

**DECENTRALIZATION AND QUALITY ASSURANCE IN THE
UGANDAN PRIMARY EDUCATION SECTOR**

THESIS

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ABSTRACT

The study presented in this thesis is a case study analysis of decentralization and quality assurance in a decentralized set up of the Ugandan Primary Schooling. The research looked at how the monitoring and evaluation informed the policy formulation process to regulate quality assurance in a decentralized governance of primary education. The Study was positioned in the critical realist paradigm, interpretive in orientation and used both coding and thematic techniques to understand the teachers', SMC members', and officers' (at district and ministry levels) experiences and perceptions of quality assurance in a decentralized set up. Data was gathered using interviews, document analysis and observation methods.

The findings indicated that the study was affected by eleven themes: Management System and Leadership, Human Resource Management, Finance Administration and Management, Parenting and Nutrition, Politics, Motivation, Social Structures and Patterns, Legislative Process and Policies, Infrastructure Development and Management, Community Involvement in Education and Curriculum and Professionalism. The monitoring and evaluation system had a framework in which it operates, though there was no quality assurance policy to guide the provision of quality education.

The study finally indicated that there are more threats in a decentralized set up that put Quality in danger. Secondly, there was absence of supervision/inspection in schools as there was no evidence to prove this due to absence of reports. However, document analysis indicated visits of officers to schools. Records management was a problem to schools. Decentralization was adopted at different levels by different countries to address specific problems identified in view of service delivery. Finally, though monitoring and evaluation results informed the policy and decision makers, there was no quality assurance policy to guide the provision of quality education in institutions.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mother the late **Hajat Jaliyat Namatovu (RIP)** whose effort to see me through this far did not wait.

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Map of Uganda showing its districts and neighboring countries (Sudan, Kenya, Tanzania, Rwanda, and the Democratic Republic of Congo). The map is color-coded by region: West Nile, Northern, Western, South Western, Central, Eastern, and North Eastern. Major districts labeled include Kiboga, Nakaseke, Kibale, Kyenjojo, Mubende, Mityana, Kampala, Mukono, Jinja, Iganga, Namutumba, Budaka, Pallisa, Kumi, Soroti, Katakwi, Nakapiripiri, Moroto, Abim, Kotido, Kaabong, Kitgum, Pader, Lira, Oyam, Gulu, Amoro, Nebbi, Arua, Nyadri, Koboko, Yumbe, Moyo, Adjumani, and Kasese. An inset map shows Uganda's location in East Africa. A compass rose and a scale bar (0-120 km) are also present. A legend at the bottom right defines the regional color coding.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Context of Research

The desire to have quality education (QE) in any educational system of any nation is both a national and international concern. This is reflected in the national budgets of most countries (Wolf, 2002, p.16 Taylor, 2003, p.90). For example in 2004: Thailand spent 27.5%; United Arab Emirates spent 22.5%; Ethiopia spent 20.4%; Morocco spent 27.8%; Kenya spent 29.2%; Oman spent 26.1%; Hong Kong, China spent 23.3% and Salvador spent 20.0% of the total government public expenditure excluding foreign aid on education (World Bank, 2006;pp.84 - 87). In the context of Uganda, the Government of Uganda (GOU) spent about 30% of the national budget on education (FY. 2004/2005) given the twenty ministries it has to support. Of the 30%, over 65% of the funds were invested in the primary education sector but decreasing steadily. (Ministry of Education and Sports [MOES], 2005 p.i) in the subsequent financial years table I (below) shows it all.

According to the education Mid-Term Budget Framework (MTBF), Uganda has spent in an undulating range of 17.5% to 11.1% on education (in a period of 11 years) compared to the national budget including donor funding. Out of this, primary education consumes the percentages indicated in table 1 below.

Table 1: National budget indicative figures (in Ugandan shillings)

	FINANCIAL YEARS										
	05/06 bn/=	06/07 bn/=	07/08 bn/=	08/09 bn/=	09/10 bn/=	10/11 bn/=	11/12 bn/=	12/13 bn/=	13/14 bn/=	14/15 bn/=	15/16 bn/=
NATIONAL BUDGET.	3,716.12	4,106.34	4,286.82	7,777.13	7,044.50	7,731.7	8,875.04	10,903.22	13,064.79	15,041.87	18,311.37
EDUCATION BUDGET.	636.922 (17.1%)	719.02 (17.5%)	752.187 (17.5%)	902.63 (11.6%)	1,079.62 (15.3%)	1,070.71 (13.8%)	1,239.05 (14.0%)	1,597.48 (14.6%)	1,761.59 (13.4%)	2,026.63 (13.5%)	2,029.07 (11.1%)
PRIMARY EDUCATION BUDGET.	397,771 (62.4%)	436,052 (60.6%)	448,214 (59.6%)	417.03 (46.3%)	465.15 (43.1%)	483.75 (45.2%)	563.58 (45.3%)	670.15 (42.1%)	726.66 (41.3%)	950.87 (46.9%)	906.18 (44.7%)

Source: GOU – Budget Speeches: 2005/2006 – 2015/2016; MOES – MTBFs: 2005/06 – 2015/2016

It is evident from the table that the GOU is heavily spending (the biggest percentage) on primary education in an undulating range of 62.4% to 41.3% over a period of 11 years out of the education budget compared to other sub-sectors.

In its General Conference 32nd Session, UNESCO (2003, p.1) took several positions, but among which, participating Education Ministers believed that, "... quality education is a tool to overcome disadvantages because in addition to being a right, it is a means to fulfill other rights. It is, therefore, necessary to attain everywhere the basic standards that enable learners to thrive the present and adopt the range of futures they will inevitably face." QE was highly emphasized in the conference. Quality maintenance is equated to the costs attached in terms of budget allocations.

Important to note, is that the Ugandan primary education sector is almost governed and administered at district level under a decentralized strategy. Thus, quality in primary schools is maintained at district level. This means therefore, that the 65% (table 1) of the education budget funds is sent down to the districts to support the sector. Despite the heavy investment in the sector, learners in this particular sector have not attained the required learning competencies in literacy and numeracy depicting problems related to the quality of education, (MOES, 2005, p. 2).

The Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality in its second monitoring (SACMEQ II) in 2000 noted that teachers absenteeