system, coverage of the education system, internal efficiency of the system, quality of education services, and the degree of their utilization, and data collection. Hence, it is a critical stage in the educational micro planning process.

School mapping and micro planning are nowadays taken as tools for instrumentation of the goals of education which a number of countries have identified that incorporate the following on basis of their national development priorities. The goals of education account for the following: Ensuring access, equity, efficiency, and Promoting quality (Ritzen, 2005). Ensuring access deals giving all children of school age a basic education and, depending on available resources and social and economic requirements, extending education beyond basic education. Ensuring equity involves providing for equality of educational opportunity among different social groups, etc. Ensuring efficiency has something to do with making the system more efficient by improving the ratio between costs and performances. Promoting quality involves reforming structures, curricula, and methods.

School mapping has vital roles to play in realizing all the above goals of education systems. More specifically and directly, school mapping concentrates on improving the efficiency in the use of resources. In this connection, school mapping can help analyze the use of available resources (buildings, equipment, teachers), identify inefficiency, and suggest measures to improve efficiency in order to make the utilization rates of premises, equipment and staff, and the length of time they are used to be the highest possible.

School mapping also enables to achieve equality of opportunity because it helps to equalize the supply of educational facilities among different geographic areas, facilitates equitable distribution of resources (human, material, and financial) over the various areas, and create

equal social opportunities for, and access to, schooling through active measures encouraging all children to go to school(Jha, et.al., 2008). School mapping has, therefore, several benefits. These include (1) identifying existing problems and imbalances; (2) supplying with basic data to project future enrolment; and, (3) suggesting measures that should be taken to correct deficiencies and imbalances (Rao,1998:351).

Generally, school mapping can help analyze in detail the inequalities which exist in educational development among regions, districts, and social groups. It can assist in finding appropriate measures of attaining equality of educational opportunity with regard to access (e.g. building new schools, providing school transport and other services).

Further, a school mapping exercise is expected to lead to the following results (Pandey, 2003:431):

- Identify a category of educational (learning) needs;
- Produce an inventory of available educational resources (facilities, equipment, human resources, etc.) within the district, and region.
- Show which of the resources are properly utilized, underutilized or over utilized;
- Provide guidelines on how to reorganize the available facilities so as to optimize their use;
- Enable to provide new resources in areas where they can be utilized to the highest advantage.

The net outcome of school mapping exercise is, therefore, an evaluation of use efficiency, reorganization, redistribution of resources, and maximization of their use. A result, it is quite natural to expect that a school mapping exercise along with micro planning at the local level would result in efficiency of an education system which is also accompanied with the other components like quality. As it is used to instrument the aim of achieving UPE, therefore,

more children at the school age are hoped to join primary education due to expansion of access and provision of quality education irrespective of rural-urban or other differences that exist in different places.

2.3. Interrelation of School Mapping, Micro Planning and Macro

Planning of Education

School mapping is an instrument for educational micro planning. Plans at the micro level are often prepared on basis of the plans at the higher administrative levels, such as regional or national. The national or regional plan for education defines the quantitative and qualitative goals for the sector for a given period. School mapping and micro planning are, however, the means to translate these objectives into concrete measures in the field (Singh, 2009). Hence, at the national level, important questions include:

- According to what criteria are we going to develop our education system?
- How many people should have access to secondary and higher education?
- What criteria for the allocation of resources among regions should be applied to reduce regional disparities? etc.

These are relevant for both school mapping and micro planning. They should, however, be answered ultimately at the national/regional level with due account taken of the resources available and of the country's /region's development strategy.

To be effective, planning has to come closer to action, and school mapping and micro planning serve to do so. At the local level, it is essentially a matter of understanding how the present educational services meet the needs of the local population groups and of proposing better ways of distributing the educational services or of diversifying their action programs.

The following table, as depicted by Tilak (2008:79), might further depict the similarities and differences between school mapping and micro planning:

Table 2.1: School Mapping versus Micro Planning

Basis of Comparison	School Mapping	Micro Planning
Focus	Resource allocation, input provision	Resource utilization, process and outputs
Criteria	Norm-based	Not so norm-based (output oriented)
Types of Resources	Financial	Non-financial
Frequency	Occasional	Continuous exercise
Nature of Activity	Technical, expert-driven, and less participation	Less technical, participatory
Scope	Cluster of geographic areas/institutions	Single village, institution, etc.

Source: Tilak (2008)

To put into a nut shell, school mapping and micro planning ensure that national/regional objectives are adapted to the particular characteristics of each locality and constitute a formative stage in the planning process- that of applying the national/regional plan at district and grass root levels. At the same time, they enable a more exact assessment of the resources to be allocated for the development of education. Moreover, school-mapping and micro- planning are done at the local level by the same people who will have to implement them with the participation of the community.

2.4. Diagnosis of the Local Education System: A Step Prior to School

Mapping and Micro planning

Diagnosis of the local education system is often a major part of the school mapping and micro planning exercise. In diagnosis, one makes a thorough study of the level of

development of the education system and the way it operates in order to identify gaps or imbalances (Gray, 1982). Because, proper diagnosis helps to make proposals for the location of new institutions, the repair of facilities or the allocation of teachers, and the reorganization of existing schools. It is a critical stage in the school mapping and micro planning process.

Experts in the area of school mapping underline that diagnosis in school mapping should provide the planners with answers to the following questions (Pandey, 2003: 456): 'How many children are at present moment served by the educational system? How are they served? And, who is in school and where?'

The first question to rise is 'How many children have access to education at the different levels in the school system? It is not enough, however, to know the number of children who have access to school: One must also know how many remain there, how many repeat and, above all, how many have dropped out without having completed an educational cycle? The question of 'how?' incorporates how, and in what conditions, do the pupils receive schooling? This raises the whole question of the means used. What are the resources (teachers, facilities, school equipment) available? Are they available in sufficient quantities? Do they ensure education of high quality? Are they used as efficiently as possible? Finally, the questions of 'who and where?' deals with the idea that school mapping diagnosis will not be complete if it does not enable one to know who the children presently served by the educational services are and those who are not, or who are badly served.

From the point of view of school mapping, we are interested in knowing what groups, in terms of age, sex, ethnic group or socio-occupational background, are disadvantaged and, above all, where such groups live? Which are the worst-served areas? It is in these areas and

sub-areas that priority action should be undertaken to improve the coverage and the quality of the educational service.

Analyzing 'who' and 'where' brings up the whole problem of the selection of the analysis units for diagnosis. By what criteria should the data be grouped to show up the disparities? To do this, thus, planners will need to use indicators as tools of analysis. The next section presents more on the indicators of education development.

2.5. Indicators as Diagnosis Units of an Education System

2.5.1. What are Indicators?

According to Sauvageot and Graca (2007:23), educational indicators are "the tools that should make it possible both to have a sense of the state of the education system and to report on that state to the whole of the education community, in other words to the whole country." Johnston also adds that educational indicators are quantitative device that gives an idea of the presence, or absence, nature or degree of educational access, coverage, efficiency, or quality of educational provision (1981:2). Hence, educational indicators are the instruments by means of which planners assess the level of attainment of their educational goals and objectives.

Sauvageot and Graca (2007) add that misunderstandings like considering indicators as elementary items of information should be avoided. Accordingly, indicators are information processed so as to permit the study of an educational phenomenon. Besides, indicators are supposed to enable the users to measure how far or how close one is from an objective, identify problematic or unacceptable situations, meet policy concerns and answer questions leading to its choice, and compare its value to a reference value, to a standard or to its self,

as computed for a different observation period. Therefore, the indicators should be derived from pre-formulated objectives and have the following characteristics (Cheng, 2005:345):

- Relevance;
- Ability to summarize information without distortions;
- Co-coordinated and structured character, allowing it to be related to other indicators for a global analysis of the system;
- Precision and comparability; and,
- Reliability

To sum up, indicators are tools that help to measure development variables in education. They facilitate identification of problems and allow for their magnitude to be measured. So, it is vital to construct relevant indicators before planning and evaluation of education development.

2.5.2. Indicators Used in Diagnosing the Education System

The list of indicators which one will be using in an analysis of educational system is long. In selecting indicators, therefore, one has to take into account the characteristics of the educational system policy of the country concerned. Besides, it should be noted that different indicators can be developed to give information on the performance of an education system in different aspects (Cheng, 2005).

Apart from this, the indicators adopted in Ethiopian education system emphasize on the education system's coverage, efficiency, and quality, among others. As stated in Sauvageot and Graca (2007), these indicators incorporate the following specific features:

a) The educational system's coverage: the relevant indicators include:

- Admission rates
- Enrolment rates
- Promotions rates
- Percentages of pupils who take less than 30 minutes, less than an hour, etc. to get to school
- Percentage of children not attending school

b) Efficiency of the educational system: the main indicators include:

- Promotion,
- Repetition rates,
- Drop-out rates

c) The quality of the educational services and the way resources availability are used: There is a whole series of indicators concerning availability staff, and conditions of buildings and equipment.

It especially includes:

- Pupil: section ratios
- Pupil: teacher ratios
- Percentages of qualified teachers
- Percentages of classrooms in poor conditions
- Percentages of pupils without standard seats
- Percentages of pupils without textbooks, etc.

As a part of indicators, certain equity/equality measures are also used while planning for and evaluating education development. Such indicators like Gender Parity Index (GPI) and Gender Gap (GG) constitute this (Tomul, 2011).

However, most of the indicators cannot be calculated from the normally available statistics, so, the planners may have to undertake one or more ad hoc surveys. The next task, which involves some difficulty, will be to interpret the different indicators which the planners have calculated. Besides, some indicators must be complemented with the others in order to get a fuller picture of the state of education in a given area (region) and in some of its poorest and most heavily indebted states (Hill and Roskam, 2009).

2.6. Major Issues in Education Development: Access, Equity,

Efficiency and Quality

Discussing the development objectives of education sector, Baum and Tolbert (1985:124-125) has mentioned principal objectives of education such as, among others, provision of basic education to all children, more equitable distribution of educational opportunities and reduction in existing inequalities based on sex, economic status and geography, and greater internal efficiency of the education system through a reduction of waste of resources, and improvement of quality. These education sector development objectives by themselves focus on “the issues of coverage (accessibility, access, and coverage), equity, efficiency, and quality, which are interdependent and interrelated” (World Bank, 1980:29). Each of these issues are discussed below.

2.6.1. Coverage

The issue of coverage of an educational system, as stated in Amhara Regional State Education Bureau (2007:38), may be summed up in two questions: The first question is 'Does the school network, as it is now organized and territorially distributed, serve efficiently the school-age population or the region or area under study?' In other words, this is a matter of studying the location of the various schools in the different areas and of seeing, in particular, how near a school is to the homes of the pupils and of how easily the latter can travel from one to the other. This is what is called the accessibility of the school network for the region's school-age population. The second question is 'Do the families and their children make efficient use of the existing school network?' To answer this, it is necessary to study the interaction between families' demand and educational supply as represented by the existing school network. Proximity to a school, i.e. physical accessibility, does not guarantee that children are necessarily sent to school. Educational access attempts to measure this in reaction between family demand and educational supply.

Expanding and equalizing educational opportunities imply access to prospective participants in all parts of a region, and equal, or nearly equal, enrollment ratios for various segments of the population. Participation in schooling is determined not only by the educational opportunities that are provided but also by the degree of their use. UNESCO (1982) explained that providing infrastructure is not enough to achieve basic education for all as not all children have access to education. While this is an essential pre-condition, according to UNESCO, basic education can have desired effects only when it reaches all its targets and conveys the minimum range and level of knowledge and skills necessary to achieve the objectives. This requires, among others, according to UNESCO's further explanation, first, full access, i.e. the availability of enough school places and the removal of barriers to

access, especially for children of right school age, and, second, reduction of gender gap by providing a special attention to the education of mothers and the girl-children in particular in rural areas.

According to UNESCO (1994:58), there are two sides of access. One is that “governments, local communities and other agencies seek to provide opportunities for basic education.” In this sense, access depends on provision of opportunities. However, according to the same source, access depends on the utilization of such opportunities by which they are aimed. Hence, it is the dynamic interaction of ‘provision’ and ‘utilization’ that propels access as a significant dimension of education development.

Broadening access to school is not just a matter of increasing the number of school places; school participation is an interaction of supply, demand, and learning process. While supply refers to both that availability and quality of school facilities, materials and teachers, demand is created by the decision that parents make based largely on the opportunity costs of schooling apart from the religious and cultural factors. Meanwhile, the learning process involves the experiences that children have in schools (Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991).

The above discussion leads to the argument that it is unrealistic to assume that if an educational service is offered, the intended beneficiaries will automatically consume it. For social and economic reasons, some groups may be apathetic toward the education being provided or not consider it worth the opportunity costs involved. In some countries, for instance, a population group in some regions who are geographically remote from the main centers or from economic activities and public services are often deprived of such rights. In this way, there are unequal opportunities within various countries based on sex, socio-economic status, and different region, rural, urban, and sometimes ethnic background (World Bank, 1988). However, the progress of education system depends on the extent to

which its provision keeps pace with growth I the target populations and the accompanied by reasonable level of utilization on the part of the target population.

2.6.2. Equity

Pryorjones (1980:157) defines equity as “social justice, or fairness, and as a subjective and ethical judgment.” Thus, in most cases, value judgments are involved in choosing and describing educational indicators. In this regard, equity in education means fair and just access to educational provisions. Clarifying the meaning boundary of equity in comparison to equality, the writer also states that equality is more objective and descriptive than equity. For instance, the equality of an educational access can be measured in terms of comparing some particular aspects of one person or a geographical unit with the same aspect of another person or a region. Inequality, which can also be referred as disparity, can, however, be measured by comparing the deviation from a hypothetically equal situation, norms, or standards.

Carron and Chau (1981), on the other hand, indicated that there has been a shift in focus concerning equity in recent years. The authors explained that, initially the goal in public policy was to ensure that every student could attend a place of learning (equitable access). The goal then shifted to ensuring that each place of learning received a fair share of resources to enable it meet, in broad terms, the educational needs of all its students (equity in resource allocation). The emerging view in equity suggests an emphasis on ensuring that each individual student has access to the particular mix of resources in order to best meet the need and interests of that student with resources like curriculum, learning experiences, teachers, supplies, equipments and services.

The way in which inequalities arise as a result of poor interaction between the school system and its environment can be pinpointed and examined at four stages of the process: at the level of entry in the school system, i.e. in terms of participation in each level, at the time of transition from one level of schooling to another, on the level of orientation towards various streams, and when progressing within the same level of schooling (Carron, 1985). So, equity should be diagnosed from different angles apart from access equality of opportunities.

Educational equity, as stated in UNESCO (1994), has various aspects which need to be examined and addressed in providing education in most African countries. Some of the commonest issues are gender inequality, regional inequality, and urban-rural inequality (p.50). In MOE (1998), the issue of inequality is stated as 'though access to primary education is very limited and participation rate is very low in Ethiopia, the most unfortunate thing, however, is even this small amount of education has never been fairly distributed'. The Ministry further identified dimensions of inequalities like inequality between gender, urban-rural disparities, and disparities among regions (Ibid, p. 57).

Females' enrollment, among others, is the widely used indicator with this regard (Brown, 1996:52). The 'Education for All' goals cannot be attained if the gender disparities continue. Moreover, the gender disparities get worse depending on the rural-urban settlements particularly in developing countries. Therefore, immediate actions should be taken whenever such factors are observed to hamper the education development goals.

2.6.3. Internal Efficiency of the Education system

Admission to school is merely the start of a long educational process. The difficulties that have affect upon the progress of pupils in a given cycle of schooling are a major concern of

planners, parents, and pupils alike. Indeed, it is vital for planners to know how many of those pupils enrolled actually complete a given cycle of schooling or obtain a given diploma within the official time limit. This is an important point, in so far as it enables educators to assess the relevance of educational objectives, curricula and teaching methods, as well as to consider the relationship between the whole series of internal and external factors connected with attendance and school performance and achievement (Tegegn, 1999).

Although the term efficiency was coined by economists, it applies to all spheres of planned activities directed towards given objectives. In any activity, it should be possible to define one's objectives, or, in other words, the output expected from that activity IIEP, 1996:40. To achieve the defined objectives, an individual or organization has to utilize the available resources in such a way that the desired outputs are produced with minimum cost and effort. Efficiency is thus defined as the optimal relationship between inputs and outputs. An activity is being performed efficiently if a given output is obtained with a minimum input, or conversely, if a given input yields maximum output (Bosker, Creemers, and Stringfield, 1999).

Nowadays, according to Sauvageot and Graca (2007), rapid educational expansion coupled with growing claims on national budgets has made planners and policy makers preoccupied with efficiency more than ever. The high grade repetition and dropout rates observed in many countries are seen as an important manifestation of low efficiency though certainly not the only one.

In order to trace the flow of pupils through the education system, it is important to ask the following question at the beginning of each school year: what happened to the pupils enrolled in a particular grade in the previous year? As one is probably aware, three possible and mutually exclusive events might have happened to them:

- a) They might have been promoted to the next higher grade or have graduated;
- b) They might have repeated the same grade they were attending the previous year; or,
- c) They might have dropped out (i.e. no longer attend school, or have moved to another school system or even have died) (Amahara Regional State Education Bureau, 2006?:51).

Generally, the objectives of an educational activity, its expected output, can be viewed in different ways by different people. However, educational planners take the immediate and most important objective to be the maximum numbers of those pupils who enter the education system or cycle complete it successfully within the prescribed period. Thus output of a given cycle is defined as the number of pupils who successfully complete that cycle.

2.6.4. Quality

The goal of achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE) has been on the international agenda since the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights that affirmed that primary education was to be made available freely and compulsorily for all children in all nations. This objective was restated subsequently on many occasions by international treaties and in United Nations conference declarations. However, most of these declarations are silent about the quality of education to be provided.

The two most recent United Nations international conference declarations focusing on education, however, have given some importance to its qualitative dimension. The Jomtien Declaration in 1990 and, more particularly, the Dakar Framework for Action in 2000 recognized the quality of education as a prime determinant of whether or not education for all is achieved. More specifically than earlier pledges the second of the six goals set out in the Dakar Framework commits all nations to the provision of primary education of good

quality. Moreover, the sixth goal includes commitments to improve all aspects of education quality so that everyone can achieve better learning outcomes, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills (UNESCO 1999 cited in Derebssa, 2006).

The poor quality of schools invariably places a limit on their efficiency and thus on their capacity to attract and to retain children for the complete cycle of primary education (Lockheed and Versepoor, 1991). World Bank (1997) also states improving quality also makes the flow of students more efficient. Thus, improving quality of education is one of the most important to retain children in school.

Apart from the quality of education, the educational planner is pre-occupied with reducing costs. The teaching staff, the construction and maintenance of buildings, and the provision of educational materials and technology cost a lot whereas the resources available for education are limited. Hence, they must be put to the best use possible.

Depending on the intended objectives, there could be a number of indicators, which relate to staff, buildings, and equipment and materials, used to measure the quality of education relating to the inputs, the process and the results of the education system.

2.7. School Mapping and Micro Planning Experiences from other

Countries

According to Itaaga, African countries are often claimed not to have an indigenous system of educational planning until it was institutionalized in 1960s and 1970s (1998). Chinapah (1995) also confirms to this claim by stating that the development of educational planning in Africa was greatly inspired by the achievements and progress made in other parts of the world mainly with regard to its organizational structures, functions, techniques and

innovations. Over the years, therefore, many conventional micro-level educational planning strategies have given way to more micro-oriented ones, as evidenced through the importance being attached to the school mapping and micro planning (IIEP, 1983). Hence, most of the models are developed in the west and exported to Africa (Itaaga, 1998). Accordingly, Ethiopia has also borrowed the SM and MP Project experiences from some African and non-African countries and states in which successes were quantitatively evidenced in terms of at least about 100% GER. The visited countries were also of the same geographical background and facing problems of access to education and transition from primary to secondary schools (OEB/JICA, 2006). Hence, the school mapping experiences of Namibia, Nigeria, Kenya and South Africa laid basis for the SM and MP project in Ethiopia (OEB/JICA, 2006).

Namibia. A key application of SM in Namibia was the creation of ‘School Clusters’ as many schools work in relative isolation, far from other schools and are seldom visited by inspectors. The cluster system was initially created to improve access and flow of pupils through the school grades. The emphasis later changed to using clusters to improve school management, especially by enhancing communication between schools, and then on to circuits and regional offices. Recently, many activities in clusters have focused on improving the quality of teaching and learning.

Nigeria. In Nigeria, there were projects, such as The Literacy Enhancement Assistance Project (LEAP) which assisted with the identification and capture of all school location in Nasarawa state. The data collected during the project enabled the local education planners to locate their schools and visualize the distribution of education facilities and later for school prioritization and upgrade by taking into consideration the disparities between schools in terms of facilities and other problem areas like pupil-teacher ratio. The focus was early at

displaying and comparing schools geographically but later shifted to grouping schools into clusters and development of detailed local 'school map' for district planning.

Kenya. The recognition of issues like regional disparities, equitable resource allocation, access to social amenities and education 'problem areas' promoted Kenyans to embark on an ambitious school mapping that exercise. It was felt that "SM, with its ability to visually display quantitative education data, could enhance understanding of education problems and provide scenarios for their solution" (OEB/JICA, 2006: Appendix II). In this sense, it was implemented in Kenya in its pursuit of UPE and EFA. The goal of undertaking the process was 'to establish a reliable GIS database for effective educational planning and appropriate decision making (Republic of Kenya, 2005).

This was soon led to SM applications such as producing digitalized maps of education institutions at various levels, monitoring progress and achievements with UPE and EFA, policy development and targeted intervention programs.

South Africa. It was since 1996 that SM was started in South Africa with the aim to establish the positions of all school-level institutions and create GIS, among others. Having carried out the School Register of Needs Information to the optimal use and placement of facilities, the address of backlogs, the establishment of equality access and the optimal use of very expensive human and capital resources, a wide range of SM applications, from national to district level, were made. A major program of school building, namely The National School Building Program, was informed by the use and analysis of the data. The data was also used at the micro level to prioritize the specific schools that could be recipients of a school upgrading program. Meanwhile, the prioritization of areas of new school construction employed the same data too.

Generally, the experiences of other African countries contributed a lot to the development of SM and MP projects in Ethiopia. Different from these experience-lending countries, however, the SM and MP project in Ethiopia run expanding access and promoting quality at the same time.

2.8. History of Implementation of SM and MP in Ethiopia: An Overview

In Ethiopia, implementation of school mapping and micro planning is a recent activity. It was exercised in the country as a strategy to attain the EFA educational goals through decentralized and participatory planning at the micro-level.

It was by the BESO I project that SM and MP were first introduced into the country's education system (OEB/JICA, 2006). BESO I project (funded by USAID) developed GIS data for SM from 1996 to 1998. The SM exercise under this project covered only two regions: Tigray and SNNPR. Later on, with in ManaBU project, a woreda- level and a kebele-level school mapping GIS data base were developed in Oromia Regional State (Ibid, p. 43).

The ManaBU project dealt with administrative boundaries of Kebele, but the BESO I project covered much wider geographic areas. Moreover, the SM project exercised by BESO I was the first attempt to introduce SM GIS in Ethiopia. Relatively high-technique for planning was first introduced to education sector in the country through the exercise.

In terms of SM, it was during the first year of BESO II Project that an improvement of the woreda capacity building program was introduced to strengthen the capacity of regional education bureau trainers in preparation for further developing capacity of woreda education officers. Through this exercise, about 573 woredas were given an opportunity to develop

long term education plans and investments required for up to 15 years though the Project did not follow up its implementation (OEB/JICA, 2006).

In order to conduct MP at the woreda level, the ManaBU Project was embarked on in Oromia Regional State. Carrying out consecutive trainings of some officers and producing guidelines for micro-planning in ManaBU schools, a micro-level planning was exercised. However, certain critical hindering factors such as a high turnover of woreda officers were yet challenged the process.

More recently, the exercise of SM and MP has been introduced into other regional states in the country. Even though it has been hardly possible to get evidences on when and to what extent the project has been implemented in the other regions, Amahara Regional State, for instance, has implemented the project as the training material of this region was claimed to be adopted to SNNPR while the project, with its current form and purposes (SNNPR, 2000).

Irrespective of the time disparities of introduction of the project, however, the project has had a common goal, i.e. increasing access to quality basic education through developing SM and MP (OEB/JICA, 2006; SNNPR, 2000; Amahara Regional State Education Bureau, 2006?). In SNNPR, the project planning focused more on achieving UPE by 2015 in particular. Overview of the project's planning and implementation in SNNPR is described below.

2.9. School Mapping and Micro Planning Exercise in SNNPR

As noted earlier, SNNPR was one of the regions in Ethiopia in which the SM and MP project was first tried out by BESO I in between 1996 to 1998 for the purpose of, among

others, identifying school locations that existed during the project period, and serving as a tool for decision making on location of new schools (OEB/JICA, 2006).

Later on, the SM and MP project was developed and implemented again in its current form for a bit different purpose since 2006/07 in the region. The project planning mainly aimed at attaining one of the MD education goals (attaining UPE) which the region claims “to achieve by (or before) 2015 (2008 E.C)” (SNNPR, 2007/08:1). As the project planning was designed on basis of the region’s decentralized education plan with the participation of all concerned bodies in the region’s education sector, it was hoped to assist the planners in the REB in preparing the Education Sector Development Plan and monitoring its implementation with the development of their capacity along with the technical and counseling services to be rendered to the education management practitioners at the woreda and kebele levels. In order to attain this purpose, successive trainings were conducted at the region, zone and woreda levels with the involvement of selected stake holders from each level since 2007/08.

Having participated in the training on SM and MP, the stakeholders, at the lowest administrative level, i.e. kebele, jointly with the experts in the WEO, made an assessment to their kebele’s education system by using the tools designed for that purpose, projected their kebele’s education development for the following 3 years, and, based on these projections, a woreda level UPE plan was prepared.

The rationale of the project planning in the region was to achieve UPE in the region through participatory planning at the micro level. Hence, after completion of the training with in about 4 months’ time, actual implementation of the project was declared by using the 2007/08 education data as a base.

Like all other zones and special woredas in the region, Wolayta zone is the one in which the SM and MP Project was implemented so as to attain UPE by or before 2015. At the lower level, i.e., woreda, successive trainings and write shops were imparted for the school principals, Parent-Teacher-Association (PTA) and Kebele Education and Training Management Board (KETMB) chairpersons in February, 2007/08. As soon as the trainees turned back from the training, they carried out the kebele education system diagnosis so as to prepare 3-years-UPE plan of their administrative administration areas. Evaluating and fixing the plans of each kebels, a UPE plan covering the years 2008/09-2010/11 was prepared in each woreda and town administration in the zone. Actual implementation of the project plan was started in 2008/09. In all 3 town administrations and 12 rural woreds, 2007/08 was taken as a base line year for the UPE Project Plan.

Perhaps, the overarching strategic goal of primary education for SNNPR is the achievement of UPE by 2015. Based on an operational definition of UPE developed for Ethiopia, a fifteen-year perspective plan for primary education was developed in the region's education bureau since the BESO projects. With close participation of the zones and woredas, key policy-issues and strategies were developed in the region on basis of the fifteen-year perspective plan to achieve UPE. The key-policy issues and strategies include (1) focusing on increasing NIR; (2) promotion of ABE to improve access to school (3) reduction of dropout rate, especially for grade; (4) improvement in repetition and continuous assessment; (5) achieving gender and geographical equity; (6) improving access to school through reducing the distance between school and community; (7) promotion of low cost construction of schools; (8) promotion of decentralization, community participation, and financing of education; (9) changing from double shift to single shift, (10) strengthening of teacher training in collaboration with the private sector; and, (11) reduction of student-section, student-teacher, and student-text book ratios (SNNPR, 2007/08:24).

Taking these into consideration, among others, the SM and MP Project was assumed to materialize certain goals of education development plans as a sister-plan and complement of ESDP in the region. Further, realization of these goals is hoped to foster the education sector development in general and on-time-attainment of UPE and MD education goals.

An attempt to actualize such strategic goals, however, demands an appropriate linkage of the planning process between the region and the woredas. Even though the ESDP development process has been providing opportunities to link the regional level for a long time, except the annual education conferences in which all woredas participate. Yet, the agenda of such meetings was far general to meet the needs of an annual participatory planning exercise (OEB/JICA, 2006). In order to fill such gaps by means of participatory planning, and attain UPE, a plan which is relevant to the geographical, socio-economical, cultural, and demographic conditions of all kebeles and woredas is called for. SM and MP has been found as a key tool for this purpose in the region (SNNPR, 2007/08). So a strengthened micro-planning is used as an ultimate output of the project, and all other outputs such as enhanced EMIS, school mapping, and other planning tools that are in existence or to be developed are immediate inputs to be employed to strengthen micro-planning to achieve greater access to primary education with quality and equity.

Meanwhile, educational department of Wolayta zone has adapted the region's education sector key policy-issues and strategies. The zone's education department has taken its share of the region's 2008/09-2010/11 education plan, and incorporated in the SM and MP project. Consequently, implementation of the SM and MP project was officially announced in all 3 city administrations and 12 rural woredas with particular focus on promoting access, equity, efficiency and quality of primary education in 2007/08 (Wolayta Zone, 2007/08). In the same time, developing capacity of the administrators in the education sector, among

others, was incorporated in the project plan. Using the education indicators as tools that provide information on the performance of the education system, four focal points of the SM and MP Project were outlined in the project plan of the zone.

Chapter Three

3. Research Methodology

3.1. Study Area

Wolayta is one of the thirteen zones in Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples' Regional State (SNNPRS). It is located at about 330 Kms south west of Addis Ababa, and 160 km from Hawassa, the southern regional state's capital.

With a total area of 4,471.3 km², Wolayta is inhabited by over 1.9 million people. According to the SNNPR Regional Statistical Abstract 2007, the average population density of Wolayta is over 428.2 people per square kilo meter, making it one of the most densely populated areas in the country. Further, based on the data gathered by WoDA in 2010 the population size and structure, the current total population of the zone is 1,906,244 of which 795,950 are children aged 0-14years.

The major economic activities in the zone are agriculture and livestock rearing. Around 92% populations living in rural areas were engaged in subsistence farming.

As per statistical data from the region's annual abstract of 2010/11, the students enrolment in primary schools is 399,741(male=212,830; female= 18,911), with total average annual growth rate of 3.8%. With regard to schools, there are 428 primary schools, of which 50.9% are full cycle.

3.2. The Study Design

A quantitative research design was primarily utilized in this study. The rationale behind using this design was that the study aimed at gathering facts and figures that provide descriptive information on the achievements and challenges of implementing the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project, and making diagnostic investigation of primary education in the study area. Hence, as gathering such statistical data to indicate what was happening in the past, what the present situation reveals, and, further, what will take place in the future, was primary task of the study, the quantitative research design was used. However, qualitative data were also used in the course of the study and hence the design was somehow mixed.

3.3. Samples and Sampling Procedures

Data sources of this study were the planners and administrators of education organizations in woreda/town administration education offices and primary schools. Hence, samples were taken from officials and experts in the woreda/town administration education offices (along with the zone education department head), primary school principals, Kebele/Municipality Education and Training Management Board (KETMB) and Parent-Teacher-Association (PTA) chairpersons on the basis of their position and share of responsibility in administration of education organizations in their respective administrative areas.

The sampling techniques adopted for this purpose were stratified, random, quota and purposive. Employing these techniques in combination, the sample woredas/town administrations were first selected by means of stratified sampling. To this effect, out of the 12 rural woredas and 3 town administrations in the zone, 5, i.e. 3 from the rural woredas

stratum and 2 from the town administrations stratum, were selected randomly by dividing the administrative areas into woredas and town administrations. This was done to see whether disparities existed between these administrative areas in terms of primary education development during implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project. Then, in terms of schools, 30 (10 from first and 20 from the second cycle) out of 115 primary schools in the sample woredas/town administrations (with 25% quota for each cycle) were taken randomly assuming that the woredas/town administration had somewhat similar characteristics in number of schools, rural/urban differences and socio-economic conditions.

With regard to the head of zone education department, woredas/town administration education office officers, planning experts in the woredas/town administrations, primary school principals, and KETMB and PTA representatives, the selection techniques primarily took into consideration the sample primary schools by level. As a result, the zone education department head, 5 officers of the sample woredas/town administrations, 30 principals of the sample schools, and 5 head planning experts of the Education Development Planning, Performance and Evaluation Core Processes of the woreda/town administration education offices were purposively involved in providing data for this study. Meanwhile, each of 30 chairpersons of the kebeles/municipalities, who were also the KETMB heads and the leaders of PTA directly took part in the study. In this way, the total number of participants in this research study summed to 101.

3.4. Methods and Instruments of Data Collection

Data used for this research study were both primary and secondary. Primary data were collected from the zone education department head, officers and planning experts in the woreda/town administration education offices and the school administrators (principals, KETMB and PTA chairpersons) at the individual school levels by employing questionnaires and interviews. Hence, questionnaires which were composed of both close and open-ended questions were first distributed among the school principals, KETMB and PTA representatives. Meanwhile, the planning experts in the woreda/town administration education offices were administered questionnaires.

Secondary data comprised the statistical figures fetched from the Education Annual Abstracts of SNNPR Education Bureau of years 2007/08, 2008/09, 2009/10 and 2010/11, and education-related statistics, reports and other documents from woreda/town administration education office through a separate format prepared in advance.

Eventually, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the zone education department head and officers of the sample woredas/town administration education offices to learn their views and experiences on the project plan. Generally, questionnaires, interviews, and document analysis formats were used while collecting data for this study. All instruments were employed by the researcher himself following the principles and procedures of data collection. Validity and reliability of the instruments was cross-checked by computing their indexes.

3.5. Techniques of Data Analysis

Since a descriptive survey approach was employed in this study, the quantitative and qualitative data gathered from all pre-identified sources by means of the preferred tools were organized and analyzed systematically so as to present the data descriptively. Hence, the quantitative data were analyzed by using descriptive statistical tools which measure education development indicators. So, number and percent were the instruments used to measure the selected variables (intake and enrolment rates, Gender Parity Index (GPI), Gender Gap (GG), dropout and repetition rates, pupil-teacher, pupil-section and pupil-textbook ratios, school catchment area, Representation Index (RI) depending on the nature of the research study's basic questions and the data collected. Further, status of primary education in the sample woredas/town administrations was compared against 2007/08 baseline data where needed.

The result was visualized by using tables and graphs. Meanwhile, the qualitative data gathered by interviews were categorized and analyzed according to patterns and themes, and then interwoven into the quantitative data so as to see the overall picture of achievements and challenges of implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project in terms of UPE.

Chapter Four

4. Data Analysis and Presentation of Findings

In this chapter, achievements, challenges and prospects of implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project in terms of fostering access of quality primary education to school age children in the study area was investigated. Meanwhile, capacity and skill of the planners and administrators of education organizations at the grassroots levels (i.e. rural districts/town administrations and primary schools) were assessed on the basis of the effects of their meaningful participation in planning and administration of primary education. This was done in order to achieve the intended goals of the project as well as contribute for achievements of their respective administrative areas plan of universalizing primary education. Analysis of the data on achievements of implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project was done based on certain selected indicators of measuring the education development. Besides, the educational planning and administration personnel's capacity was assessed based on their current status in order to set forth the prospects of micro planning at the lower levels of administration.

The chapter has two parts. In the first part, statistical data collected from various relevant documents on primary education access, equity, efficiency and quality trends were analyzed and fixed into meaningful units by means of the interview results. In the second part, the data obtained from sample participants through questionnaires were analyzed in such a way that the challenges of implementing School Mapping and Micro planning Project could be highlighted so as to put forward working suggestions.

4.1. Achievements of Implementing the School Mapping and Micro

Planning Project

4.1.1. Successes and Drawbacks of Implementation: Trends and Status of

Primary Education Access, Equity, Efficiency, and Quality

Achievements and challenges of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project were analyzed on the basis of access, equity, efficiency, and quality indicators of the education system in the years 2007/08 to 2010/11.

4.1.1.1. Coverage of Primary Education: Intake and Enrolment Rates

Analysis of coverage of the education system at the local level involves assessment of access, enrollment and accessibility of the education system (Scheerens and Bosker, 1997). In terms of this, what groups, with regard to sex, and living area (rural or urban), are served well or disadvantaged by the education system calls to be investigated. For this purpose, grade 1 intake rate and general primary enrolment rates were distinguished in this study.

Intake Rates

Coverage, as it is indicated by the number of new entrants to first grade of primary education to the corresponding population of school, was first considered during the study by measuring admission rate of pupils enrolled in grade one. Two indicators, namely Apparent Intake Rate (AIR) and Net Intake Rate (NIR), were used to measure the magnitude of children coming to grade 1 in each of the sample woreda/town administration in the years under consideration.

Apparent Intake Rate (AIR) is the total number of new entrants in the first grade of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population at the official

primary school-entrance age (age 7 for Ethiopia). The new entry group includes repeaters whom one has to deduct for analysis. This rate tends to overestimate the real entry rate due to a backlog of over-aged children who did not begin school when they were at the official primary school-entrance age, and, in some cases, it can exceed 100% (SNNPR, 2007/08). Net Intake Rate (NIR), on the other hand, gives a better picture of access than the apparent intake rate when we give consideration for the right entrance age of school age children, i.e. age 7 in the context of Ethiopia. This helps us to evaluate whether children start schooling at their right age or there is backlog of over aged children.

For the study area as a whole, the number of entrants to the first grade of primary education (excluding the repeaters) has shown inflations irrespective of the rural districts and town administrations or sex in the years of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project (2007/08-2010/11).

Table 4.1: Intake rates in grade 1 by woredas and town administrations, 2007/08-2010/11

Year	IR	Woredas and Town Administrations														
		Sodo Town Administration			Areka Town Administration			Damot Woyde			Boloso Bombe			Damot Pullasa		
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
2007/08	AIR	76.3	72.7	74.2	60.5	47.6	54.1	63.3	58.9	61.1	77.4	70.4	73.9	93.6	78.5	86.0
	NIR	40.6	40.3	40.4	16.4	30.4	23.4	40.7	44.3	42.5	35.1	33.7	34.4	55.2	47.0	51.1
2008/09	AIR	84.6	72.4	78.0	56.4	51.6	54.1	72.3	58.8	63.6	75.1	73.8	74.5	92.5	88.8	90.6
	NIR	43.3	46.0	44.8	17.4	27.6	22.2	46.0	38.4	42.3	39.4	34.1	36.8	61.3	49.7	55.4
2009/10	AIR	57.5	72.0	64.6	68.2	71.5	69.8	49.8	50.0	49.9	60.1	59.4	59.8	121.0	111.4	114.9
	NIR	32.2	37.9	35.0	20.1	25.3	22.7	22.9	21.6	22.2	28.4	25.5	26.9	67.6	61.9	64.1
2010/11	AIR	58.7	64.1	61.3	74.2	83.3	78.7	74.8	66.1	70.5	69.3	62.3	65.8	151.8	116.6	134.4
	NIR	18.9	19.3	19.1	62.1	63.1	62.6	40.7	39.1	39.9	30.0	34.3	36.7	90.1	70.6	80.4

Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

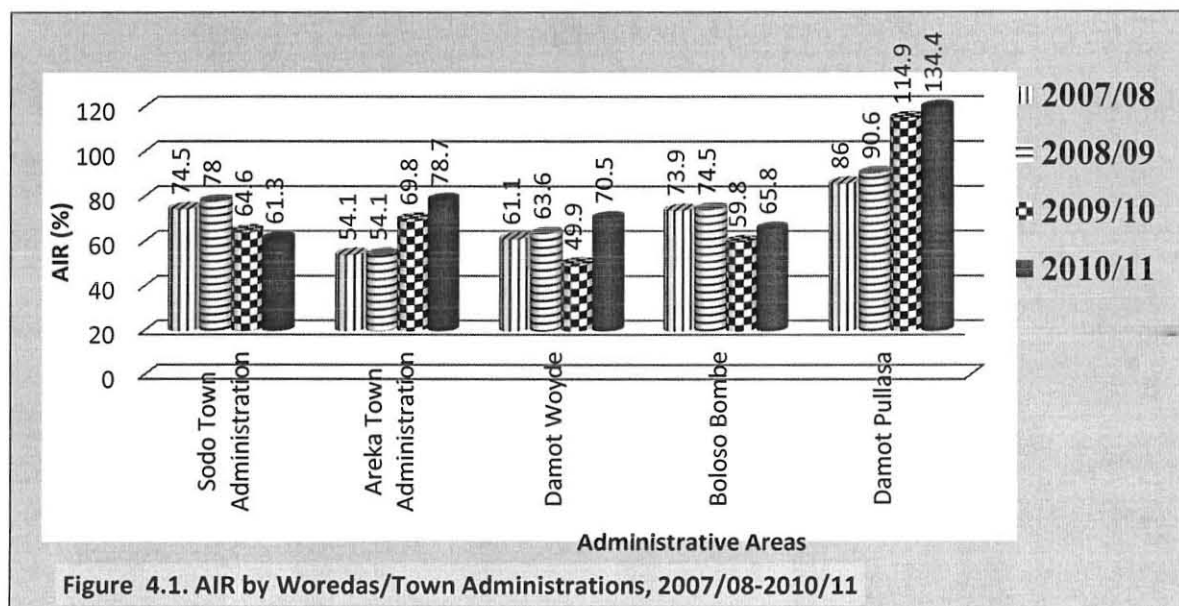
The total AIR of the sample woredas and town administrations increased from year to year except in Sodo Town Administration and Boloso Bombe Woreda. The remarkable decrease

by 13.2 percentage point has been recorded in Sodo Town Administration, i.e. from 74.2 percentage point in 2007/08 to 61.3 percentage point in 2010/11. This was followed by Boloso Bombe (8.1 percentage point decrease), in which the rate was fallen from 73.9 percentage point in 2007/08 to 65.8 percentage point in 2010/11. On the other hand, the highest AIR (48.4 percentage point increment) was observed in Damot Pullasa, from 86 percentage point in 2007/08 to 134 percentage point in 2010/11. Areka Town Administration came second with 24.6 percentage point increment in the same times.

The highest AIR in Damot Pullasa (134 percentage point) in 2010/11 implies the entry rate is over-estimated in this woreda due to a backlog of over-aged children who did not begin school when they were at the official primary school-entrance age while the decrease in the AIR of the woredas depicted might be the increased desire of parents to send their children to school at the required age that the number of over-aged children went on decreasing from year to year, thus resulting in lower apparent participation rate. This can, however, be justified on condition that parallel increase was recorded in NIR in these woredas. With regard to this, the NIR of Sodo Town Administration and Boloso Bombe in which the AIR was decreased, NIR decreased in between the years 2007/08 and 2008/09 than the years 2009/10 and 2010/11 (Table 4.1 and Figure 4.2).

Close analysis of the administrative areas in which the AIR increased through time on the other hand showed that the NIR was also increased by 29.3 percentage point and 39.2 percentage point in Damot Pullasa and Areka Town Administration in order from the year 2007/08 to 2010/11 (though the case of Areka Town Administration was better in the earlier two years). Hence, the scenario implies, firstly, few woredas have been successful (increment of 4.4 percentage point and 2.4 percentage point in NIR of Sodo Town administration and Boloso Bombe respectively) in bringing children to grade one at the right age in the earlier years of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Projects'.

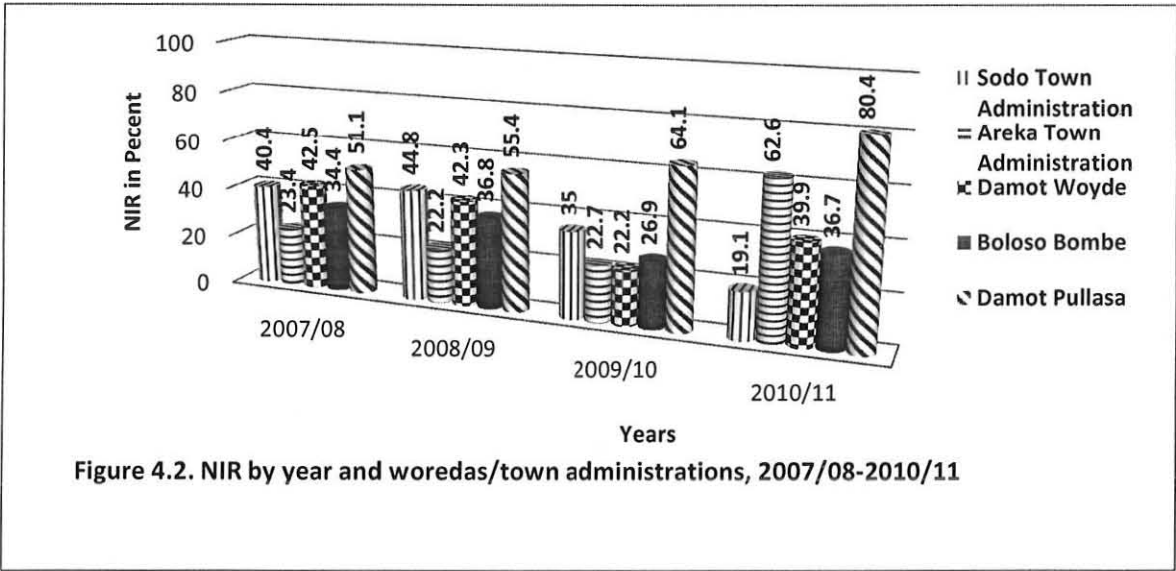
implementation, but the pace was not kept up. Secondly, comparative analysis of AIR and NIR shows that the data on decrease of AIR cannot be justified as the trend also shows the NIR is yet decreased (Sodo town Administration and Boloso Bombe). This might be due to the exercise of the education information management problem and hence calls for justification through another research apart from the planners and administrators capacity to be assessed in this research.



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

With regard to sex, the AIR increased more sharply in the rural woredas than in the town administrations (due to high population in these areas). The highest AIR increment (58.2 percentage point for male and 38.1 percentage point for female) was recorded in Damot Pullasa while it was 13.7 percentage point for male and 35.7 percentage point for female in Areka Town Administration. Like the AIR, comparison of NIR trends also showed growth in the same direction. Nevertheless, none of these woredas and town administrations could reach the regional average (154.2 percentage point, i.e. 162.7 percentage point for boys and 145.6 percentage point for girls) or the national one (i.e. 159.1 percentage point to 167.1 percentage point for boys and 150.8 percentage point for girls).

Data collected on number of age 7 students in grade 1 over the last four years period (2007/08-2010/11) showed that participation had varying trends in between 2007/08 and 2010/11. While NIR increased from the base year 2007/08 to years 2010/11, it exhibited downturn in the next year (2009/10). However, the NIR started to grow again in 2010/11 (Table 4.1 and Figure 4.2). Both ways, when compared to the target set for 2010/11, i.e 96 percentage point, all woredas and town administrations lagged behind to a great extent. Generally, when the AIR and NIR were compared, obviously the NIR was much lower irrespective of the administrative areas. This was because the number of over-aged children in grade one outnumbered the number of 7- year- olds though the policy did not limit the grade one entrance age only to 7.



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

Interviews at the woreda and town administration levels revealed that AIR increased through time and now better comparison to the regional data. Education department head of the zone also said, “Emphasis rendered for ABE centers and kindergarten schools

contributed a lot particularly for grade 1 intake.” In spite of these responses, analysis of statistical data uncovered the increase in intake rate was not uniform across the administrative areas.

Enrolment Rate

Enrolment rate is another indicator of coverage of an education system. It is often used to estimate the quantitative level of development of the education system under consideration as it enables one to get a direct and quick idea of enrolment with an easy comparison (SNNPR, 2010/11). Since differences exist between pupils’ actual age and the official ages fixed for each education level, the gross and net enrolment rates are commonly distinguished and used in this study.

Gross enrolment ratio is widely used to show the general level of participation in a given level of education. It indicates the capacity of the education system to enroll students of a particular age-group. The ratio relates enrolment to the population eligible to participate in education and it is used to assess how far the education system has succeeded in bringing to school all those who have the right to attend.

Primary (grade 1-8) GER of the study woredas and town administrations generally increased steadily during the implementation period of School Mapping and Micro planning Project (Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2).

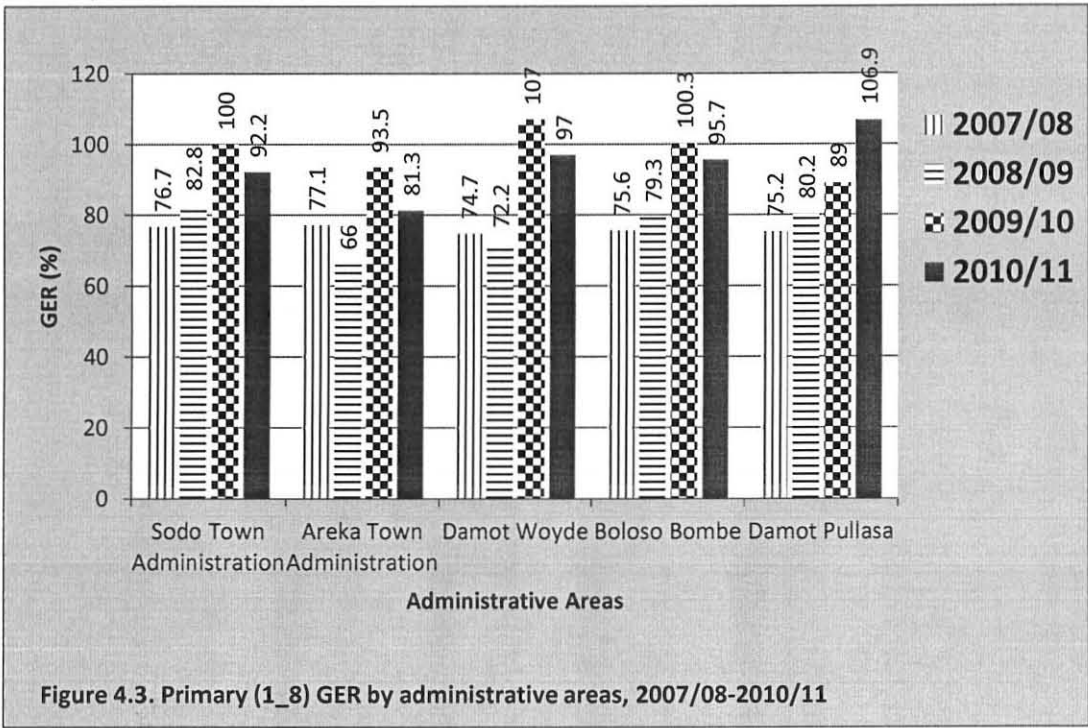
Table 4.2: GER trend and gender gap in woredas and town administrations by year,
2007/08-2010/11

Year GER, NER & GG		Woreda/Town Administration														
		Sodo Town Administration			Areka Town Administration			Damot Woyde			Boloso Bombe			Damot Pullasa		
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
2007/08	GER	83.8	70.5	76.7	81.7	72.5	77.1	86.4	61	74.7	79.4	72.1	75.6	75.7	74.7	75.2
	NER	73.7	66.9	70.1	62.3	69.7	66.0	65.6	70.4	67.8	76.0	61.6	68.4	62.5	60.6	61.6
	GG	13.3			9.2			25.4			7.3			1.0		
2008/09	GER	83.2	82.5	82.8	95.7	82.8	88.2	84.5	68.2	72.2	83.4	74.9	79.3	82.2	77.8	80.2
	NER	74.7	73.9	74.3	78.7	82.7	79.5	62.3	69.4	65.5	67.6	66.8	67.3	61.6	71.2	66.0
	GG	0.7			12.9			16.3			8.5			4.4		
2009/10	GER	96.8	103.1	100.0	94.7	92.3	93.5	119.0	96.8	107.0	107.7	93.0	100.3	92.9	85.0	89.0
	NER	93.9	80.0	86.8	91.8	84.7	88.2	111.1	80.0	94.1	102.2	80.9	91.5	87.4	73.0	80.3
	GG	-6.6			2.4			22.2			14.7			7.9		
2010/11	GER	86.7	98.1	92.2	86.0	77.2	81.3	91.8	103.4	97.0	96.7	94.6	95.7	115.2	98.5	106.9
	NER	79.1	96.7	87.5	70.9	73.1	72.1	76.0	85.8	80.4	82.3	95.7	88.5	87.7	92.7	90.2
	GG	-11.4			8.8			-11.6			2.1			16.7		

Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

The Statistics disaggregated by administrative areas showed that the education system in the study units succeeded in bringing more and more children (irrespective of age) to primary schools in the last four years. Except Areka Town Administration, therefore, all administrative areas nearly achieved their targets in 2010/11. The rate of enrolment reached climax in 2009/10 in all units with the largest in Areka Town Administration and the smallest in Boloso Bombe (107 percentage point and 93.5 percentage point in order). Between the years 2007/08 and 2010/11, primary participation rate increased by 32.3 percentage point (32.6 percentage point for boys and 35.8 percentage point for girls) in Damot Woyde and the smallest was in Damot Pullasa (13.8 percentage point, i.e. 17.2 percentage point for boys and 10.3 percentage point for girls). In 2010/11, regional GER was 103.3 percentage point (110 percentage point and 96.5 percentage point for boys and girls respectively) while nationally it was 96.4 percentage point (99.5 percentage point for

boys and 93.2 percentage point for girls). This showed the zone had better achievements in terms of this.



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

In terms of sex, male primary participation rate increased by 32.6 percentage point and 28.3 percentage point in order in Damot Woyde and Boloso Bombe while it was lower in the two town administrations (13 percentage point in both Sodo and Areka Town Administrations) between 2007/08 and 2010/11(Table 4.2). The scenario was the same for female in the rural woredas (32.6 percentage point and 35.8 percentage point in the same rural woredas respectively). Nevertheless, female primary participation rate grew up by 32.6 percentage point (more than twice the rate of their male counterparts) in Sodo Town Administration during the project’s implementation period. The smallest female participation rate was recorded in Damot Pullasa (10.3 percentage point).

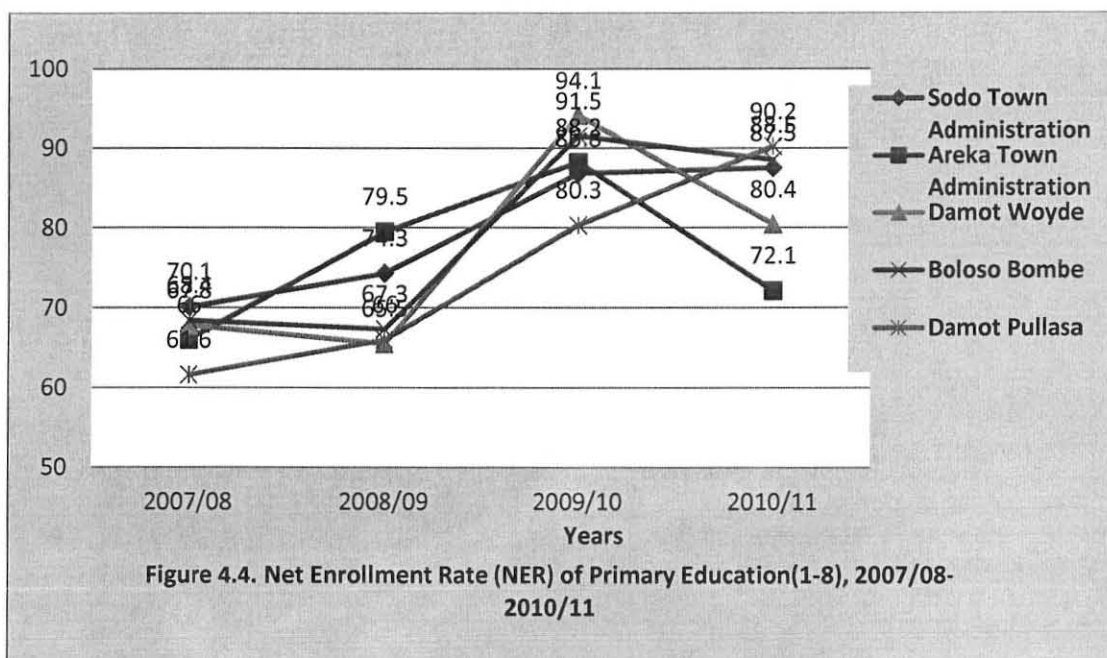
Generally, primary Gross Enrolment Rate was increased in all administrative areas but it has turned down in 2010/11. Besides, female GER has yet been below the male GER in the rural

districts. Hence, disparity is observed between the rural districts and town administrations in bringing female children to primary schools. This was due to the farther home-school distance in rural areas (Figure 4.6). “Though more emphasis was given for upgrading of existing schools, full-primary schools still serve much large number of school age children. While there are two and more first-cycle primary schools in some kebeles, there are still kebeles which lack second-cycle grades.” as the zone education department head reported.

Net Enrollment Rate

Net Enrollment Rate is a more refined measure of education coverage when compared to Gross Enrollment Rate as it ignores under and over-aged pupils from its calculation. For primary school level, “it is the percentage of students enrolled at age range of 7 out of the total population of age 7-14 in a given locality and year” (SNNPR, 2011:286).

Net Enrollment Rate (NER) of primary education in the study areas oscillated up and down in the years 2007/08-2010/11. Table 4.2 and Figure 4.4 show the last trend of NER of primary education for the woredas and town administrations under consideration.



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

Both the rural woredas and town administrations were able to increase primary net enrolment rate in the years under consideration. In between the years 2007/08 and 2010/11, the highest NER (28.6 percentage point) was recorded in Damot Pullasa and it was followed by Boloso Bombe (20.1 percentage point). The smallest NER (6.1 percentage point) was in Areka Town Administration (Figure 4.4). The target of NER for 2010/11 was 88 in the zone, and the status was 92.3 percentage point (97.4% for boys and 87.2% for girls) in the region. Nationally, it was 85.3 percentage point, i.e. 87% and 83.5% for boys and girls respectively. Hence, the zone was in relatively better position in terms of NER.

The data disaggregated by sex (Table 4.2) also showed male NER were higher (25.2 percentage point) in Damot Pullasa and Damot Woyde (10.4 percentage point) than the other administrative areas, but female NER revealed better increment in Boloso Bombe (34.1 percentage point) and in Damot Pullasa (32.1 percentage point). Meanwhile, the least female NER was in Areka Town Administration (22.2 percentage point), followed by Sodo Town Administration (16.7 percentage point).

To sum up, like the intake rate trend of grade 1, succession in increasing the NER was not accompanied by avoiding gaps between the rural and town administrative areas. In addition, the increment or decrease in GER observed among the administrative areas (Figure 4.3) has not gone in line with the NER trend.

Provision of Opportunities to Primary Education

Other things being equal, access depends on availability of schools, and, hence, supplying more and more schools (apart from establishing new schools or upgrading the existing ones) is the first logical step in increasing the distribution of education opportunities within the reach of all children (World Bank, 1997:67). The administrative areas micro level planning also distinguished this as a main component by giving the largest share to community participation. Due to this, the extent to which primary schools were provided (by involving local community in the process) to the school age children in the study areas was investigated. The statistical data collected about the endeavors made to provide schooling opportunity was summarized in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: Changes in the number of primary schools in administration areas by cycle,
2007/08-2010/11

Year	Woredas/Town Administrations														
	Sodo Town Administration			Areka Town Administration.			Damot Woyde			Boloso Bombe			Damot Pullasa		
	1-4	1-8	T	1-4	1-8	T	1-4	1-8	T	1-4	1-8	T	1-4	1-8	T
2007/08	5	9	14	4	7	11	12	16	28	5	15	20	5	17	22
2008/09	6	9	15	6	7	13	11	17	28	6	15	21	9	17	26
2009/10	12	16	28	1	6	7	15	17	32	9	13	22	9	15	24
2010/11	10	19	29	1	6	7	13	19	32	8	15	23	7	17	24
AAGR (%) ¹	0.3			-0.1			0.04			0.04			0.03		

Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

¹calculated by the researcher

Note: 1-4 and 1-8 schools consist one or all grades in the range

Table 4.3 illustrates that the number of primary schools has grown much slowly in all woredas at an average growth rate of less than 1 percentage point. Even though the participants in questionnaire and interview reported that there were governmental and non-governmental organizations as well as local associations who participated in investing on education apart from the government and community participation, the number of primary schools in general and first cycle primary education in particular did not grow as expected. Some of the schools opened between the years 2007/08 and 2009/10 were closed and left for other purposes to serve (Areka Town Administration). As confirmed by all participants, little school growth rate was firstly due to shortage of community participation (perhaps, this confirms to the data on Table 4.4 below). Furthermore, the head of zone education department as well as WEO officers pointed out all other non-government bodies focused on pre-primary education and decrease in enrolment rate along with shortage of other resources bottlenecked the goal. Intention of the community to make the schools more close to their residence later resulted in withdrawing participation to contribute for construction of additional primary schools in wider and populated kebeles in order to minimize the average distance students have to walk to and from school every day. Having recognized the importance of education, as some of the informants reported, few parents used to send their children to schools in urban areas as the schools thereby were well facilitated and better teachers, with close supervision of WEO, were teaching. As these parents were not willing to contribute much, both school construction and up grading left to the government.

The interview with the zone education department head revealed the following:

The opening of primary school took place in accordance to the principles of SM and MP Project. While it was attempted to open (either by constructing new schools or using the existing buildings) in each kebele in the earlier years of the project's implementation, it became unlikely to attain quality, and, hence, by reaching on consensus with the local community, some schools, particularly those holding grades below 3, were left as ABE centers and still others were merged. In addition, the under-utilized private schools were closed by the owners(Areka Town Administration).

Table 4.3 also showed that there were more full primary schools in each administrative area as attention was given for upgrading the existing school so that the children could receive full primary schooling at their place of residence. To sum up, slow school growth rate of primary schools (whatever the reasons might be) as put in the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project has constrained success of the woredas and town administrations in bringing more children to school (as showed by GER, among others). This is because, as stated by Caillods (1983), the extent to which all children could go to school depends on availability of the schools they need at nearby.

Data on financial issues of the woredas and town administrations shows that the money generated from the community decreased in all forms (in cash, labor, or material). Table 4.4 summarizes school finance generated from local community by administrative areas in the last four years.

Table 4.4: Money contributed by community to support primary schools by woredas and town administrations, 2007/08-2010/11

year	Woredas and Town Administrations				
	Sodo Town Administration	Areka Town Administration	Damot Woyde	Boloso Bombe	Damot Pullasa
2007/08 ¹	170,870.40	101,064.60	405,126.90	345,588.00	382,642.80
2008/09	281,754.00	198,170.00	692,097.55	573,536.40	701,900.00
2009/10	186,996.51	107,656.10	708,117.00	406,521.20	499,442.50
2010/11	145,328.20	45,618.25	258,590.25	209,713.00	304,786.70

Source: Wolayta Zone Administration Annual Reports of years, 2000, 2001, 2002 and 2003 E.C

¹ Financial plans of woredas/town administrations for the school year 2007/08 (base line)

The amount of money summarized on Table 4.4 included estimates of the money generated from community in the form of labor, material, cash, and money generated from other internal sources. It might not be the exact monetary value as the material and labor contributions were not measured by experts. However, the figure reveals some important

facts about community participation in supporting primary education costs which had direct impact on access and quality of primary education, among others. Firstly, the community participation encouragingly increased in between the years 2007/08 and 2008/09, with the highest (319,218.80 birr) in Damot Pullasa and the smallest (97,106.60) in Areka Town Administration. Starting to decrease in 2009/10, the amount became less than half of the earliest contribution (Areka Town Administration). In the other administrative areas as well, the school finance earned from local community got very small in 2010/11. Another implication of this figure was the community's sense of responsibility lost through time in the study areas. The interviews at both levels also confirmed to this. Hence, lack of the intended community participation, which both the financial information summarized in Table 4.4 and the result the questionnaire analysis revealed (Table 4.11), altogether with inadequacy of government budget bottlenecked during the implementation period of School Mapping and Micro Planning project.

4.1.1.2. Equity in Primary Education

One of the most important criteria of success in education is equity in opportunity and facility that is presented to society. Equity in success and access are two fundamental scales of equality of opportunity and facility in education. According to Tomul, "Equity in success reflects the qualitative aspect of opportunity while equity in access reflects quantitative aspects of opportunity equality" (Ferreira, Gignoux and Aran, 2010 in Tomul, 2011). Access to education is outlined with school enrollment rates. The issue of equality can also be seen in terms of disparities in participation rate with regard to geographical area or that of sex (Tegegn, 2002). In this study, therefore, gender equality and provision of facilities with regard to administrative areas (disparity among the woredas and town administrations) were assessed.

Gender Equity and Strategies Employed

One of the significant issues of education development is gender equality. An equal opportunity to learn is no less a human right than an equal entitlement to be in school. In developing countries, however, high level of inequality in access to education between men and women is an important threat to development. Since education of women is not only a basic human right, but it is also vital to accelerate human development and economic growth, it is indispensable to work hard to make sure that gender equality is secured in education, among other spares of life (Nandy, 2003).

Gender equality is often measured by using the common statistical tools named as Gender Parity Index (GPI), measured by the ratio between the female and male values for a given indicator (i.e. GER in my case), and Gender Gap (GG).

The trend of GPI and GG in the study areas in the last four years is shown in the Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Trends in primary (1-8) Gender Parity Index by administrative areas,
2007/08-2010/11

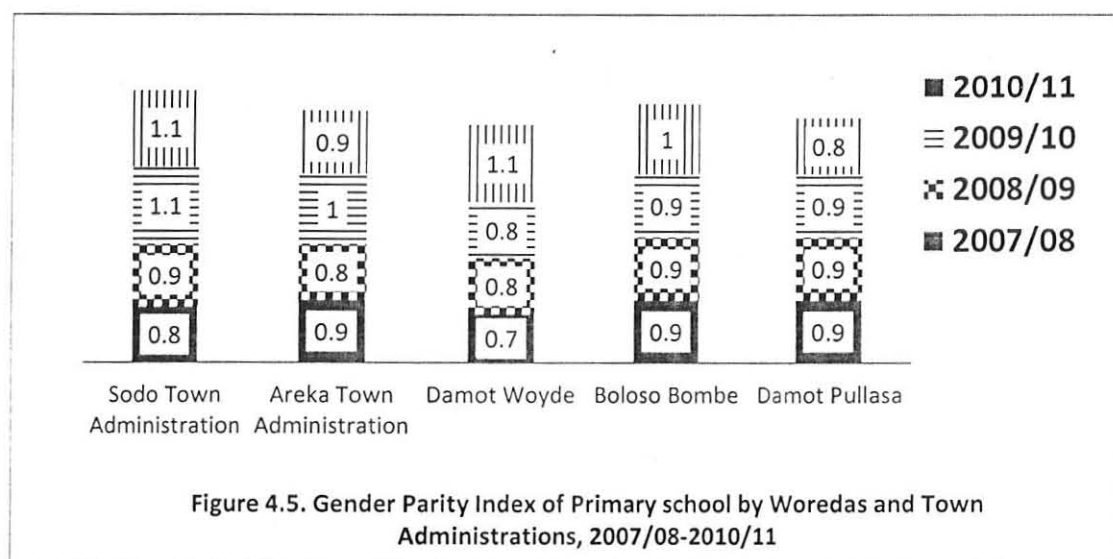
Woredas and Town Administrations	Years							
	2007/08 ¹		2008/09		2009/10		2010/11	
	GPI	GG	GPI	GG	GPI	GG	GPI	GG
Sodo Town Administration	0.8	8.3	0.9	0.7	1.1	-6.6	1.1	-11.4
Areka Town Administration	0.9	9.2	0.8	12.9	1.0	2.4	0.9	8.8
Damot Woyde	0.6	18.4	0.8	16.3	0.8	22.2	1.1	-11.6
Boloso Bombe	0.5	17.3	0.9	8.5	0.9	14.7	1.0	2.1
Damot Pullasa	0.6	12.0	0.9	4.4	0.9	7.9	0.8	16.7

Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

¹ Base line data used during the project's planning

In relation to access measures, GPI is an important indicator of balanced programs to boost enrolment and participation in education. When the base line data of GG and GPI were compared to the data of 2010/11 for which the GPI of 1 was the target, gender equality

improved in the study areas. The 2010/11 GPI which exceeded 1 in Sodo town Administration and Damot Woyde Woreda (Table 4.5 and Figure 4.5) implied more girls than boys were in primary schools in these areas. In these administrative areas, the Gender Gap (GG) was also -11.4 and -11.6 respectively. However, a GPI of 0.8 was recorded in Damot Pullasa after steady decrease of female primary education participation in the area in 2010/11. This indicated the female participation fell down by 20% in comparison to their male counter parts in this year. In Areka Town Administration as well, the index turned back to 0.9 after improvements in the years between 2007/08 and 2010/11. Apart from the successes with this regard, however, priority should be given to narrow the gap by bringing females to primary schools in the rural administrative areas, like Damot Pullasa as it was in the other areas. This was because both GG and GPI of these administrative areas were less than that of the region and national as well (0.88 and 13.5 regional; 0.94 national).



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2020/11, SNNPR

The encouraging changes revealed in increasing female participation rate and narrowing gender gap are due to the strategies effectively employed in the zone in general and in the respective administrative areas in particular. Perhaps, as a strategy to increase female

students' participation in the national level, recruiting more and more female teachers, among others, was recognized in the last few years at the national level in Ethiopia. More importantly, in areas where the schooling of girls meet with resistance from parents, the presence of women as teachers, managers, etc may contribute to overcome the resistance and so encourage their participation (Caron and Chau, 1980). This strategy was also suggested in the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project as an implementation direction. The interview with the head of zone education department identified this:

The zone was committed for implementation of such national policies (giving a 50% quota) while selecting for training and hiring female as affirmative action. As a result, the share of female teachers in primary schools increased in most of the study woredas from 2007/08 to 2010/11.

Having acknowledged that the attempt to increase female teaching force cannot be ascertained by the zone's or woreda's interest, the interviewees at both units added that provision of tutorial classes for female students and putting targets to tackle their dropout and repetition rates also contributed much in narrowing the gaps.

As challenges, the interviewees noted that more is left in terms of fostering women participation in management aspects. Diagnosis of the status of women participation in management areas at the lower levels, i.e. in school administration areas in woredas/town administrations and kebeles, as these are the nearest ones to the school children, implied the number is negligible. As Table 4.10 shows, neither the PTA nor KETB chairpersons, except 16.7% principals among the sample participants were women even if they have to send a representative during decision making. This by itself might have its own effect on planning to sustain female children in schools, according to the zone education department head.

Equity in Provision of Opportunity

In addition to gender, equity can also be seen in terms of provision of opportunity and utilization of these opportunities among the administrative areas. The various administrative

areas within a zone, among others, are assumed to distribute opportunities equally so that the lower tiers can utilize them efficiently.

Mere expansion of schools may not necessarily indicate accessibility and education growth. However, effort to increase supply must continue and coincide with creative approaches to expand access (Scheerens and Bosker, 1997). It may be due to this that the school mapping was employed in combination with micro planning in order to minimize the home-school distance factor which was found to significantly determine school attendance particularly for girls and rural children. Consequently, the way in which the principles of school mapping so as to increase access got a due consideration in this study. For this purpose, the hexagonal School Catchment Area is used for analysis. Besides, school representation index was used to closely measure equity in distribution of schools.

In deciding the location of schools, the need for and the place of the new school within overall network of school is the first consideration as the school should be constructed on the ground that there are learners whom the existing schools serve poorly or even not at all (Kuawab Business Consultants, 1998). On basis of this, therefore, the school catchment area refers to the administratively defined geographical area served by a school, that is, the area from which the school recruits its pupils (Forajalla, 1994). So, it is defined partly in relation to the location of the maximum acceptable distance a child can travel between home and school, the school size and the density of SAP. The school catchment area can be worked out by either in circular or hexagonal models. However, the hexagonal catchment area better represents enrolment due to the drawbacks of the circular model (Ibid, p. 247).

For hexagonal catchment area, enrolment numbers are given by the formula

$E = 2.589r^2 \times d$, where $2.589r^2$ gives the area of a hexagonal cell, and

d= SAP Density

r= Range (or Density)

Using this formula, the minimum density (d) of the school age children for whom to open a primary school with the standard of 50 class size and of a school having 8 classrooms on condition that students should not walk more than 5 Kms,

$$d = \frac{E}{2.589r^2} = \frac{50 \times 80}{2.6 \times 25} = 6.15 \text{ per sq. Km}$$

In Ethiopia, to follow this trend, the catchment area would be $\frac{3.63Km^2}{2.6r^2}$

The value 3.63, on the other hand, indicates the area from which a school recruits its pupils and, on the other hand, a maximum acceptable distance a child can travel to school at the national level (though accommodations may take place based on the regional and local realities) (Amhara National Regional State Education Bureau, 2006?).

On basis of this idea, the extent of catchment area of primary school at the lower tiers in the study area is worked out with the enrolment target of 100%. Table 4.6 depicts the average distance children travel at primary schools in the sample woredas and town administrations.

Table 4.6: Hexagonal catchment area by administrative areas, 2010/11

Woredas and Town Administrations	SAP**	Area of Districts in Sq.Km.*	Range (r) ¹	Density of SAP (d) ¹	% share of SAP ¹	Hexagonal Catchment Area (E) ¹
Sodo Town Administration	21,053	98.8	3	899.7	88,535	21,052.9
Areka Town Administration	10,093	70	3	431.3	37,151	10,092.4
Damot Woyde	26,712	344.3	3	1,141.5	104,775	26,711.1
Boloso Bombe	22,466	266.7	3	960.1	96,622	22,466.3
Damot Pullasa	25,940	168	3	1,108.5	115,585	25,938.9

Source * Wolayta Development Association (WoDA), 2009/10

** Wolayta Zone Education Department, 2010/11

¹ Calculated from the raw data by the author

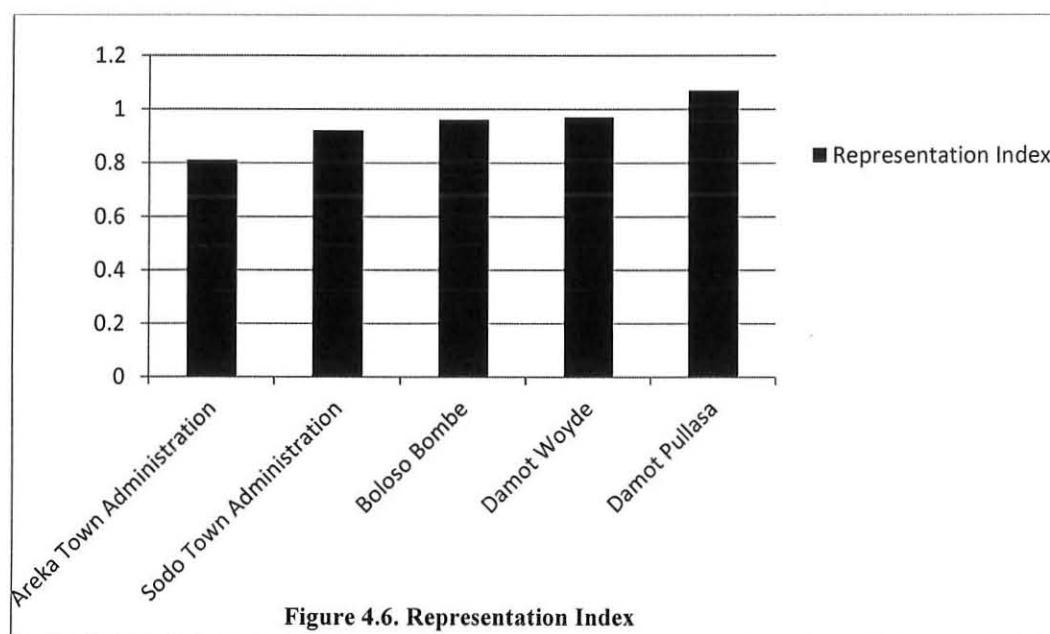
The theoretical approach of catchment area lays stress on the standard maximum distance that pupils can travel as it depends on the means of transport used, the terrain and also the age of the children concerned. However, it is generally accepted that in primary education,

the children should be able to get to school in not more than some 45 minutes. This corresponds to some 3Kms on foot on level ground (Amhara National Regional State Education Bureau, 2006?).

The result on Table 4.6, however, shows the primary school children are yet to walk more than 3 Kms to and from school in the rural woredas. In Damot Woyde and Damot Pullasa particularly, the primary school recruits pupils from wider catchment areas which make the home-school distance the farthest, but however, the distance is below 3Kms in the town administrations. Therefore, it can be inferred from this that imbalances existed in reducing home-school distance among the rural woredas and town administrations, which in turn calls for primary school demand and improving the condition of school available as it might be one of the factors which contribute for dropout rates.

School Representation Index (RI)

School Representation Index (RI) is one of the major indicators of disparities in distribution of schools. It indicates educational equality or distribution between woredas, zones, etc. in rural and urban areas (Kuawab Business Consultants, 1998). The indicator shows the relationship between the proportion of schools and the proportion of school age population of a particular area. The index is calculated by dividing the proportion of enrolment in primary grades by the proportion of corresponding school age population for primary age (Dansby and Landis, 1998). The data ranked by RI index in the study areas were shown on the graph below.



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

Damot Pullasa and Damot Woyde Woreda are more represented in enrolment as their RI was around 1 (Figure 4.6). In other words, the children who are eligible for primary schooling got access to school in this woreda at this time.

According to Kuawab Business Consultants (1998), RI should equal to 1 in normal school distributions. The RI which is greater than the ideal value, i.e. 1, in Damot Pullasa Woreda might, however, mean it is more represented than all other woredas, but this may also indicate that over-aged children are occupying most of the schooling places in this woreda. On the other hand, Areka Town Administration is least represented in terms of receiving school age children. In this woreda, therefore, roughly 20% of the school age children are out of school. Thus, both the catchment area and RI measures showed that primary schools were not evenly distributed in the study area. In other words, there was still primary schools demand in the area.

4.1.1.3. Internal Efficiency of Primary Education

In an education system, where there are planned activities which are directed towards given objectives, efficiency is coined with obtaining maximum output with utilization of minimum cost and effort (Simons and Alexander, 1980). More specifically, it refers to the flow of students through an education system, i.e. “educating the greatest possible number of pupils who have entered an education system in a specific year, in the shortest time and with the least use of financial and human resource” (OEB/JICA, 2006:47). Perhaps, this is meant as an internal efficiency of the education system.

The possible, and mutually exclusive, events that might have happened to the students who have entered an education system are either promotion to the next higher grade, or repetition of the same grade or dropping out. Hence, internal efficiency of an education system is measured by using the indicators, among others, promotion, repetition, and drop-out rates. These are the “paths of students’ flow from grade to grade and characterize efficiency of the education system in producing graduates” (Amhara National Regional State Education Bureau, 2006?). In this study, however, repetition and drop-out rates were used to assess internal efficiency of the education system in primary schools of the study areas.

Grade 1 Dropout and Repetition Rates

Grade 1 is a base for primary education. Internal efficiency of a primary education is often measured on basis of the cohort of students who entered grade 1 each year and stay within the system. Hence, not only the school mapping and micro planning project but also the other education development programs give a due consideration for grade 1 by putting tangible targets. In the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project, it was targeted to lower down the dropout rate to 0.5 percent point in 2010/11 in Wolayta Zone (Wolayta Zone Education Department, 2007/08).

With regard to this, better changes were recorded in grade 1 dropout rate in the study areas.

Table 4.7 and Figure 4.7 below display the trend in the years 2007/08 to 2010/11.

Table 4.7: Grade 1 Dropout rate by sex and woredas and town administrations,

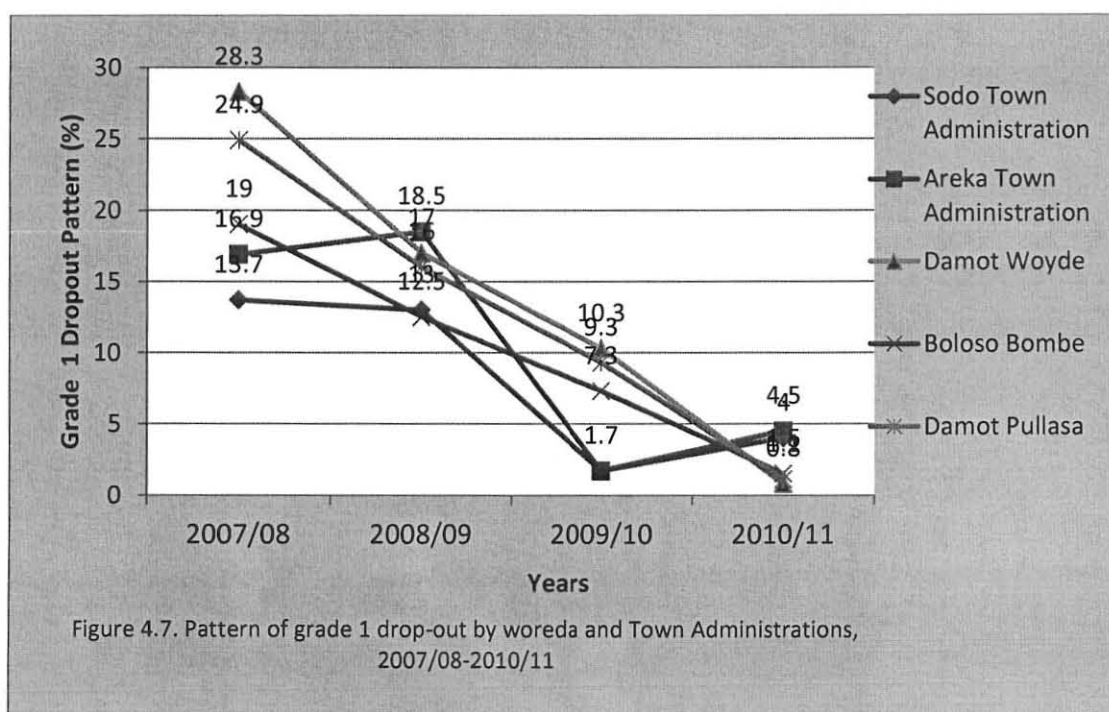
2007/08-2010/11

Year	SodoTown Administration			ArekaTown Administration			Damot Woyde			Bolosso Bombe			Damot Pullasa		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
2007/08*	13.7	13.6	13.7	16.1	17.9	16.9	27.3	28.3	28.3	10.3	17.8	19.0	24.7	25.1	24.9
2008/09**	12.8	13.2	13.0	16.0	21.4	18.5	16.4	17.7	17.0	12.3	12.8	12.5	12.9	19.1	16.0
2009/10**	1.5	1.9	1.7	2.1	1.3	1.7	9.2	11.5	10.3	6.2	8.5	7.3	8.4	10.3	9.3
2010/11**	0.6	7.3	4.0	4.5	4.4	4.5	0.7	0.9	0.8	1.8	1.1	1.5	0.9	1.3	1.1

* Base line data of the administrative areas

** Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

The data aggregated by rural and town administrations shows grade one dropout rate was higher in town than the rural ones in 2007/08. After a steady decrease of the rate in all administrative areas, the dropout rate perhaps laid between 0.8 (Damot Woyde) and 1.5 (Bolosso Bombe), with higher rates in comparison to the year 2009/10, it was 4.5 percent point and 4.0 percent point in Areka and SodoTown Administrations respectively. Apart from this, the dropout rate of grade 1 in all woredas and town administrations was lower than the region average (23.0 percent point, i.e. 22.4 percent point for females and 23.5 percent point for boys) in 2010/11. Nevertheless, none of the woredas or town administrations could have achieved the targets.



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

The achievements were similar between male and female as well. Even though the female dropout rate increased in Areka Town Administration from 17.9 percent point to 21.4 percent point and in Damot Pullasa from 15.1 percent point to 19.1 percent point in the years between 2007/08 and 2010/11, it came down by about 3-6 percent point for the other administrative areas in the next year.

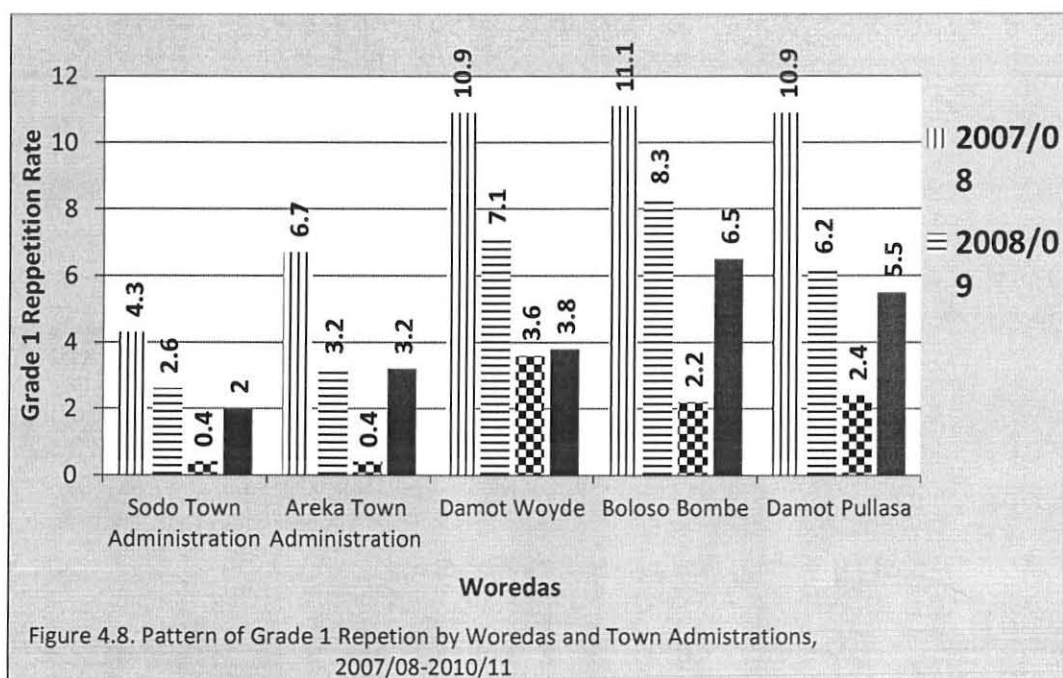
With regard to repetition, the target was 0.2 percent point. Just like the dropout rate, grade 1 repetition rate decreased steadily irrespective of the rural districts and town administrations during the project's implementation (Table 4.8 and Figure 4.8). However, this was also not attained in the study area.

Table 4.8: Grade 1 Repetition Rate by Sex and woredas, 2007/08-2010/11

Year	Sodo Town Administration			Areka Town Administration			Damot Woyde			Boloso Bombe			Damot Pullasa		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
2007/08	4.7	3.9	4.3	5.3	8.3	6.7	10.8	11.0	10.9	11.0	11.2	11.1	10.9	10.9	10.9
2008/09	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.7	3.9	3.2	6.1	8.1	7.0	7.3	9.3	8.3	5.2	7.2	6.2
2009/10	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	3.8	3.5	3.6	2.6	1.9	2.2	2.8	2.0	2.4
2010/11	2.1	1.9	2.0	3.5	2.8	3.2	3.2	4.4	3.8	5.6	7.5	6.5	4.6	6.6	5.5

Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

In 2009/10 and 2010/11, however, the repetition rate turned up. The rise was higher in Boloso Bombe (4.3 percent point); followed by Damot Pullasa (3.1 percent point)-both are rural woredas. In Areka Town Administration as well, this rate increased by 2.8 percent point (Table 4.8 and Figure 4.8). In comparison to the regional (9.0 percent point, 7.8 for boys and 10.2 for girls) and national (9.5%) averages, all woredas and town administration were at better position and hence contributing positively for achieving EFA, because, the regional average in the year 2010/11. Nevertheless, the administrative areas with higher repetition rate need to take remedial actions in order to tackle the problem.

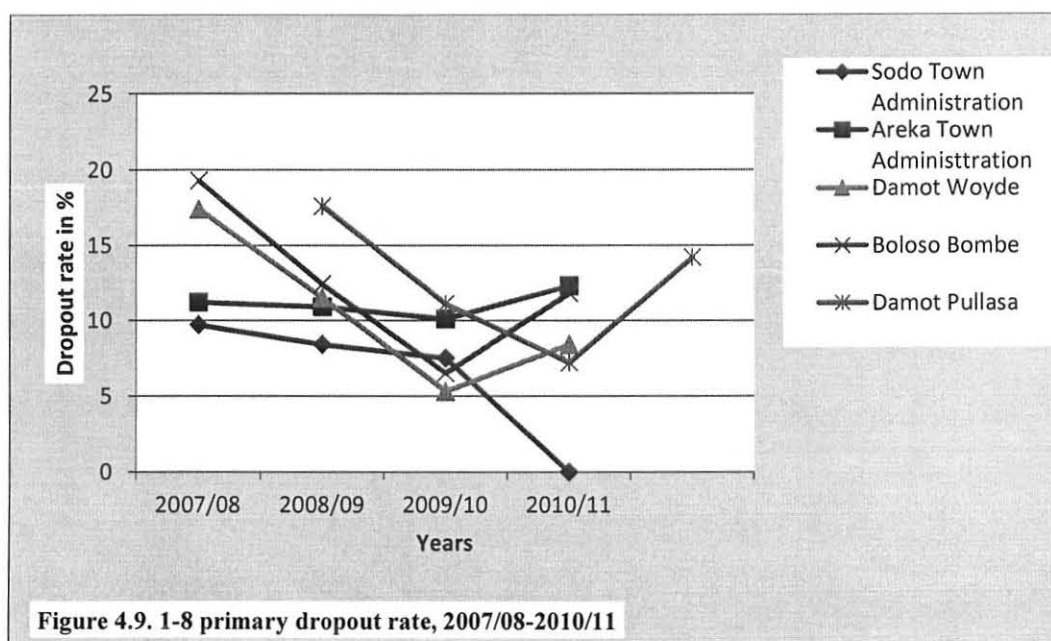


Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

Primary (1-8) Dropout and Repetition Rates

Apart from grade 1 dropout rate, primary (1-8) dropout and repetition rates are one of the factors which affect efficiency of the education system. Therefore, the trends of these rates were given consideration in this part of data analysis.

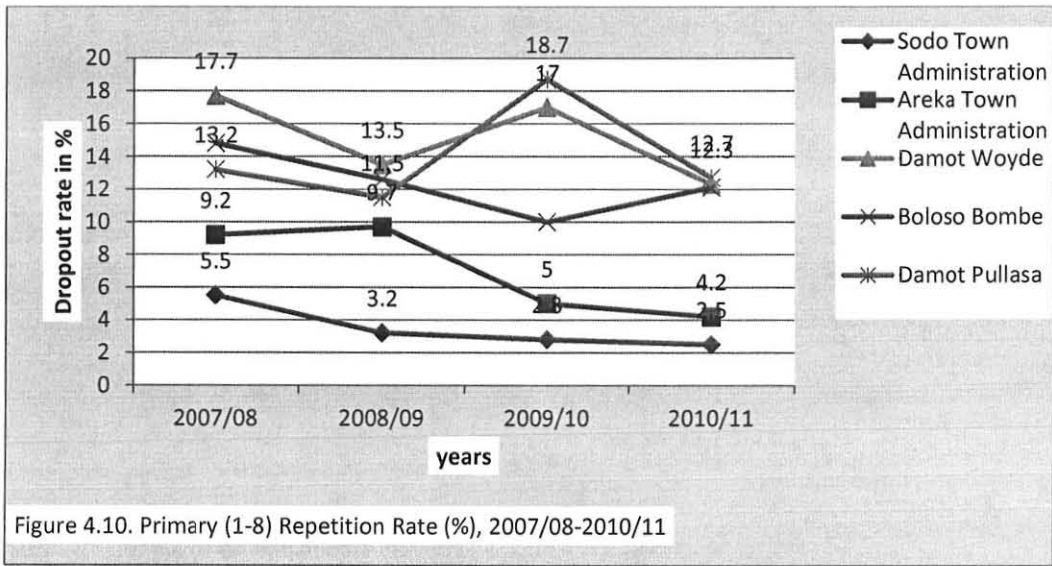
Primary dropout rate is yet a bottleneck of primary education in the rural administrative areas though it improved in the implementation period of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project. As depicted in Figure 4.9, the decrease of dropout rate was steady in all administrative areas, from the highest (17.6 percent point) in Boloso Bombe to 7.2 percent point and from the smallest (9.7 percent point) in Sodo Town Administration to 6.6 percent point. Nevertheless, in 2010/11, this rate began to grow up in the order it was in each of the administrative areas in 2007/08. Besides, when compared to the national (13.1 percent point, i.e. 13.1 for boys and 13.0 for girls) and regional (13.5%, i.e. 12.4% for boys and 14.8% for girls) averages, the woredas and town administrations showed remarkable change.



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

With regard to sex, the male dropout rate was higher in the town administrations in all the time under consideration; the highest in Areka Town Administration (9.4 percent point) followed by Sodo Town Administration (7.3 percent point) in 2010/11, but more female were dropping out in the rural woredas. Female dropout rate was much higher in Damot Pullasa (13.8 percent point) and smallest in Damot Woyde (7.4 percent point) in 2010/11. Meanwhile, analysis of the statistical data on primary dropout rate showed the dropout rate was not lowered to 5 percent point as it was targeted in the project, and currently, except Sodo Town Administration, all woredas and town administrations were far away from the target. The findings went in line with the national EFA assessment report which stated “For millions of children entering primary school, the journey through the education system is often delayed, hazardous and short-lived. In half of the countries in sub-Saharan Africa, and South and West Asia, almost one in three children entering primary school drop out before completion.” (UNESCO, 2010:15). Repetition rate presented below also reflected this.

Primary repetition rate in the study areas seemed rather better in comparison to dropout rates during the project’s implementation period. Figure 4.10 portrays the trend disaggregated by administrative areas.



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2020/11, SNNPR

Note: The target for 2010/11 was 0.5%

As Figure 4.10 illustrates, primary repetition rate showed an alternating trend among the rural woredas and town administrations in the last four years period: it started at high rates (5.5 percent point and 9.2 percent point in Sodo and Areka Town Administrations) and 17.7, 14.8, and 13.2 percent points in order in Damot Woyde, Boloso Bombe and Damot Pullasa woredas. Making a zigzag line, the repetition rate came around 12 percent point in all rural woredas while it was roughly 3 percent point in the town administrations in 2010/11. So, the target was not reached and in the rural woredas, primary repetition rate was greater than the region (10.2%, 8.6 for boys and 11.9 for girls) as well as the national (8.5%- 7.2 for boys and 10.0 for girls) average.

The analysis has shown a different result to whatever the interviewees said about the primary wastage rate. The head of zone education department and officers of WEO

recognized that “implementation of automatic promotion enabled to limit first cycle primary school repetition rate to a great extent,” but, according to statistical data obtained from the region’s education annual abstracts, the rate was nearly as high as it was in the second cycle all the time. Meanwhile, dropout rate statistics varied in cycles and for boys and girls. In all ways, the interviewees did not conceal that dropout has been a main contributing factor for wastage in primary schools of the rural woredas

Generally, implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project enabled to decrease wastage due to dropout and repetition rates only to a little extent except the remarkable decrease in dropout in the earlier three years. Apart from area and sex differences, the rates were not lowered to the desired degree, with much worrying in the rural administrative areas particularly for girls. Therefore, it has to be noted that the regularly altering dropout rate may continuously affect efficiency of primary education in the study area unless remedial actions can be taken on time.

4.1.1.4. Quality of Primary Education

The issue of education quality got its place more recently than the other issues like access and efficiency. It has been recognized since the two most recent UN international conference declarations. Following this, educational planners began to be occupied with the issue while preparing and implementing educational plans (Bosker, Creemers, Stringfield, 1999).

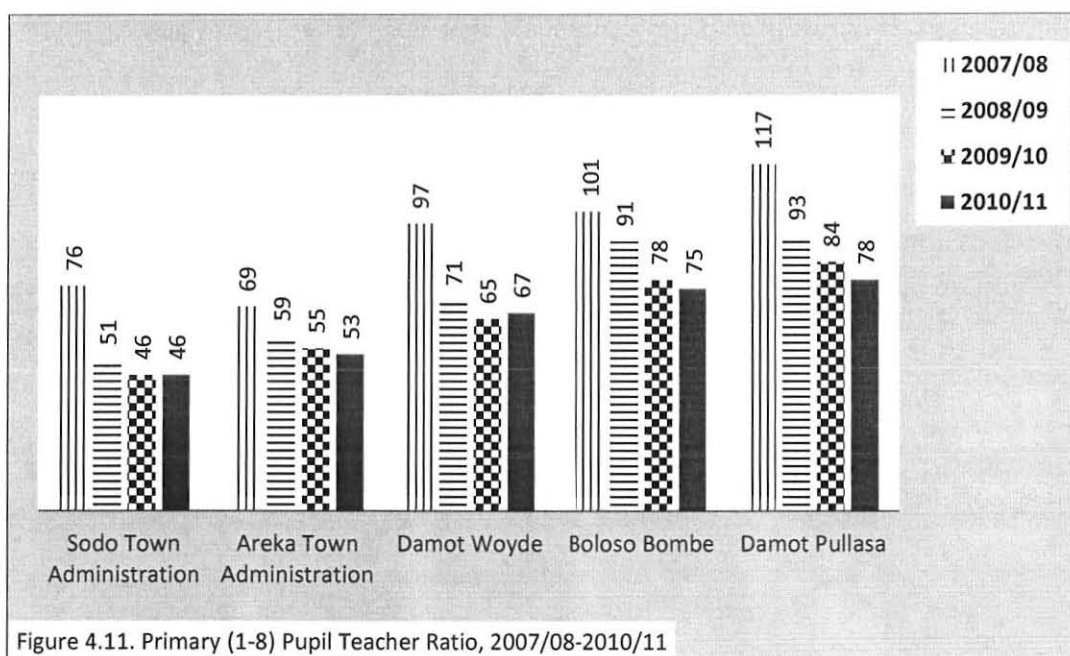
Depending on the intended objectives of the SM and MP project, a number of indicators are used to measure quality relating to the inputs, process or results of the education system. In this study, however, the indicators that relate to the inputs particularly staff and equipment and materials are used to measure achievement and challenges of bringing quality in primary education in the study area.

With regard to this, attention has been paid to the trends of composition and quality of staff and facilities and materials and their utilization, as they are costly, in the years of the project's implementation with respect to the regional norms along with the variations among woredas and town administrations. Hence, to measure quality in terms of inputs, the material resources (textbooks, classrooms/sections) and human resources (particularly teachers), among others, were given due considerations to assess primary education quality in the study areas. For this purpose, pupil-teacher ratio (PTR), pupil-section ratio (PSR), and pupil-textbook ratio (PTBR) were employed as measuring tools.

Pupil-Teacher Ratio

Pupil teacher ratio is usually an indicator of quality of the education system and it is the average number of students instructed by one teacher. It is deemed to be quality indicator because the smaller the PTR the higher the opportunity for the teacher to monitor and support students individually and thereby an improved education quality.

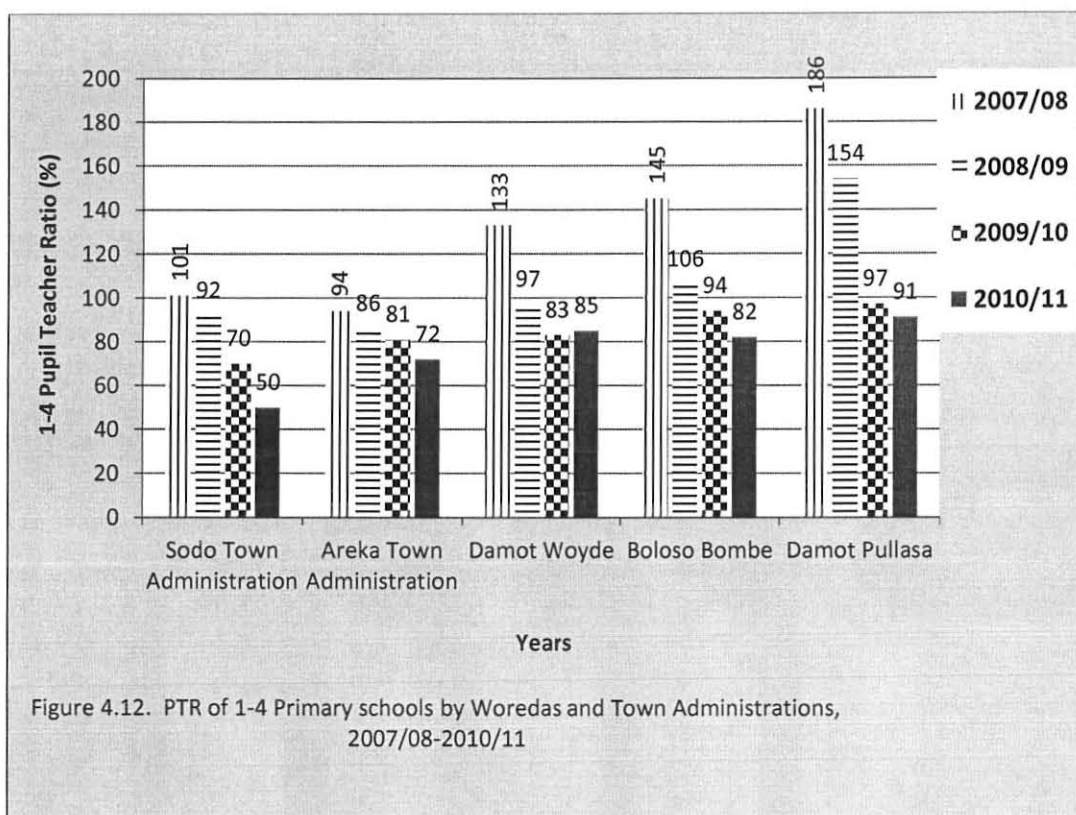
The information about PTR is useful not only as quality indicator but also as indicator of equitable teachers' distribution among different administrative entities. And the importance of this indicator increases when used jointly with other quality measures such as percent of qualified teachers, and availability of education materials and equipments, and other related variables. Hence, PTR and PTQR at both the first and second level primary schools were analyzed here below.



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

The PTR in the primary school improved in the study areas by 39 (Damot Pullasa) to 16 (Areka Town Administration) students per teacher. However, except in Sodo Town Administration in which the PTR was 1:46 (below the region (i.e, 59), and national (51) averages, all woredas and town administrations have high PTR. Damot Pullasa and Boloso Bombe had even higher PTR, i.e. 1:78 and 1:75 in order in 2010/11 when compared to the project's targets, i.e. 50 and 56 in the town administrations and rural districts in order.

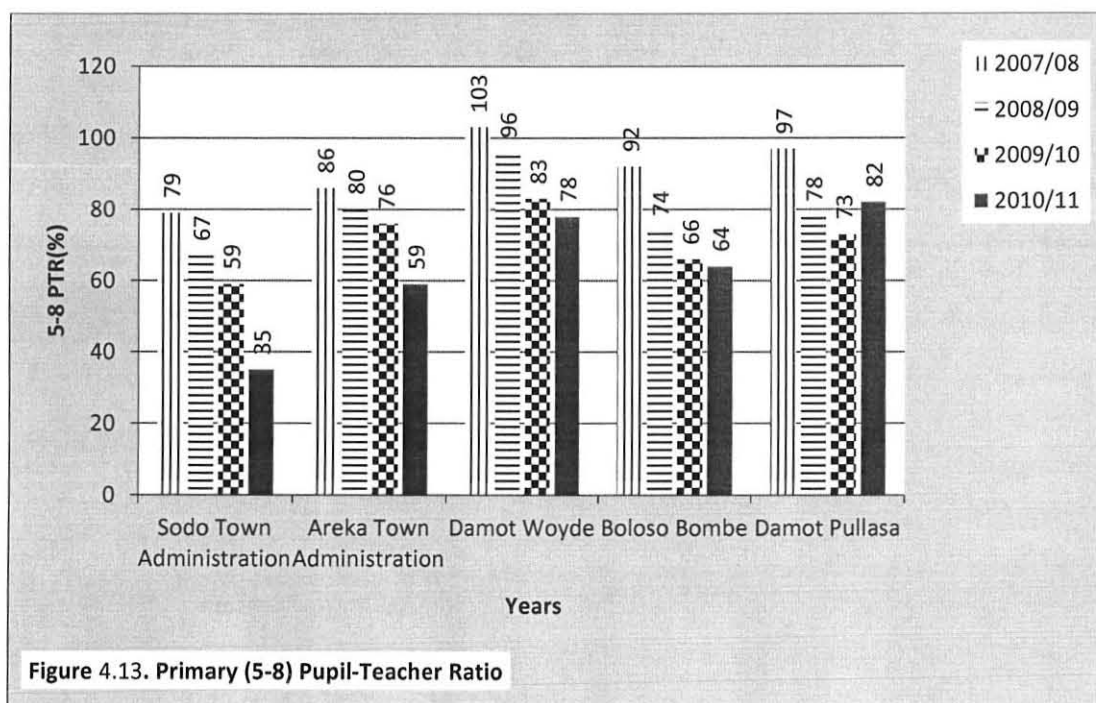
A close examination of PTR in the first and second cycle primary schools of the woredas and town administrations also implied the ratio was far greater than the targets (68 and 56 in the order in the first and second cycles) except in Sodo Town Administration in 2010/11. As revealed on Figure 4.11, the teachers in the rural woredas had to attend about more than 7 to 26 additional students in comparison to the region average in 2010/11.



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

Note: 2007/08 was the base line data

The second cycle primary schools PTR showed better improvement in the last four years. The decrease was steady and remarkable in comparison to the first cycle PTR (Figure 4.13).



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

Note: 2007/08's data was the base line

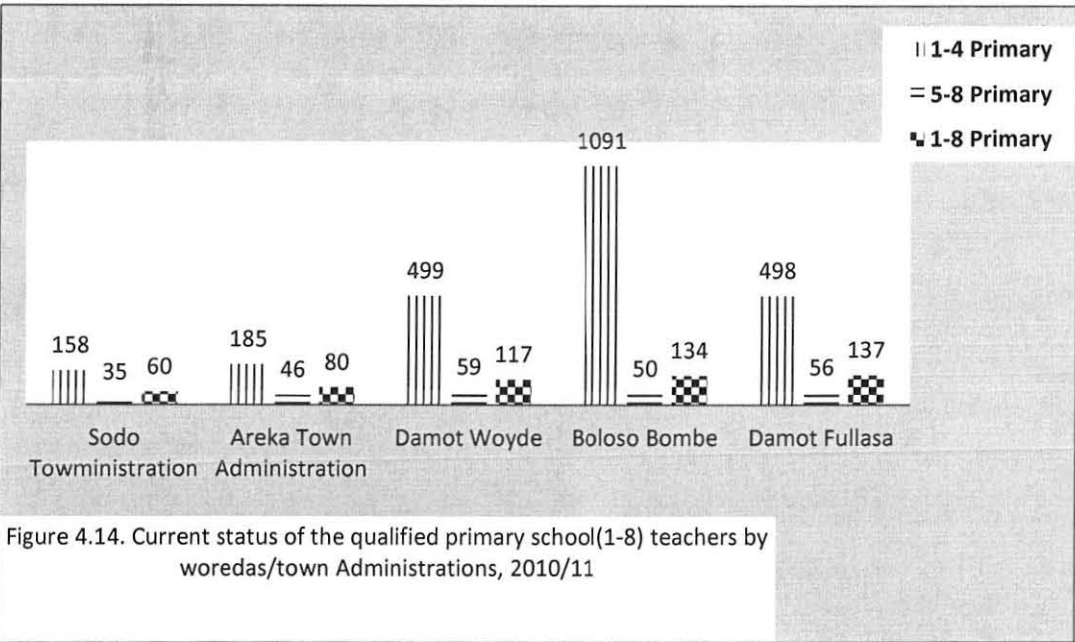
Figure 4.13 portrays the two town administrations were yet in better position with regard to PTR. Among the rural woredas, Damot Woyde was far beyond the target with 22 more students for a teacher to attend, and the ratio begun to grow up by 3 more students in comparison to 2009/10. Boloso Bombe was able to decrease the ratio by 8 students in 2010/11 in comparison to the former school year. In spite of these, the findings reflect what was said in the EFA summary report: “Future teacher recruitment needs vary greatly by region. This year’s report estimates that 10.3 million additional teachers will be needed worldwide to achieve the goal of universal primary education by 2015.” as the widely used international benchmark (PTR of 1:40) was not reached (UNESCO, 2010).

Generally, inequalities in allocation of teaching staff were observed among the administrative areas in the zone. Moreover, the rural woredas were under high pressure of PTR. Hence, reinforcement of educational provision is needed in the woredas where disparity was realized. Admitting these, the interviewees in the WEOs noted few quotas to

develop the teaching force through on-job training, increase in gross enrollment, decrease in community participation, problem to get trained teachers in the market, ever-growing education demand of community caused such problems and hence call for immediate actions.

Pupil- Qualified Teacher Ratio

Qualified Teacher Ratio (abbreviated PQTR) is a more suitable indicator than the rough PTR and it is the average number of students hold by a single teacher having the required qualification for the level. Statistical data show that the PQTR for primary schools at the current time varies by grade level. Figure 4.14 below provides information about PQTR of primary schools in the study area in 2010/11 school year.



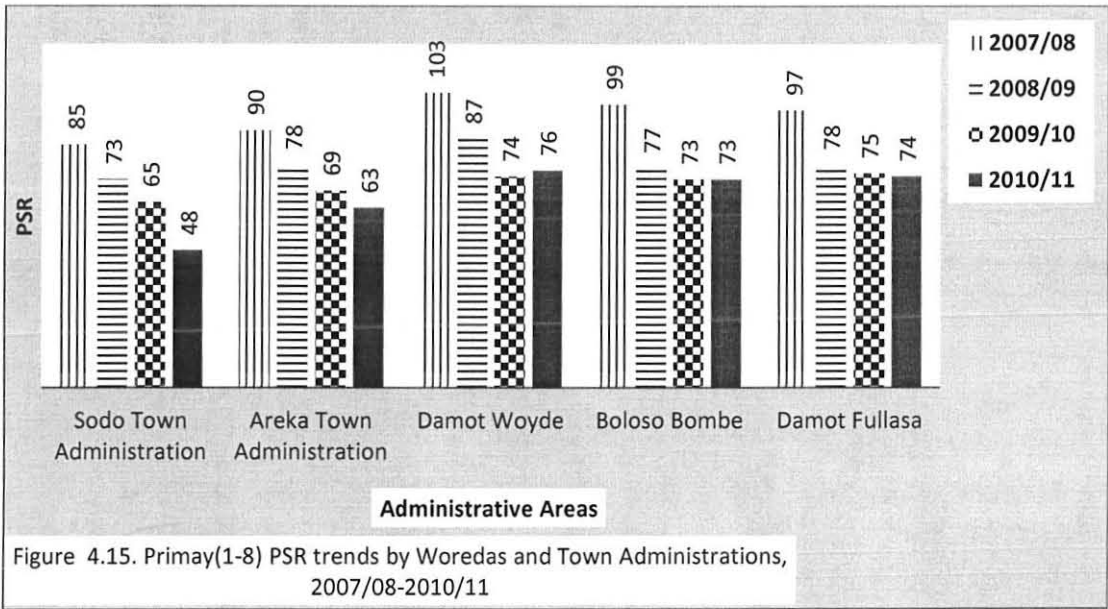
Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2010/11, SNNPR

Although targets were not set for PQTR in the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project, current status showed variations across the administrative areas. The PQTR is relatively

better in both levels of primary schools in the two town administrations than it was in the rural districts. Among the rural woredas, Boloso Bombe was in more serious challenge at the first cycle (grades 1-4) qualified teachers, but Damot Woyed and Damot Pullasa were around the region average (496) in 2010/11. At the second level primary schools (grades 5-8), the PQTR was better though slightly higher in rural woredas. This indicates that quality of primary education might be affected in the future if timely actions cannot be taken.

Pupil-Section Ratio in Primary Schools

Pupil Section Ratio (PSR) is the average number of students seating in one classroom. Like pupil teacher ratio, pupil section ratio is a dual indicator as it tries to measure both quality and efficiency of an education system (MOE, 2010/11). At this point, however, we attach the first concept that PSR indicates quality characteristic of the education system to assess the teaching condition of primary schools.



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

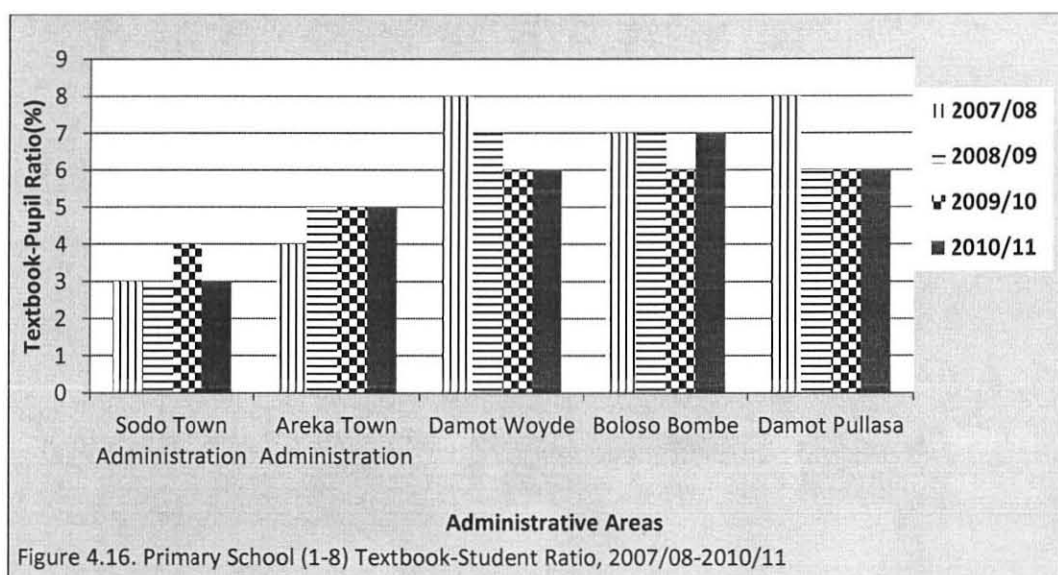
In general, as shown in Figure 4.15, the primary PSR decreased remarkably in the earlier

years of implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project. Between the years 2009/10 and 2010/11, however, no encouraging changes were recorded in minimizing class size. Ranging between 73 and 76, the PSR was still higher than the target (50 and 58 in town administrations and rural woredas) as well as regional, i.e. 1:66, and national, 1:57, in the rural woredas in 2010/11. Like in the other quality aspects, Sodo Town Administrations was in good condition having 1:48 in 2010/11. The magnitude of PSR in rural woredas indicated the crowdedness of sections and hence implementation of the project succeeded to a little extent in improving the primary teaching condition with regard to PSR.

Pupil-Textbook Ratio

Textbooks are the basic facilities for students' best learning. Having considered this, it was often targeted to make the ratio 1:1. It was also the plan of all woredas in the study areas to achieve that target. However, it has been observed that the ratio highly varies from grade to grade as well as type of textbook in each year under consideration.

According to 2007/08-2010/11 statistical data, the Pupil-textbook ratios varied by year and administrative areas. While it was 1:3 in Sodo Town Administration, the ratio was 1:6 in Damot Pullasa and Damot Woyde in the years 2009/10-2010/11(Figure 4.16).



Source: Calculated from education statistical data, ESAA 2007/08-2010/11, SNNPR

When the pupil-textbook ratio was roughly overviewed, it was more positive in the first cycle primary schools, where no woreda or town administration exceeded the ratio of 1:5 in the last four years. In the second cycle primary schools, however, the largest ratio (1:7) was observed in Boloso Bombe Woreda in 2010/11. In both cycles, the smallest pupil-textbook ratio (1:3) was in Sodo Town administration. Besides, both of these ratios were greater than the regional average, i.e. 1:3 and 1: 2 in the first and second cycles respectively, in 2010/11.

Admitting that problems exist with regard to this, all interview participants push the problem to the region as the books are published and distributed to the lower tiers by them. At the zonal level, however, adequate textbooks in local language (Wolaytigna) were published and distributed every year (zone education department head). The head also added this:

Mismatch between enrolment projections and actual enrolment sometimes caused shortage of the textbooks. There was also shortage of textbooks even to buy besides shortage of money.

Hence, shortage of textbooks was among the challenges left unsolved and impeding primary education quality in the study areas.

To this point, successes and drawbacks of implementing the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project are analyzed based on the statistical data about provision and utilization of material resources so as to make primary education accessible, equitable, efficient, and of quality. For this purpose, statistical data obtained from the regional education annual abstracts of the years 2007/08-2010/11 and other relevant documents apart from the interviews with the zone education department head and officers of WEOs. In the next part of the report, the status of educational planners and administrators' capacity with regard to implementing plans in the decentralized context and their responses about the challenges and prospects of implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project at the woreda and school levels were summarized.

4.2. Challenges and Prospects of Implementing the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project

4.2.1. Status of Educational Planners and Administrators

General Characteristics: Capacity and Skill/Qualification

Participants of this study were planning experts in Woreda Education Offices (WEO), primary school principals, chairpersons of Kebele/Municipality Education and Training Management Board and Parent Teacher Associations (referred as KETMB and PTA, in order, hereafter). Officers of WEO and the zone education department head also took part in providing data through interview.

For the purpose of data collection, questionnaires were distributed to 30 primary school principals, 29 KETMB, and 30 PTA chairpersons, and 5 WEO planning experts. A response rate of 99% was achieved in all groups. Thus, the major general characteristics of the participants in the samples surveyed were presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: General Characteristics of Participants

		Participants							
		Principals (N=30)		KETMB (N=29)		PTA (N=30)		WEO Planning Experts (N=5)	
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Sex									
Male		25	83.3	29		30	100	5	100
Female		5	16.7	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total				29	100	30	100	5	100
Education Level									
Illiterate		-	-	-	-	10	33.3	-	-
Some Primary School Education		-	-	-	-	17	56.7	-	-
Some Secondary School Education		-	-	-	-	2	6.7	-	-
Teacher Training Certificate		2	6.9	2	6.9	1	3.3	-	-
Diploma		27	93.1	27	93.1	-	-	1	20
Bachelor Degree		-	-	-	-	-	-	4	80
MA/MSc/MEd		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total		29	100	29	100	30	100	5	100
Field of Qualification									
Teaching/Education		30	100	7	24	1	3.3	2	40
EdPM/EdLM		-	-	-	-	-	-	3	60
Other than Education		-	-	22	76	-	-	-	-
None		-	-	-	-	29		-	-
Total		30	100	29	100	30	100	5	100
Work Experience									
Less than 5 years		26	86.7	28	96.5	4	13.3	1	20
5-10 years		4	13.3	1	3.5	26	86.7	3	60
11-15 years		-	-	-	-	-	-	1	20
More than 15 years		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total		30	100	29	100	30	100	5	100

Source: Individual questionnaire

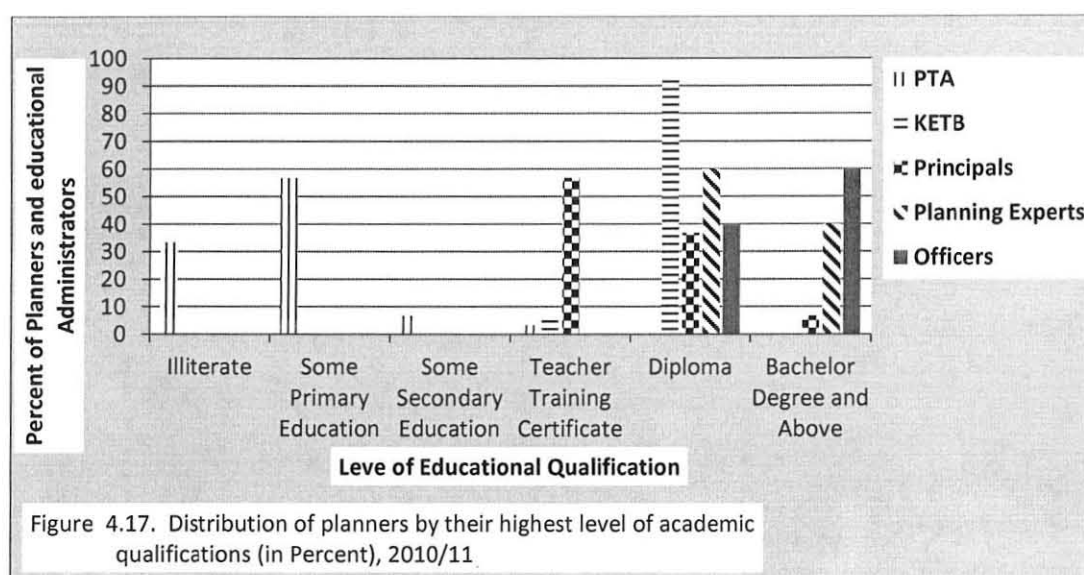
Characteristics of the participants sampled from different levels of educational planning and administration. As the activities at the school level are jointly exercised by the school principals and kebele/municipality administrators, and representatives of school teachers and parents of the students in the school, the PTA and KETMB are considered as educational administrators at the grassroots level (USAID, 1998), and hence close analysis of their characteristics is assumed to provide relevant information about the issue under investigation with regard to their planning and implementation capacity in order to bring the

intended impact on the woreda education system.

Accordingly, as presented in Table 4.9, all participants of the PTA, KETMB, and WEO Planning Experts are male. Except 5(16.7%) females, the school principals also consist of male participants. The interview as well revealed that both the WEO officers and zone education department head were male. This implies participation of female is almost none in planning and management of education in the study areas.

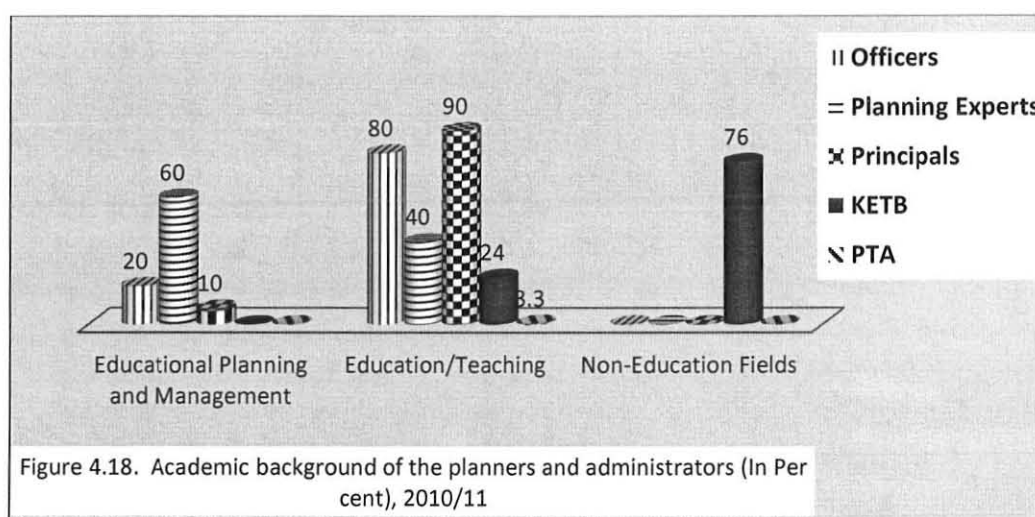
Level of Education, Qualification and Experiences of the Planners and Managers

With respect to level of educational qualification, Table 4.10 and Figure 4.17 show that the planning and school management practitioners at the level below WEO are below the first degree. Hence, among the principals and KETMB chairpersons, 7% are certificate and the rest 93% are diploma holders. On the part of PTA, however, 96.7% have some secondary school education and below. Furthermore, 4(80%) of the planning experts and, as found during interview, 3(60%) WEO officers and the zone education department head held the first degree while the rest of them are diploma holders.



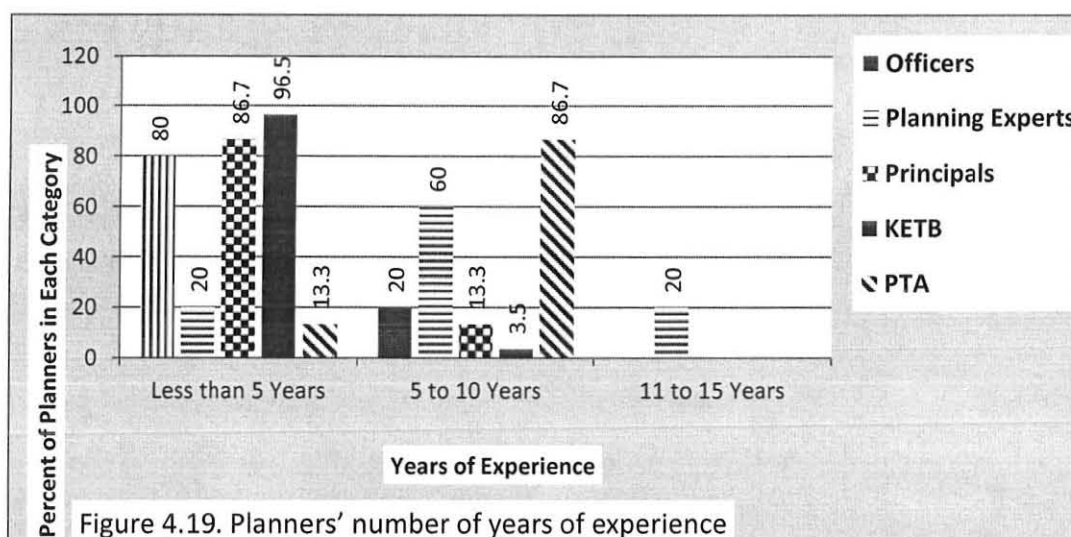
Source: Individual questionnaire and interview

In addition, their qualifications of officers are seldom related to educational planning and management (Figure 4.18). Only 20% of the WEO officers and 10% of the school principals have qualifications in educational planning and management. However, 60% of the planning experts in WEO are qualified in planning and management. On the other hand, 22(76%) of the chairpersons of KETMB who are expected to play significant roles in mobilizing resources for the education development in their respective administrative areas are qualified in other non-education fields while most of the PTA chairpersons are illiterate. This situation was confirmed during the interview with zone education department head and woreda education office officers.



Source: Individual questionnaire and interview

It was also observed that the planners and school administrators at all levels had only limited experience in their current post. Their experience extends mostly to 5 years, as shown in the figure below.

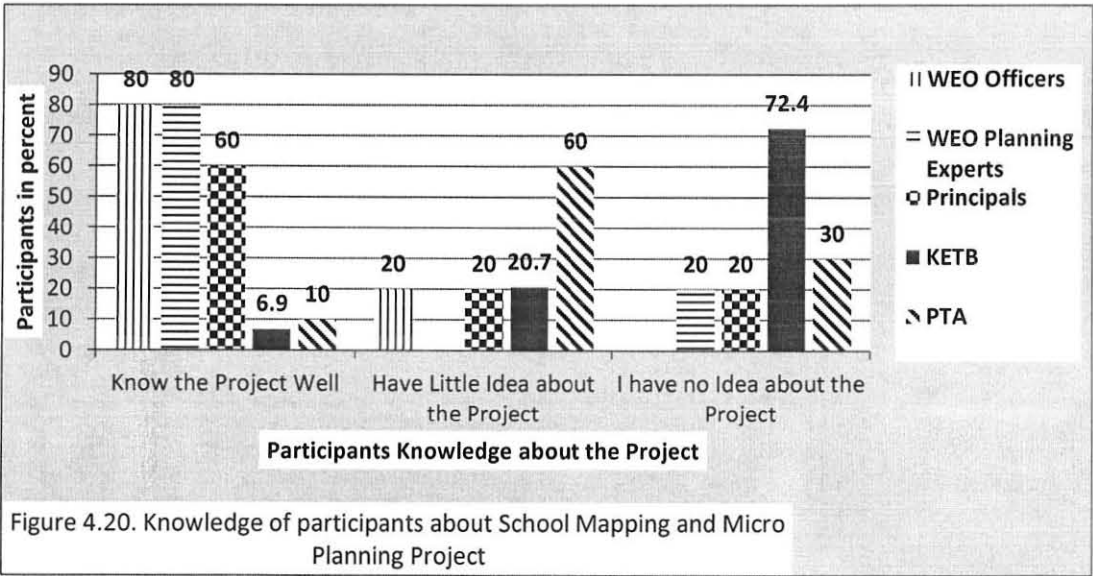


Source: Individual questionnaire and interview

It is also reported in a number of previous studies that staff turnover has been a serious problem in education sector (USAID/BESO II, 2005; USAID/BEP, 2007). Figure 4.19 presents the distribution of planners who responded to the questionnaire by the number of years of experience. During interviews with the WEO officers, the researcher was informed

that most of the planners at all level are new to the current position and this was confirmed to the participants experience (Figure 4.19).Overall, most of these planners and managers are almost new to their post, with more than 63% having less than 5 years' experience. Furthermore, the data show that 60% WEO planning experts and 86.7% of the PTA chairpersons had 5-10 years' experience in educational planning and management.

In relation to this, they provided data on their experience of School Mapping and Micro Planning Project. Their responses were summarized on the figure below.



Source: Individual questionnaire and interview

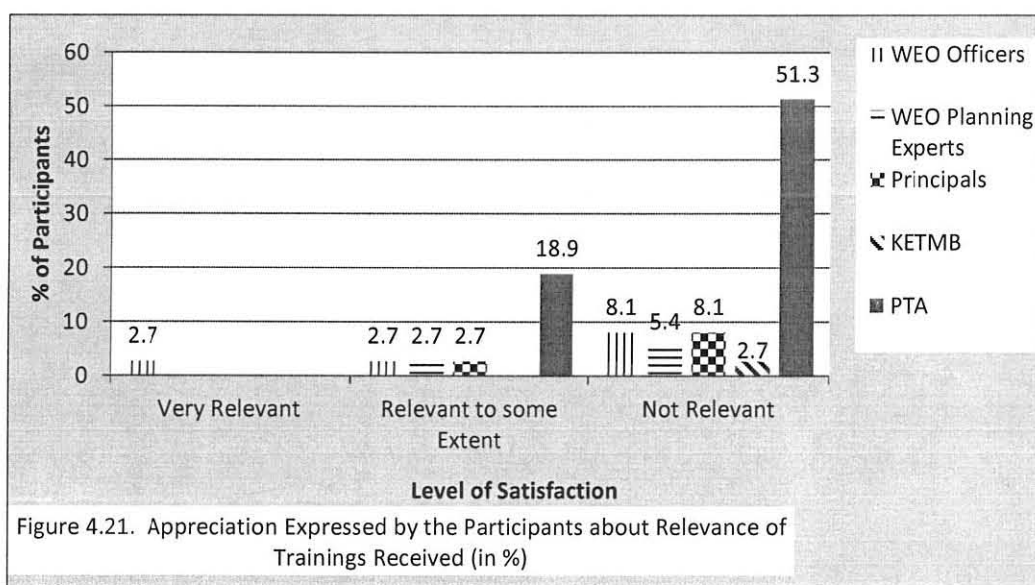
As Figure 4.20 portrays, 80% of the WEO planning experts and officers as well as 60% school principals had good knowledge about the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project which facilitates UPE. On the other continuum, 72.4 % KETMB and 30% PTA had no knowledge about the project. Most of the PTA (60%) also had only little knowledge. These responses go in line with the data obtained about the participants' few years of experience at the current post (Figure 4.19). Hence, lack of awareness about the issue has been a bottleneck in the education system in all woredas and town administrations.

Training Program for Educational Planners and Administrators

In Ethiopia, different actors provide training for educational planners and managers. Furthermore, there is a mandate for each administrative level to provide advice and support (by means of trainings) to the lower administrative level(s) in fulfilling their mission and implementing the national education policy.

As responded by the participants, however, 38.2% of the planning and management practitioners (29.3% of these were the PTA representatives) reported they took training and the rest (61.8%) said they did not receive any training on implementation of School Mapping and Micro Planning Project while they were at the current position. This also confirmed to the participants' year of experiences on their current post. Unless the participants were given capacity building trainings on such issues, it is very difficult to effectively carry out the planning and implementation activities.

The participants who reported that they took training also expressed their dissatisfaction with the training they were delivered for their effectiveness in their educational plan implementation (Figure 2.21)



Source: Individual questionnaire and interview

Most of the participants who received training on the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project were the PTA chairpersons who also had more years of experience (Figure 4.19). Meanwhile, the PTA was among those who were not satisfied by the trainings provided for them. The figure also shows only 2.7% of the WEO Officers who received training said the training was relevant for their education management activities while 2.7% and 5.4% of the planning experts reported the training was relevant to some extent or not at all respectively. This implies not only lack of training but also irrelevance of the trainings has been among the challenges of implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project at the local level.

Having reported that the trainings were relevant to some extent, the participants expressed the reasons for their dissatisfaction as follows:

“...the programs lack regularity and frequency, and officers were not consulted about their training needs, and therefore not adapted to their-day-to-day activities.”

The head of zone education department said, “Regular trainings and awareness creating meetings have not been prepared due to financial shortcomings at the zone level.” As added by the educational planners and managers, the tasks they found to be more difficult to complete were “educational data/information management, projections and simulations, as well as project implementation, monitoring, evaluation, and reporting. These activities became difficult as I did not take training on them or have no acquaintance with them.” Hence, the continued need for training, notwithstanding the many courses and workshops, can be explained by several factors, in particular the fact that planners without the required qualifications and professional experience are recruited to planning posts. Hence, the fact that most of the officers and planning experts working at the woreda level have less experience in their current post than those working at the school level might have a problem on helping those at the lower level whenever needed

Meetings at school and District Levels

In addition, planners at the different levels face a huge number of tasks to deal with, which increase in the contest of decentralization and for which they are not necessarily trained. The planners and managers at various levels need to meet with their corresponding counterparts to reach consensus on implementation of plans and plan to take timely actions to alleviate the problems existed. Hence, the meetings take place between and across the administrative levels. With regard to this, 21(70%) of the school principals reported that they meet 3 times while the rest 7(23.3%) and 2(6.7%) claimed they meet 4 and 2 times in order. On the contrary to these responses, the PTA and KETMB's answers show that the meetings were less frequent than the principals' report (average 2).

At the woreda and town administrations levels, however, the meetings were more frequent, i.e. the meeting frequency ranged between 3(20%) and 5(60%).

Motivation and Retention

Availability of less experienced personnel at each level makes emphasize on motivation of retention of well experienced staff at both the district and school levels. Therefore, in the questionnaire and interview, issues like pleasure of the participants and their desire to change the position they hold now as these factors play key roles in the motivation. Their motivation also influences how the other stake holders like PTA and KETB participate in educational management activities.

Whether the planners and managers attempted to change their jobs was also investigated in this study. As reflected on Table 4.10, there had been a high tendency planning experts and principals to change their post/work since they have got the post.

Table 4.10: Educational planners and managers who attempted to change their post

Items	Participants							
	Planning Experts		Principals		KETMB		PTA	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Are you glad of your current job/ responsibility in school?								
A. Yes	1	20	7	23.3	5	17.2	11	37.9
B. No	4	80	23	76.7	24	82.8	18	62.1
Total	5	100	30	100	29	100	29	100
Have you ever attempted to change your job/post since you held the current post?								
A. Yes, within the education sector	1	20	21	73.4	4	13.8	-	-
B. Yes, outside of the education sector	1	20	7	23.3	20	72.4	-	-
C. I did not try to change	2	40	0	0	3	10.3	-	-
D. I did not think of this	1	20	1	3.3	2	6.9	-	-
Total	5	100	30	100	29	100	-	-

Source: Individual questionnaire

Table 4.10 shows that 74.2% of the participants were not glad in their job or responsibility at school. Close examination of their responses showed the KETMB (82.8%) and planning experts (80%) replied they were not glad while the PTA (37.9%) said they were enjoying their responsibility. At the same time, excluding the PTA who do not have permanent job, 82.3% of the samples wished to change their job in order to get another post in a sector outside of education office.

In responses to the reasons of their desire to change their posts, the WEO planning experts pointed out that their salaries are not matched with their work load particularly after implementation of BPR they did not get any career structure development except the usual salary increment with all other civil servants. They also added that the woreda civil service office collected data of the civil servants profile after 'reassignment of job positions in order to increase salary, but, except moving the workers to more bulky position, no reply is given. Hence, there is great grievance on this issue. Furthermore, the planning experts also raise

other factors of non-financial nature. These include lack of training opportunities in the regular form to improve their skill, opportunity to participate in meetings within and outside their office due to segregation of political outlook. The school principals and KETMB chairpersons, on the other hand, reported that lack of support rendered from the next upper level, lack of incentives and infrastructures(in the rural areas), work load are among the challenges they yet face on their day-to-day career now and before. These show that instability of the work force at both the woreda and school level disorganizes effectiveness of implementing the plans at the lower levels. Moreover, the substitutes of these planners and managers are often non-experienced ones and hence need successive follow up and assistance from the personnel at the next upper level.

4.2.2. Participants' Thoughts on the Challenges of Implementing the

School Mapping and Micro Planning Project

Eventually, the participants were given a list of questions about the pre-assumed challenges of implementation so that they could express their thoughts on basis of their experiences. Responses of the research participants were summarized on the table below.

a List (altogether, N= 93)

Medium		Low		Very Low	
No	%	No	%	No	%
1	-	18	19.3	16	17.8
20	21.5	31	33.3	16	17.2
13	14	2	2.1	-	-
26	28	48	51.6	9	9.7
	-	-	-	6	6.4
29	31.2	26	28	14	15
31	22.6	34	36.6	13	14
0	10.7	6	6.4	3	3.2
2	24	4	4.3	-	-
3	14	11	11.8	-	-
14	15	10	10.7	3	3.2

them said that shortage of the School Mapping and budget sources from the ect. However, the fact that y participation in building plementation of the project finance schools after the r resources was ranked as ince this was followed by be possible to infer that

managerial capacity of administrators at the local level had impact on effective implementation of the project under consideration.

As many as 61.3% and 49.5% participants in order stated that lack of PTA and KETMB feeling of responsibility and other resources and lack of assistance from the next higher level of education administration had nearly the same negative impact on implementation of the project. Besides, the data showed that the planners and administrators at the lower levels felt they did not receive assistance when they needed during the project's implementation.

Responses of the interviewees also matched to these to a great extent. In all rural woredas and town administrations, the officers of school offices admitted that the projections did not meet with the actual enrolments irrespective of the increment through time. While this, apart from the other challenges, discouraged the moves to build more schools, the existing facilities could not accommodate the enrolments. Above all, finance mattered to the greatest extent. Assuming that the local community had adequate awareness of education and hence could finance it, the community involvement declined conversely (Table 4.4). This put burdens on the shoulder of educational planners and administrators at all levels and hence they often to attempted to change their posts (Table 4.11).

Besides, slow community participation went in line with high wastage in the education system (dropout rate increased steadily). This was due to unstable and unpredictable economic condition of the society at various interval of time. The society seemed to sustain family subsistence (economic) more than education (social). The case of school administrators also reflected this. Most of them have grievance on their salary and hence looked for other positions even out of education sector (with thought of fringe benefits). Meanwhile, the posts filled by new personnel demanded training and awareness creating workshops and trainings to be delivered so that implementation of plans could keep in pace (in building capacity of the administrators and financing implementation of the strategies

identified) at all levels through time. Lack of budget, however, constrained it. Apart from this, little attention was given for implementation of the school mapping and micro planning project; it became just a political issue during introduction and on the way all partners failed to accelerate the endeavors at local levels: planning, financing, resource mobilization, monitoring and evaluation of the education system. Eventually, the school based administration, i.e. PTA and KETMB involvement, ended up with the least community participation which in turn caused withdrawal of local development associations and NGOs as they call for community participation in running their projects.

Meanwhile, disagreements while division of budget and tasks of community services caused challenges in the last few years. Even though few poverty reduction programs were identified to give priority in budget allocation and put more commitment in implementation of their programs, adequate budget has not been given as the education sector demands. Aids of NGOs and other development associations were often based on the funders' willingness and hence not encouraging like other sectors. It also seemed that each sector attempted to give priority for attainment of its goals rather than integrating activities and resources. Therefore, lack of unity and cooperation caused variations in achievements of plans at the local levels.

Eventually, all participants were asked to forward few suggestions to enhance implementation of School Mapping and Micro Planning Project so as to achieve the intended goals. Accordingly, analysis of the data obtained through interview and questionnaire made a light to employ the following strategies:

- Emphasis on community awareness making
- Changing the attitude of planners and administrators
- Develop the capacity of planners and managers at all levels

- Increase education budget for coverage and quality
- Involve more development associations and organizations
- Build cooperation among all sectors at district and kebele levels
- Integrate education programs with all other programs (health extension, agriculture, and rural development, and others at the grassroots level), particularly among the political heads of all organizations
- Frequent monitoring and evaluation of projects and provision of feedback and assistance

During the interview with the zone education department head, it was underlined that holding positive attitude the community in financing schools and wise use of the resources available should be prior to all other strategies. Besides, the strategies of implementing regular and frequent short-trainings should be kept in pace on condition that it would be impossible to stop high trained staff mobility. These should be followed by increment in government budget on basis of the country's development level.

Chapter Five

5. Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1. Summary

Nowadays, bottom-up planning has got its place in all spheres of administration due to its merits. In the education sector in particular, such sort of planning plays indispensable roles in involving the planners and administrators at the lower tiers so as to attain the education MDG's, particularly UPE. School Mapping and Micro Planning Project is among such bottom-up planning strategy which was devised to participate the education stakeholders at the lower levels in planning for education development as well as tackle financial gaps that may hamper the attempt to Universalize Primary Education, the national agenda Ethiopia is committed to attain by or before 2015. This study, therefore, attempted to investigate the extent to which implementation of the School Mapping and Micro planning Project brought the intended goals of making primary education accessible, equitable, and efficient and of quality in a selected zone, i.e. Wolayta Zone, SNNPR.

General objective of the study was to assess the achievements, challenges and prospects of the implementation of School Mapping and Micro Planning Project in Wolayta zone. Breaking this broad objective into certain specific objectives along with the questions to be answered after the investigation, the study was carried on. With this regard, the study had the following specific objectives; these were:

- to measure the extent to which the school mapping and micro planning project has increased access to primary school of equity, efficiency and good quality on basis of preset indicators;

- to gather evidences on the education organization leaders skills to effectively implement education plans in their respective levels;
- to identify major challenges of implementation of the school mapping and micro planning project in the zone in terms of working towards UPE; and,
- envisage about the future trends of implementing educational plans at the lower levels in the light of achieving UPE in the study area.

The questions raised were:

1. To what extent has the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project increased access, equity, efficiency and quality of primary education?
 - a. Have the intake and enrolment rates of primary education been increased through time?
 - b. Has the implementation of school mapping and micro planning project helped to keep equity between male and female and rural districts and town administrations?
 - c. Is the primary education efficient in terms of tackling dropouts and repetition rates?
 - d. To what extent has the quality of primary education been improved during implementation of the school mapping and micro planning project?
2. What challenges faced while implementing the school mapping and micro planning project at the lower tiers?
3. Are the educational planning and administration personnel at the district/town administration and lower levels capable, and have skills, to implement the education development projects in their respective administrative areas?

4. What measures should be taken to initiate effective implementation of plans at lower levels?

To this end, a quantitative research design was employed to conduct a descriptive survey on the case at hand. In line to this, data were collected from both primary and secondary sources. Hence, primary sources of the data were wolayta zone education department head, officers of the 5 sample education offices, 5 planning experts in the education offices, 30 primary school principals, 30 Parent-teacher-Association (PTA) representatives and 30 Kebele/municipality Education and Training Management Board (KETMB) chairpersons. The sample, therefore, comprised 101 participants selected by employing various techniques of sampling.

Primarily, statistical data on indicators of access, equity, efficiency and quality were first gathered from various relevant sources (annual education abstracts, yearly reports, and other publications) by means of formats prepared for this purpose. Then, questionnaires were distributed among the sample participants. Finally, interviews were conducted with the rest of the research participants.

The data collected from these sources were analyzed by using descriptive statistical tools of measuring the education development indicators quantitatively. So, number and percent were the instruments used to measure the selected variables (intake and enrolment rates, Gender Parity Index (GPI), Gender Gap (GG), dropout and repetition rates, pupil-teacher, pupil-section and pupil-textbook ratios, school catchment area, Representation Index (RI)) depending on the nature of the research study's basic questions and the data collected. Further, status of primary education in the sample woredas/town administrations was compared against 2007/08 baseline data where appropriate.

Analysis of the data revealed that the woredas and town administrations achieved some of the targets set for the year 2010/11. With this regard, promising changes were made with regard to access and equity apart from the differences among the geographical areas. However, the drawbacks in aspects of efficiency and quality of primary education overweighed the successes. Based on these, developing the capacity of planners and administrators of education organizations along with other relevant suggestions were put forward in this study.

5.2. Conclusions

In this study attempts were made to investigate the extent to which the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project was implemented in lower tiers of education administration in bringing improvements on the education system at the local level in light of moving to achieve the UPE plan. Focusing on the capacity of the planners and Administrators of education system at the Woredas/town administrator and school levels and their practices to implement the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project which was introduced to achieve the UPE national agenda by means of bottom-up planning and implementation, here refers as School Mapping and Micro Planning. Analysis of the data was done to answer the research questions posed at the very beginning of the research study.

Analysis of the data put light on the successes and challenges confronted during implementation of the project as well as the status of capacity of key persons in educational planning and administration at the district and school levels in the lower tiers in the sample study areas. On top of these, some possible recommendations for effective implementation of plans at micro-levels in general and School Mapping and Micro Planning in particular were put forward based on findings of the study at hand. Generally, findings of analysis of

the data on the achievements, challenges and prospects of implementation of School Mapping and Micro Planning Project are presented below.

Since the launch of implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project, notable changes have been recorded in some aspects of access, equity, efficiency and quality of primary education in the study areas. The achievements were fast and qualitative particularly in the earlier years. In a general sense, the following impacts illustrate the major outcomes of implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project (though the government's commitment to improvement of primary education with introduction of other programs has played indispensable roles on these achievements as well).

1. Development of intake and enrolment rates was promising.

Even though primary schools were not supplied as intended, both grade 1 intake and general primary education enrolment rates grew rapidly irrespective of sex and administrative areas. More specifically, apparent intake and gross enrolment rates increased steadily in the years 2008/09 and 2009/10 than these were in 2010/11. Net intake and enrolment rates also followed the same trend for both sexes. This implied that the woredas and town administrations were committed to achieve their goals in the earlier times of the project's implementation.

The development of intake and enrolment rates also revealed that the town administrations were favored in attaining NIR and NER as well as female participation in primary schools. In the rural woredas, however, development of AIR showed the entry age was over-estimated. On the other hand, much is left with net intake and enrolment rates, particularly in the rural administrative areas. Since AIR was higher than NIR in these areas, much endeavor is demanded to change this scenario.

2. Gender gap narrowed through time, but resource distribution varied.

The issue of equity is well addressed in the study areas and participation rate favors female children. The expansion of primary education has gone hand in hand with progress towards ensuring gender equality. Having adopted some policies aimed at strengthening gender parity within some strategies for achieving universal primary education, the woredas and town administrations were able to narrow the gap. Hence, analysis of data on equity with regard to gender and provision of opportunities revealed that the issue of gender equity was addressed more in the study areas in the past years. Except in rural woredas where the GPI was around 0.8 (Damot Fullasa), the girls were favored more in all other units. However, disparities were observed among the administrative areas in terms of provision of opportunities. Apart from low growth rate of primary schools in all administrative units, it was found that the schools in the rural areas recruit pupils from wider areas and hence they were less represented by schools (0.8). Moreover, the town administrations were favored in having human and material resources such as teachers (both qualified and non-qualified) and textbooks and facilities.

3. Internal efficiency left unchanged.

Dropout and repetition rates had been worrying even in the implementation period of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project. In grade 1, where the children automatically promote to the next grade, it was not possible to tackle the repetition rate. So, roughly 4% of grade 1 students was dropping out in each year. As a result, the cohort of students moving through the education system remained unchanged.

Both repetition and dropout rates were also threatening the efficiency of general primary education. The attempts made to lower the dropout rate to 5% in (or before) 2010/11 was not achieved in any of the study areas under consideration, and hence, far from reaching. More seriously, dropout rate caused wastage in all woredas and town administrations.

4. Quality still demands much effort.

Analysis of quality in terms of material and human resources (or inputs) showed that the improvements achieved were not satisfactory and varying among the administrative areas by levels. The town administrations were better in having teacher inputs for both first and second level primary schools. However, the rural woredas were in big demand of teachers, particularly the PQTR became quite worrying in the first cycle (The ratio ranged between 1091 (Bolosso Bombe-rural) to 158 (Sodo Town Administration-urban). Due to crowdedness of sections, a teacher in the rural woreda had to attend about 10 more pupils than a teacher in the town administrations did. Further, the pupil-textbook ratio ranged between 1:3 to 1:7 among the administrative areas.

5. Financial and administrative constraints were holding up implementation.

The school Mapping and Micro Planning Project put the local community in the heart since very beginning of its planning assuming that it would enable to create the sense of ownership and responsibility. So, the community had dual roles to play: finance and administer through its representatives (PTA and KETMB). Analysis of the data revealed, however, the finance generated from the community in any form (i.e. in kind or cash) decreased in all administrative areas. The participation of community representatives also

withdrew through time as the principals did not actively involve them in decisions to be made in relation to the School Mapping and Micro Planning project. Consequently, it was not possible to achieve the goals the community participation in financial contribution was highly demanded.

Apart from financial constraints, challenges and prospects of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project's implementation were greatly tied with the administrative aspects of education organizations. As the study revealed, the administrators at the woreda/town administration and school level were not working in collaboration. At the school level, while the principals were blamed for not involving the community representatives (PTA and KETMB), who also had a lot to do in school administration, the PTA and KETMB were not committed to discharge their roles. Due to high turnover, the new replacements know a little about the project; there were no meetings or experience sharing opportunities to make all concerned bodies aware of the project's end goals. Moreover, political heads of WEOs were also new to their current posts and hence provide little support for those who needed. These altogether with lack of motivation limited the success unlikely at the intended time.

Further, the status of planners and administrators at the woreda/town administration and school level (principals, PTA and KETMB) in terms of skill, experience, awareness of the project, motivation and retention was quite promising for planning for education development and implementation of such plans in the bottom-up modality. The kebele chairpersons (or mayors in the town administrations), who are the KETMB chairpersons as well, are all professionals. Meanwhile, the PTA chairpersons are literate and have an idea of the project's goal, i.e. achieving UPE by or before 2008 E.C. The planning experts in WEOs are also qualified in educational planning/administration, and well-familiar with the activities in education organizations. Hence, effective utilization of these human resources

by extracting their skill and experiences will significantly facilitate implementation of education development plans at lower levels and enable to attain UPE apart from promoting education development in the grassroots level.

5.3. Recommendations

1. Trends of intake rate showed that an unusual event (NIR exceeding 100%) was observed in some woredas while it should not be so in reality. The high AIR observed might be due to either of these two reasons. One is it shows that the administrations with high AIR had worked well to bring over aged and out-of-school children to schools during the year. On the contrary, it may mean the opportunity for education of children of correct age is blocked. This forces the official age children to pass their time out of school thus leading the administrations with high AIR to get into circular problem of enrolling large number of over aged students each year. Therefore, I recommend that woredas having AIR much exceeding 100% take timely measures such as expanding existing schools and building new ones so as to create enough place to enroll both over-aged and official-aged children simultaneously. Meanwhile, administrations with low AIR, particularly with less than 100%, should employ awareness creating and advocacy strategies to bring the out-of-school children to schools so that the end result of all attempts should be the achievement of the goal which is “Universal Primary Education” by or before 2015. The woredas and Town administration having low NER should also work at their best pace to make adjustment for the poor performance they experienced in capturing students at the right age.
2. The fact that the rural woredas were not well represented by schools and the schools in these administrative areas recruit school children from wider areas implied there is

yet a demand of schools. Hence, the administrators of woredas and town administrations should make unrestricted effort to involve the local community, government and non-government organizations, private sectors and development associations on voluntary basis in supplying more primary schools. The administrators at the woreda/town administration level have to make the PTA and KETMB at the center of community mobilization to steer the activities. Meanwhile, the strategies of School Mapping and Micro Planning should always be in center of planning to open new schools or expanding the existing ones.

3. Getting children into primary school is just the first of many hurdles. A large number of children enter school late, drop out early and never complete a full cycle. These were causing wastage in the primary schools of the study woredas/town administrations even after implementation of the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project. Hence, the administrators of education organizations in WEOs and schools should keep on putting targets to reduce dropout and repetition rates by consensus with the teachers in their respective administrative areas.
4. The number of teacher workforce increased in such a way that the pupil/teacher ratio was improved during the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project's implementation. Despite this progress, shortage of qualified teachers remained a challenge particularly in the first cycle of primary schools. Therefore, the regional government and the lower administrations should give emphasis to qualify primary teachers according to the contemporary and revised policy requirement by getting additional resources from aid organizations.

5. In spite of the fact that the primary schools were getting better facilitated in the recent times, the pupil-Section Ratio and Pupil-Textbook Ratio were still worrying. Hence, the administrators at the region education bureau have to allocate school grants in such a way that the rural woredas in serious lack of facilities can be benefitted better. At the woreda/town administration levels, the administrators should give priority for improving the school conditions, and spend the finance generated from various sources on building more classrooms to bring the ratio down and improve the teaching learning condition. At the zone level, the supervisory staff and education department head have to devise mechanism of experience sharing among the woredas/town administration so that the good practices of resource generation(or development) and community participation techniques can be scaled up besides allocating resources fairly. Meanwhile, the region education bureau should involve private contractors to print and publish more textbooks so as to facilitate the students learning as it is the only resource for the students learning.
6. The analysis of data in preceding sections revealed there has been high staff turnover of the personnel at woreda/town administration and school levels. Most of the primary school principals were new to their positions. Even though the planning and administration personnel are all qualified, they are looking for advancements. As the KETMB representatives who are assumed to play key roles in micro level plan's implementation were trained in non-education fields and less experienced, their awareness about the project is limited. Besides, provision of trainings and experience sharing meetings are less frequent/likely at the lower levels. This in turn minimizes cooperation among these concerned bodies. Therefore, the head of education department in zone education level through close collaboration with region education bureau should conduct trainings based on need assessment of the

personnel at the lower levels so as to raise awareness of the newly assigned replacements. In the meantime, the woreda/town administration education offices officers have to include strategies of motivating the planning and administration staff by recognizing their good performances. This might be done by working jointly with the supervisory staff. Further, the pre-service trainings provided for principals should be kept up with more quotas every year, and there must be consensus with the trainees to stay in the schools where they got scholarship for training for few years.

7. On top of these, the strategies recognized by the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project should be strengthened and kept up in pace so as to achieve the goals of the project as it was intended. More specifically, the planners and administrators of education organizations at all levels should sustain implementation of the strategies like celebration of “School Week” and adopted policies aimed at strengthening gender parity within the wider strategy for achieving universal primary education. These strategies brought success in bringing children irrespective of age and sex in the earlier periods of the project’s implementation and, if kept up, will facilitate achievement of increasing participation rate and closing gender gap in all administrative areas apart from mobilizing community to finance schools.

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[illegible]

1.3. Dropout Rate by Level and Sex, 2007/08-2010/11

Woredas	Years	Grade 1			Grade 1-4			Grade 5-8			Grade 1-8		
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Sodo	2007/08												
	2008/09												
	2009/10												
	2010/11												
Areka	2007/08												
	2008/09												
	2009/10												
	2010/11												
D/Woyde	2007/08												
	2008/09												
	2009/10												
	2010/11												
B/Bombe	2007/08												
	2008/09												
	2009/10												
	2010/11												
D/Pullasa	2007/08												
	2008/09												
	2009/10												
	2010/11												

1.4. Repetition Rate by Level and Sex, 2007/08-2010/11

[illegible]

1.5. Pupil-(Qualified) Teacher Ratio in Primary Schools, 2007/08-2010/11

[illegible]

1.6. Pupil-Section Ratio by grade and year, 2007/08-2010/11

[illegible]

1.7. Pupil Textbook Ratio by grade and year, 2010/11

[illegible]

Tot st= total number of students TB Av= total number of textbooks available

1.8. Number of primary schools by Cycle, 2007/08-2010/11

[illegible]

Appendix II

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ
ድህረ ምረቃ ት/ቤት
የትምህርት ጥናትና ምርምር ተቋም

አዲስ አበባ

የትምህርት ቤቶችን ሥርጭትና ያማልተማከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ ትግበራ በሚመለከት
በት/ጽ/ቤት የልማት ዕቅድ፣ ክትትልና ግምገማ ባለሙያ ወይም ተወካይ የሚሞላ የጽሁፍ መጠይቅ

ወድ መረጃ ሰጪ

የዚህ የጽሁፍ መጠይቅ ዓላማ፣ በወላይታ ዞን ውስጥ ባሉት ወረዳዎችና የከተማ አስተዳደሮች የትምህርት ሴክተሮች በትምህርት ቤቶች ስርጭትና ባልተማከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ ዝግጅት ፕሮጀክት ትግበራ በመጀመሪያ ደረጃ የትምህርት አቅርቦት፣ ፍትሀዊነት፣ ውስጣዊ ብቃት እና ጥራት ላይ ያመጣውን ለውጥና በትግበራ ወቅት ያጋጠሙትን ችግሮች ለማሳሰብ፣ ከዚሁም በመነሳት በ2008 ዓ.ም ጥራት ያለውን የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ የትምህርት ለሁሉም በትምህርት ዕድሜ ለማግኘት ህፃናት ለማድረስ የተያዘ ዕቅድ ለማካከት የማይስችል አቅጣጫ ለመጠየቅም ለማድረግ ውጥናትና ምርምር መረጃ ለማሳተፍ ነው፡

በመጠይቁ ውስጥ የተካተቱት የተለያዩ ጥያቄዎች የሚመለከቱት በጋራ ወይም በተናጠል በቀረቡ ላቸው መመሪያዎች መሠረት ነው፡ ስለሆነም፣ በመመሪያዎቹ መሰረት እያንዳንዱን ጥያቄ በማንበብ፣ እንዳለብዎት ኃላፊነትና እርስዎ በተገነዘቡት መሠረት ትክክለኛ የሆኑትን መልሶች በማምረጥ ወይም በመጻፍ እንዲተባበሩኝ በአክብሮት እጠይቃለሁ፡

የጥናቱ ወጠቃ፣ ለዘናዊ የትምህርት ልማት ዕቅድ ዝግጅት፣ ክትትልና ግምገማ እንዲሁም በክልልና በሀገራቀፍ ደረጃ ለማዋጡ ፖሊሲዎች በግብዓትነት ከማስፈጸም ባለፈ ለሌላ ተግባር በጥቅም ላይ የሚውል ባለመሆኑና የመረጃ ሰጪ ማንነትና አመለካከት ለማንም የማይገለጽ ስለሆነ ሀቀኛና ተገቢ መረጃ እንዲሰጡ በድጋሚ እጠይቃለሁ፡

ወድ ጊዜዎትን ሰውተዉ መረጃ በመስጠት ላደረጉልኝ ትብብር ከወዲሁ ክልብ እመስግናለሁ፡

መንግስቱ ላማሮ

ታህሳስ፣ 2004 ዓ.ም

ክፍል 1: አጠቃላይ መረጃ

1. የወረዳዎ ስም: _____
2. የመረጃ ሰጪዎ ኮድ: _____ ስም: _____ (በሣጥኑ ውስጥ የ 'X' ምልክት ያድርጉ)
3. የትምህርት ደረጃ: (በሣጥኖቹ ውስጥ የ X ምልክት ያድርጉ)
 - i. ስርቴፊኬት (10/12+1) ☐
 - iii. የመጀመሪያ ዲግሪ ☐
 - ii. ዲፕሎማ ☐
 - iv. ሙያተኛ ዲግሪ ☐

4. የትምህርት ደረጃዎ ሴርቲፊኬት ወይም ኪዳን በላይ ከሆነ፤ የሠለጠኑበት የትምህርት ዓይነት፡

I. በመምህርነት ☐

ii. በትምህርት አስተዳደር ☐

iii. በሌሎች የስልጠና መስኮች ☐

5. አሁን በያዙት መደብ እየሠሩ የቆዩበት ጊዜ (አንዱን ያክቡት)

ሀ. ከ5 ዓመት በታች ለ. 5-10 ዓመት ሐ. 11-15 ዓመት መ. ከ15 ዓመት በላይ

6. ወደአሁኑ ኃላፊነት ከመጡ በኋላ፤ በትምህርት ቤቶች ስርጭትና ያልተሟሉ የትምህርት

ዕቅድ አተገባበር ዙሪያ የወሰዱት ስልጠና አለ?

ሀ. አዎን ለ. የለም

7. ለ6ኛ ጥያቄ መልስዎ አዎን ከሆነ፤ የወሰዱት ስልጠና ለሥራዎ ስኬት ያበረከተዉ

አስተዋጽኦ ምን ያህል ነበር?

ሀ. በጣም ጠቃሚ ለ. በተወሰነ መልኩ ጠቃሚ ሐ. ምንም አልጠቀመኝም

8. ለ7ኛ ጥያቄ የመረጡት መልስ ለ ወይም ሐ ከሆነ፤ ምክንያቱ ምንድን ነዉ? _____

9. በትምህርት ልማት ዕቅድ ዝግጅት፤ ክትትልና ግምገማ የሥራ ሂደት ከሚከናወኗቸዉ ተግባራት መካከል ይበልጥ ከባድ ሆኖ ያገኙት የቱነዉ? _____

ለምን? _____

10. በሥራዎ/ኃላፊነትዎ ደስተኛ ኖት? _____ ካልሆኑ፤ ለምን? _____

11. ወደአሁኑ ኃላፊነት/መደብ ከመጡ በኋላ፤ መደብዎን/ኃላፊነትዎን ለመቀየር አስበዉ ያወቃሉ?

ሀ. አዎን፤ በት/ጽ/ቤት ውስጥ መደብ ለማግኘት

ለ. አዎን፤ ወደሌላ ሴክተር ለመሃወር

ሐ. ለመቀየር አልሞከርኩም

መ. ስለዚህ ጉዳይ አስቤ አላወቅም

12. በዓመት ውስጥ በአማካይ ስንት ጊዜ ከዞን/ክልል ትምህርት ልማት ዕቅድ ዝግጅት፤ ክትትልና

ግምገማ የሥራ ሂደት ጋር ስብሰባ አካሂደዋል? _____

ክፍል ሁለት፡ በት/ቤቶች ስርጭትና ባልተማከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ ትግበራ ዙሪያ የተዘጋጁ ጥያቄዎች

13. በወረዳው ውስጥ ትምህርትን ለሁሉም የማድረስን ግብ ለማሳካት በሚደረገው ጥረት ተሳትፎ የሚያደርጉ መንግስታዊና መንግስታዊ ያልሆኑ ድርጅቶች/ተቋማት አሉ?

ሀ . አዎን ለ . የሉም

14. ለ13ኛ ጥያቄ መልስዎ ሀ (አዎን) ከሆነ፣ በት/ቤቶች ስርጭትና ባልተማከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ ትግበራ የነበራቸው ድጋፍ እንዴት ነበር?

ሀ . ከፍተኛ ለ . መካከለኛ ሐ . ዝቅተኛ

15. በወረዳዎ፣ በት/ቤቶች ስርጭትና ባልተማከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ ትግበራ ወቅት የህብረተሰቡ ተሳትፎ (በጉልበት፣ በገንዘብ፣ በዕውቀት) ከጊዜ ወደጊዜ ያሳየው ዕድገት

ሀ . ከፍተኛ ነበር ለ . መካከለኛ ነበር ሐ . ዝቅተኛ ነበር

16. ያልተማከለ ትምህርት ዕቅድን በወረዳ ደረጃ በማዘጋጀት ከመተግበር አንጻር ሊያጋጥሙ ይችላሉ ተብለው የሚታሰቡ ዕክሎች ቀጥሎተዘርዘረዋል። በተለይም፣ በ2008 ዓ.ም የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርትን ለሁሉም ለማዳረስ በወረዳ ደረጃ ዕቅድ ከማዘጋጀትና ከመተግበር አኳያ፣ ከወረዳዎ ተጨባጭ ሁኔታ በመነሳት ለተጠቀሱት ችግሮች የ'X' ምልክት በማድረግ ደረጃ ይስጧቸዋል። ደረጃዎቹም የሚከተሉት ናቸው፡

1= በጣም ከፍተኛ 2= ከፍተኛ 3= መካከለኛ 4= ዝቅተኛ 5= በጣም ዝቅተኛ

ተ.ቁ	ዝርዝሮች	የችግሮቹ የክብደት ደረጃ				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	የት/ቤቶች በቅርበት አለመኖር	1	2	3	4	5
2	ያሉት ት/ቤቶች የቅበላ አቅማቸው ማነስ	1	2	3	4	5
3	በት/ቤቶች ግንባታና የቁሳቁስ ማሟላት የህብረተሰብ ተሳትፎ መቀነስ	1	2	3	4	5
4	ባቅራቢያ ባለው ት/ቤት የሚሰጠው ትምህርት ጥራት ማነስ	1	2	3	4	5
5	ለትምህርት የሚመደበው በጀት በቂ አለመሆን	1	2	3	4	5
6	ለት/ቤቱ የተመደበ በጀት በጊዜ አለመለቀቅ	1	2	3	4	5
7	መንግስታዊ ያልሆኑ ድርጅቶች ድጋፍ አለመኖር	1	2	3	4	5
8	የርዕስ መምህራን የትምህርት ዕቅድና ፋይናንስ የማስተዳደር ብቃት ማነስ	1	2	3	4	5
9	የወመህ ወይም የትምህርትና ሥልጠና ቦርድ አባላት በሀላፊነት ስሜት አለመስራት	1	2	3	4	5
10	የወመህ ወይም የትምህርትና ሥልጠና ቦርድ አባላትን በትምህርት ሥራ በበቂ ሁኔታ አለማሳተፍ	1	2	3	4	5
11	ከወረዳ/ከተማ አስተዳደር የት/ጽ/ቤት የሚደረግ ድጋፍ በቂ አለመሆን	1	2	3	4	5

17. የትምህርት ቤቶችን ሥርጭትና ያልተማከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ በመተግበር የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርትን ለሁሉም ከማዳረስ አንፃር የመጀጋጠሙ ሌሎች ፈታኝ ሁኔታዎች/ችግሮች ካሉ ይጥቀሷቸዋል፡

ሀ. _____
 ለ. _____
 ሐ. _____

18. ችግሮቹን ለመፍታትና የትምህርት ቤቶች ስርጭትና ያልተማከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ በመተግበር በ2008 ዓ.ም የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርትን ለሁሉም ለማዳረስ መወሰድ ስላለባቸው ርምጃዎች አስተያየት ቢሰጡ፡

ሀ. _____
 ለ. _____
 ሐ. _____

-----አበቃ-----

Appendix III

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ድህረ ምረቃ ት/ቤት የትምህርት ጥናትና ምርምር ተቋም አዲስ አበባ

በመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶች ርዕሳነ መምህራን የሚሞላ የፅሁፍ መጠይቅ

ወድ መረጃ ሰጪ

የዚህ የጽሁፍ መጠይቅ ዓላማ በወላይታ ዞን ውስጥ ባሉት ወረዳዎችና የከተማ አስተዳደሮች የትምህርት ሴክተሮች በትምህርት ቤቶች ስርጭትና ባልተመለሰ የትምህርት ዕቅድ ዝግጅት ፕሮጀክት ትግበራ በመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርት አቅርቦት፣ ፍትህዊነት፣ ውስጣዊ ብቃት እና ጥራት ላይ ያመጣውን ለውጥና በትግበራ ወቅት ያጋጠሙትን ችግሮች ለማሰብ፣ ከዚሁም በመሳሳት በ2008 ዓ.ም ጥራት ያለውን የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርት ለሁሉም በትምህርት ዕድሜ ለሚገኙ ህፃናት ለማድረስ የተያዘ ዕቅድ ለማካካት የሚያስችል አቅጣጫ ለመጠየቅም ለማድረግ ወጥናትና ምርምር መረጃ ለማሰባሰብ ነው፡

በመጠይቁ ውስጥ የተካተቱት የተለያዩ ጥያቄዎች የሚጥሉት በጋራ ወይም በተናጠል በቀረቡላቸው መመሪያዎች መሠረት ነው፡ ስለሆነም፣ በመመሪያዎቹ መሰረት እያንዳንዱን ጥያቄ በማንበብ፣ እንዳለብዎት ኃላፊነትና እርስዎ በተገነዘቡት መሠረት ትክክለኛ የሆኑትን መልሶች በመምረጥ ወይም በመጻፍ እንዲተባበሩኝ በእክብሮት እጠይቃለሁ፡

የጥናቱ ውጤት፣ ለዞናዊ የትምህርት ልማት ዕቅድ ዝግጅት፣ ከትትልና ግምገማ እንዲሁም በክልልና በሀገራቀፍ ደረጃ ለማወቁ ፖሊሲዎች በግብዓትነት ከማስገልጻል ባለፈ ለሌላ ተግባር በጥቅም ላይ የሚውል ባለመሆኑና የመረጃ ሰጪ ማንነትና አመለካከት ለማንም የማይገለጽ ስለሆነ ሀቀኛና ተገቢ መረጃ እንዲሰጡ በድጋሚ እጠይቃለሁ፡

ወድ ጊዜዎትን ሰወተዉ መረጃ በመስጠት ላደረጉልኝ ትብብር ከወዲሁ ከልብ አመሰግናለሁ፡

መንግስቱ ላሚኖ

ታህሳስ፣ 2004 ዓ.ም

ክፍል 1: አጠቃላይ መረጃ

- የት/ቤቱ ስም: _____
- የመረጃ ሰጪዎች ኮድ: _____ ያታ: ወ ☐ ሴ ☐ (በሣጥኑ ውስጥ የ 'X' ምልክት ያድርጉ)
- ትምህርት ደረጃ: (በሣጥኖቹ ውስጥ የX ምልክት ያድርጉ)

i. ስርጭት (10/12+1) ☐ iii. የመጀመሪያ ዲግሪ ☐

ii. ዲፕሎማ ☐

iv. ማስተርስ ዲግሪ ☐

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4. የትምህርት ደረጃዎ ሴርቲፊኬት ወይም ☐ በላይ ከሆነ፣ የሠላጠኑበት የትምህርት ዓይነት፡

I, በማህርነት

ii. በትምህርት አስተዳደር ☐

iii. በሌሎች የስልጠና መስኮች ☐

5. በርዕሰ ማህርነት የቆዩበት ጊዜ (አንዱን ያክቡት)

ሀ. ከ5 ዓመት በታች ለ. 5-10 ዓመት ሐ. 11-15 ዓመት መ. ከ15 ዓመት በላይ

6. ወደአሁኑ ኃላፊነት ከመጡ በኋላ፣ በትምህርት ቤቶች ስርጭትና ያልተሟላ የትምህርት ዕቅድ አተገባበር ዙሪያ የወሰዱት ስልጠና አለ?

ሀ. አዎን

ለ. የለም

7. ለ6ኛ ጥያቄ መልስዎ **አዎን** ከሆነ፣ የወሰዱት ስልጠና፣ ለሥራዎ ስኬት ያበረከተዉ አስተዋጽኦ ምን ያህል ነበር?

ሀ. በጣም ጠቃሚ ለ. በተወሰነ መልኩ ጠቃሚ ሐ. ምንም አልጠቀመኝም

8. ለ7ኛ ጥያቄ የሚጠቁ መልስ **ለ** ወይም **ሐ** ከሆነ፣ ምክንያቱ ምንድን ነዉ? _____

9. በርዕሰ ማህርነትዎ ከመከናወኗቸዉ ተግባራት መካከል፣ ይበልጥ ከባድ ሆኖ ያገኙት የቱ ነዉ? _____

ለምን? _____

10. በዓመት በአማካይ ስንት ጊዜ በትምህርት ዕቅድና ትግበራ ዙሪያ **ከወላጅ ጋር** ስብሰባ ያካሂዳሉ? _____

11. በዓመት በአማካይ ስንት ጊዜ በትምህርት ዕቅድና ትግበራ ዙሪያ **ከትምህርትና ሥልጠና ቦርድ አባላት ጋር** ስብሰባ ያካሂዳሉ? _____

12. በሥራዎ/ኃላፊነትዎ ደስተኛ ኖት? _____ ካልሆኑ፣ ለምን? _____

13. ወደአሁኑ ኃላፊነት ከመጡ በኋላ፣ መደብዎን/ኃላፊነትዎን ለመቀየር አስበዉ ያዉቃሉ?

ሀ. አዎን፤ በት/ጽ/ቤት ወስጥ መደብ ለማግኘት

ለ. አዎን፤ ወደሌላ ሴክተር ለመዛወር

ሐ. ለመቀየር አልሞከርኩም

መ. ስለዚህ ጉዳይ አስቤ አላወቅም

13. ያልተማከለ ትምህርት ዕቅድን በወረዳ ደረጃ በማዘጋጀት ከመተግበር አንጻር ሊያጋጥሙ ይችላሉ ተብለው የሚታሰቡ ዕክሎች ቀጥሎተዘርዘረዋል። በተለይም፣ በ2008 ዓ.ም የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርትን ለሁሉም ለማዳረስ በወረዳ ደረጃ ዕቅድ ከማዘጋጀትና ከመተግበር አኳያ፣ ከወረዳዎ ተጨባጭ ሁኔታ በመነሳት ለተጠቀሱት ችግሮች የ'X' ምልክት በማድረግ ደረጃ ይስጧቸዋል። ደረጃዎቹም የሚከተሉት ናቸው፡

1= በጣም ከፍተኛ 2= ከፍተኛ 3= መካከለኛ 4= ዝቅተኛ 5= በጣም ዝቅተኛ

ተ.ቁ	ዝርዝርጥያቸው	የችግሮቹ የከብደት ደረጃ				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	የት/ቤቶች በቅርበት አለመኖር	1	2	3	4	5
2	ያሉት ት/ቤቶች የቅበላ አቅማቸው ማነስ	1	2	3	4	5
3	በት/ቤቶች ግንባታና የቁሳቁስ ማሟላት የህብረተሰብ ተሳትፎ መቀነስ	1	2	3	4	5
4	ባቅራቢያ ባለው ት/ቤት የሚሰጠው ትምህርት ጥራት ማነስ	1	2	3	4	5
5	ለትምህርት የሚመደበው በጀት በቂ አለመሆን	1	2	3	4	5
6	ለት/ቤቱ የተመደበ በጀት በጊዜ አለመለቀቅ	1	2	3	4	5
7	መንግስታዊ ያልሆኑ ድርጅቶች ድጋፍ አለመኖር	1	2	3	4	5
8	የርዕሰ መምህራን የትምህርት ዕቅድና ፋይናንስ የማስተዳደር ብቃት ማነስ	1	2	3	4	5
9	የወመህ ወይም የትምህርትና ሥልጠና በርድ አባላት በሀላፊነት ስሜት አለመስራት	1	2	3	4	5
10	የወመህ ወይም የትምህርትና ሥልጠና በርድ አባላትን በትምህርት ሥራ በበቂ ሁኔታ አለማሳተፍ	1	2	3	4	5
11	ከወረዳ/ከተማ አስተዳደር የት/ጽ/ቤት የሚደረግ ድጋፍ በቂ አለመሆን	1	2	3	4	5

14. የትምህርት ቤቶችን ሥርጭትና ያልተማከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ በመተግበር የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርትን ለሁሉም ከማዳረስ አንፃር የሚያጋጥሙ ሌሎች ፈታኝ ሁኔታዎች/ችግሮች ካሉ ይጥቀሷቸዋል፡፡

ሀ. _____

ለ. _____

ሐ. _____

16. ችግሮቹን ለመፍታትና የትምህርት ቤቶች ስርጭትና ያልተማከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ በመተግበር በ2008

ዓ.ም የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርትን ለሁሉም ለማዳረስ መወሰድ ስላለባቸው ርምጃዎች አስተያየት ቢሰጡ፡፡

ሀ. _____

ለ. _____

ሐ. _____

-----አበቃ-----

Appendix IV

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ

ደህረ ምረቃ ት/ቤት

የትምህርት ጥናትና ምርምር ተቋም

አዲስ አበባ

በወመህና ወይም በትምህርት ሥልጠና ቦርድ አባላት የሚሞላ የጽሁፍ መጠይቅ

መግቢያ

ወድ መረጃ ሰጪ

የዚህ የጽሁፍ መጠይቅ ዓላማ፣ በወላይታ ዞን ውስጥ ባሉት ወረዳዎችና የከተማ አስተዳደሮች የትምህርት ሴክተሮች በትምህርት ቤቶች ስርጭትና ባልተማከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ ዝግጅት ፕሮጀክት ትግበራ በመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርት አቅርቦት፣ ፍትሀዊነት፣ ውስጣዊ ብቃት እና ጥራት ላይ ያመጣውን ለውጥና በትግበራ ወቅት ያጋጠሙትን ችግሮች ለማሰብ፣ ከዚሁም በመነሳት በ2008 ዓ.ም ጥራት ያለውን የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርት ለሁሉም በትምህርት ዕድሜ ለሚገኙ ህፃናት ለማድረስ የተያዘው ዕቅድ ለማሳካት የሚያስችል አቅጣጫ ለመጠቀም ለማድረግ ወጥና ምርምር መረጃ ለማሰባሰብ ነው፡

በመጠይቁ ውስጥ የተካተቱት የተለያዩ ጥያቄዎች የሚመለከቱት በጋራ ወይም በተናጠል በቀረቡላቸው መመሪያዎች መሠረት ነው፡ ስለሆነም፣ በመመሪያዎቹ መሰረት እያንዳንዱን ጥያቄ በማንበብ፣ እንዳለብዎት ኃላፊነትና እርስዎ በተገነዘቡት መሠረት ትክክለኛ የሆኑትን መልሶች በመምረጥ ወይም በመጻፍ እንዲተባበሩኝ በአክብሮት እጠይቃለሁ፡

የጥናቱ ዉጤት፣ ለዞናዊ የትምህርት ልማት ዕቅድ ዝግጅት፣ ክትትልና ግምገማ እንዲሁም በክልልና በሀገራቀፍ ደረጃ ለሚወጡ ፖሊሲዎች በግብዓትነት ከማስገልጻል ባለፈ ለሌላ ተግባር በጥቅም ላይ የሚውል ባለመሆኑና የመረጃ ሰጪ ማንነትና አማካካካት ለማንም የማይገለጽ ስለሆነ ሀቀኛና ተገቢ መረጃ እንዲሰጡ በድጋሚም እጠይቃለሁ፡

ወድ ጊዜዎትን ሰውተዉ መረጃ በመስጠት ላደረጉልኝ ትብብር ከወዲሁ ክልብ አመሰግናለሁ፡

መንግስቱ ላሚኖ

ታህሳስ፣ 2004 ዓ.ም

ክፍል 1: አጠቃላይ መረጃ

1. የት/ቤቱ ስም: _____
 2. የመረጃ ሰጪዉ ኮድ: _____ ያታ: ወ ☐ ሴ ☐ (በሣጥኑ ውስጥ የX ምልክት ያድርጉ)
 3. ኃላፊነት: ወመህ: ሰብሳቢ ☐ አባል ☐
- የወረዳ/ከተማ/ቀበሌ የትምህርትና ሥልጠና ቦርድ: ሰብሳቢ ☐ አባል ☐

4. ትምህርት ደረጃ፡ ምንም ዓይነትም (በሣጥኖቹ ውስጥ 'X' ምልክት ያድርጉ)

i. የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርት ☐

ii. የሁለተኛ ደረጃ ትምህርት ☐

iii. ስርቴፊኬት (10/12+1) ☐

iv. ዲፕሎማ ☐

vi. የመጀመሪያ ዲግሪ ☐

5. የትምህርት ደረጃዎ ሴርቴፊኬት ወይም ከዚያ በላይ ከሆነ፣ የሠለጠኑበት የትምህርት ዓይነት፡

I. በመምህርነት ☐

ii. በትምህርት አስተዳደር ☐

iii. በሌሎች የስልጠና መስኮች ☐

6. በወመህ ወይም በትምህርትና ሥልጠና ቦርድ ኃላፊነት የቆዩበት ጊዜ

ሀ. ከ5 ዓመት በታች ለ. 5-10 ዓመት ሐ. 11-15 ዓመት መ. ከ15 ዓመት በላይ

7. ወደአሁኑ ኃላፊነት ከመጡ በኋላ፣ በትምህርት ቤቶች ስርጭትና ያልተመዘገበ የትምህርት

ዕቅድ አተገባበር ዙሪያ የወሰዱት ስልጠና አለ?

ሀ. አዎን ለ. የለም

8. ለ6ኛ ጥያቄ መልስዎ አዎን ከሆነ፣ የወሰዱት ስልጠና ለሥራዎ ስኬት ያበረከተዉ አስተዋጽኦ ምን

ያህል ነበር?

ሀ. በጣም ጠቃሚ ለ. በተወሰነ መልኩ ጠቃሚ ሐ. ምንም አልጠቀመኝም

9. ለ7ኛ ጥያቄ የመረጠች መልስ ለ ወይም ሐ ከሆነ፣ ምክንያቱ ምንድን ነዉ? _____

10. የት/ቤቱ ርዕሳነ መምህራን በዕቅድ ዝግጅትና ግምገማ ያሳትፏቸዋል?

ሀ. አዎን ለ. የለም

11. በዓመት በአመገብ ስንት ጊዜ በትምህርት ዕቅድና ትግበራ ዙሪያ ከት/ቤቱ ርዕሰ መምህር ጋር ስብሰባ አካሂደዋል? _____

ክፍል ሁለት፡ ቀጥሎ የቀረቡትን ጥያቄዎች በጥሞና በማንበብ እንደየመሠሪያቸዉ መልሷቸዉ፡፡

1. አሁን በያዙት ኃላፊነት መከናወን የሚገባዎት ተግባራት ምን ምን እንደሆኑ ለይተዉ ያወቃሉ?

ሀ. አዎን ለ. የለም

2. በት/ቤት ባለዎት ኃላፊነት ከማከናወኗቸው ተግባራት መካከል፣ ይበልጥ ከባድ ሆኖ ያገኙት የቱ ነዉ? _____
ለምን? _____

3. በሥራዎ/በት/ቤትባለዎትየሥራድርሻናኃላፊነትዎደስተኛኖት? _____ ካልሆኑ፣ ለምን? _____

4. የትምህርትና ስልጠና ቦርድሰ ብሳቢ/አባል ከሆኑ፣ የአሁኑን መደበኛ ሥራዎን ለመቀየር አስበዉ ያወቃሉ?

ሀ. አዎን፤ በት/ጽ/ቤት ውስጥ መደብ ለመገኘት

ለ. አዎን፤ ወደሌላ ሴክተር ለመዛወር

ሐ. ለመቀየር አልሞከርኩም

መ. ስለዚህ ጉዳይ አስቤ አላወቅም

5. ያልተማከለ ትምህርት ዕቅድን በወረዳ ደረጃ በማዘጋጀት ከመተግበር አንጻር ሊያጋጥሙ ይችላሉ ተብለው የሚታሰቡ ዕክሎች ቀጥሎተዘርዘረዋል። በተለይም፣ በ2008 ዓ.ም የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርትን ለሁሉም ለማዳረስ በወረዳ ደረጃ ዕቅድ ከማዘጋጀትና ከመተግበር አኳያ፣ ከወረዳዎ ተጨባጭ ሁኔታ በመነሳት ለተጠቀሱት ችግሮች የ'X' ምልክት በማድረግ ደረጃ ይስጧቸዋል። ደረጃዎቹም የሚከተሉት ናቸው፡

1= በጣም ከፍተኛ 2= ከፍተኛ 3= መካከለኛ 4= ዝቅተኛ 5= በጣም ዝቅተኛ

ተ.ቁ	ዝርዝርችግሮች	የችግሮቹየከብደትደረጃ				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	የት/ቤቶች በቅርበት አለመኖር	1	2	3	4	5
2	ያሉት ት/ቤቶች የቅበላ አቅማቸው ማነስ	1	2	3	4	5
3	በት/ቤቶች ግንባታና የቁሳቁስ ማሟላት የህብረተሰብ ተሳትፎ መቀነስ	1	2	3	4	5
4	ባቅራቢያ ባለው ት/ቤት የሚሰጠው ትምህርት ጥራት ማነስ	1	2	3	4	5
5	ለትምህርት የሚመደበው በጀት በቂ አለመሆን	1	2	3	4	5
6	ለት/ቤቱ የተመደበ በጀት በጊዜ አለመለቀቅ	1	2	3	4	5
7	መንግስታዊ ያልሆኑ ድርጅቶች ድጋፍ አለመኖር	1	2	3	4	5
8	የርዕሰ መምህራን የትምህርት ዕቅድና ፋይናንስ የማስተዳደር ብቃት ማነስ	1	2	3	4	5
9	የወመህ ወይም የትምህርትና ሥልጠና ቦርድ አባላት በሀላፊነት ስሜት አለመስራት	1	2	3	4	5
10	የወመህ ወይም የትምህርትና ሥልጠና ቦርድ አባላትን በትምህርት ሥራ በበቂ ሁኔታ አለማሳተፍ	1	2	3	4	5
11	ከወረዳ/ከተማ አስተዳደር የት/ጽ/ቤት የሚደረግ ድጋፍ በቂ አለመሆን	1	2	3	4	5

6. የትምህርት ቤቶችን ሥርጭትና ያልተማከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ በመተግበር የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርትን ለሁሉም ከማዳረስ አንፃር የሚያጋጥሙ ሌሎች ፈታኝ ሁኔታዎች/ችግሮች ካሉ ይጥቀሷቸዋል።

ሀ. _____

ለ. _____

ሐ. _____

7. ችግሮቹን ለመፍታትና የትምህርት ቤቶች ስርጭትና ያልተማከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ በመተግበር በ2008

ዓ.ም የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርትን ለሁሉም ለማዳረስ መወሰድ ስላለባቸው ርምጃዎች አስተያየት

ቢሰጡ፡

ሀ. _____

ለ. _____

ሐ. _____

-----አበቃ-----

Appendix V

በትምህርት ቤቶች ሥርጭትና ባልተመከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ ዝግጅት ዙሪያ

ከዞን የትምህርት መመሪያ ኃላፊ ጋር የሚደረግ ቃለ መጠይቅ

- ኃላፊነት: _____
- በሃላፊነት የቆዩበት ጊዜ: _____
- የትምህርት ደረጃ: _____
- የሰለጠኑበት የትምህርት መስክ: _____

1. በ2008 ዓ.ም የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርትን ለሁሉም ከሚዳረስ (UPE) አንጻር በዞኑ ውስጥ ያሉ ወረዳዎችና የከተማ አስተዳደሮች ምን ደረጃ ላይ ናቸው?
2. በዞኑና ዞኑ ውስጥ ባሉት ወረዳዎችና የከተማ አስተዳደሮች ለዚሁ ዕቅድ ስኬት ተብሎ የተዘጋጀው የት/ቤቶች ስርጭትና ያልተመከለ ዕቅድ ምን ያህል ተግባራዊ? ዕቅዱን ለማካካት የተጠቀሟቸው ስልቶች ምን ምን ናቸው?
3. በት/ቤቶች ስርጭትና ያልተመከለ የትምህርት ልማት ዕቅድ ትግበራ የተገኙ ወጣቶችን ቢጠቅሱልኝ፤ ማለትም:
 - የትምህርትን ሽፋን ከማሳደግ አንጻር
 - ፍህዊነትን ከሚረጋገጥ አንጻር
 - ብቃትን ከሚረጋገጥ አንጻር
 - ጥራትን ከማስጠበቅ አኳያ
 - በየደረጃው ያሉትን የትምህርት አመራሮችና ባለሙያዎች አቅም ከመገንባት አንጻር
4. በዕቅዱ አተገባበር ወቅት ያጋጠሙ ዋና ዋና ችግሮች ምን ምን ነበሩ? ችግሮቹን ለመቅረፍ የወሰዱት ርምጃዎች ምንድን ነው?
5. በየደረጃው ባሉት የአስተዳደር መዋቅሮች አገራዊ፣ ክልላዊና ዞናዊ ተጨማሪ ሁኔታዎችን ከግንዛቤ በማስገባት ለትምህርት ግቦች ስኬት በቁርጠኝነት መሥራት የሚችል የትምህርት አመራሮችና ባለሙያዎች አሉ ብለው ያስባሉ? አቅማቸውን ለማስፈጸም ምን አተደረገ ነው?
6. በአጠቃላይ ያልተመከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ ጠቀሜታ አንዴት ይገልፀዋል? ወደፊት የመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ትምህርትን ለሁሉም የሚዳረስ ግብ ለማካካት የትምህርት ቤቶች ስርጭትና ያልተመከለ የትምህርት ዕቅድ ትግበራ በምን መልኩ መቀጠል አለበት ይላሉ? ከስካሁን ትግበራውስ ምን ተማራችሁ?
7. በ2008 ዓ.ም ወይም ከዚያ በፊት አቅዱን ማካካት ይቻላል ብለው ያስባሉ? ቀሪ ሥራዎች ካሉ ስሜትና አንዴት ይሠራሉ?

አጠቃላይ አስተያየት _____

-----አበቃ-----

ቲ ዕድላትህን ጽኑፊዎህን

ከህግግግ ለገረገረ ህግግ ህግግ

[illegible][illegible]

ረወ ነ ሪፖርተሃ አጩ ህቲሀህ ያመህ ኒውክሮቂሃ ረህህህዕ ወህሁ ላሃ ቷቆመህህ
አታግንመሃ ተጋሎቴ ዕ ቅሁ ላቺኸዕ ተሥራመ ተነኢህጋቅሁ ተህህ ቷሀጦ ተጋሎቴህ ተኮነሄህሀ
ሀዘኔሀህ ኢትዮፋን-ባ ጭማቶ ቅድስ አቅህህል፤ ቅግሊሃ ተቅጋቆመ ጋጽጽተህህ ዕ ተህህ ወጀጉሪሀሀ .

ከዚህ በፊት ለጥያቄው የተሰጠው ምረቃ ምርመራ ሲያደርግ ለጥያቄው የተሰጠው ምረቃ ምርመራ ሲያደርግ

- ፆኅሃ ቂ ሀሀ ሃፎሀ ራራጉሐ •
- ጋ ጸ ራ ሃ ሐ ሪ ገፎሀ ራራፋሆ •
- ጋ ጸ ራ ሃ ሐ ሪ ገፎሀ ራራ ላከበኃ •
- ጋ ጸ ራ ሃ ሐ ጆ ሃፎሀ ራራህ ራራጋጠፉት ላ •

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[illegible][illegible][illegible]

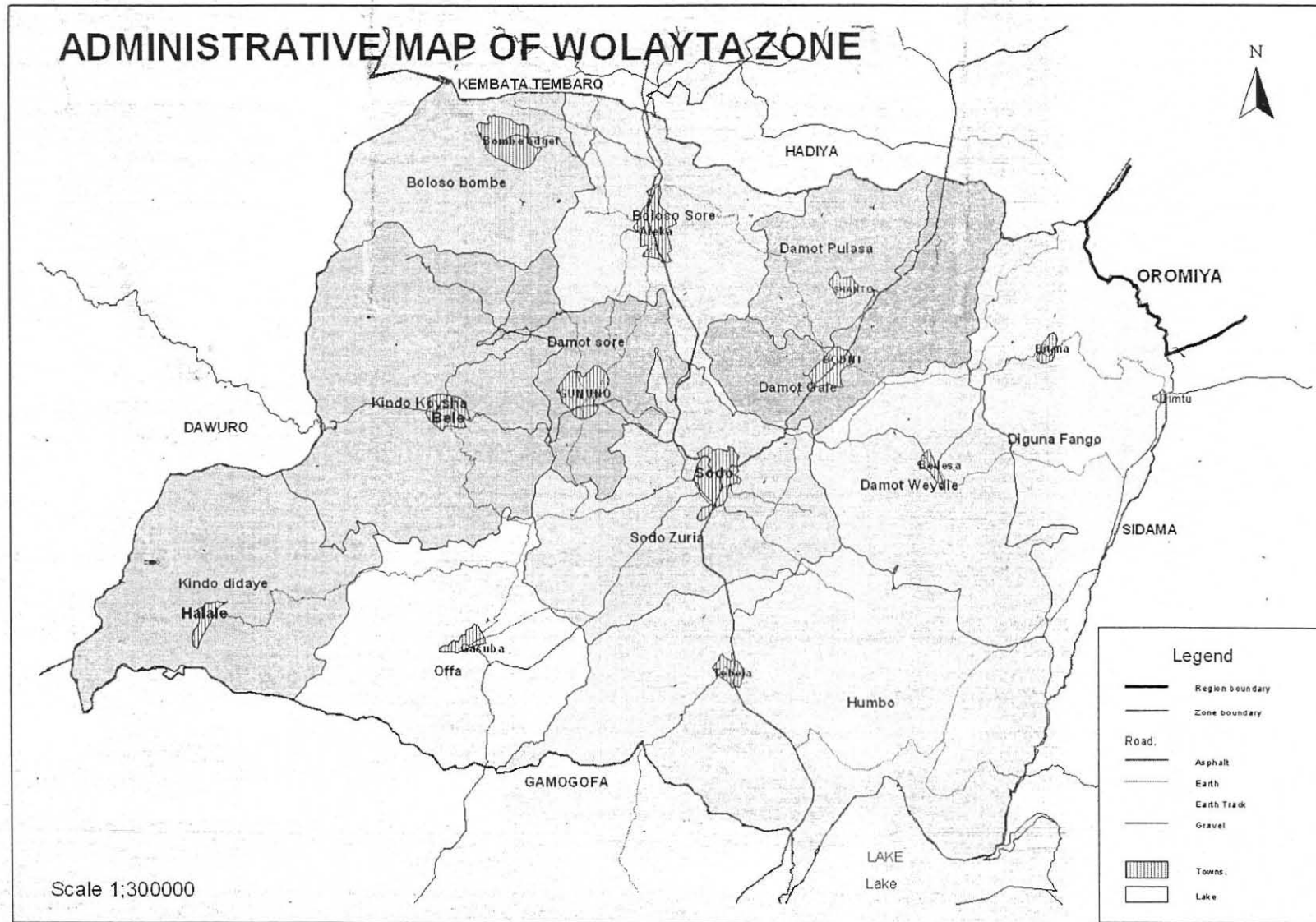
- :ሀገራዊ ትጋቢታዊ ልማት ሚኒስቴር
 :ፌዴራል ልማት ሚኒስቴር
 (ፌዴራል ልማት ሚኒስቴር ስራ ሚኒስቴር)
 ልማት ሚኒስቴር ስራ ሚኒስቴር ስራ ሚኒስቴር
 : ስራ ሚኒስቴር ስራ ሚኒስቴር ስራ ሚኒስቴር
 : ስራ ሚኒስቴር ስራ ሚኒስቴር ስራ ሚኒስቴር

फ़ैलाना

ህፍ ሌገጼዕ ጋር ተፈግህሩ ተህ/ጸ ተቃህ/ቲ ዕ ጋጽክተህሃ ሌተህ ዕ/ክገወህ

ፊጋዝ ተጅግሎ ያቀፀ ተጋባብቶ ለህይወቱ ሁሉም ጉዳዮች ተጋባብሮ

Appendix VII



Declaration

I, Mengistu Lamaro, declare that the thesis entitled "Achievements, Challenges and Prospects in Implementing the School Mapping and Micro Planning Project: the Case of Wolayta Zone" is the novel record of the independent research work carried out by me under the supervision and guidance of Professor Derebssa Dufera. This has not been submitted earlier elsewhere for the award of any diploma, degree or fellowship.



Mengistu Lamaro

June 26, 2012

Advisor's Certificate

I certify that the thesis entitled "Achievements, Challenges and Prospects in Implementing School Mapping and Micro Planning Project: the Case of Wolayta Zone" is the original record of independent research work carried out by Mengistu Lamaro under my supervision and guidance. This has not been submitted earlier elsewhere for the award of any diploma, degree or fellowship.

Prof. Derebssa Dufera

June 26, 2012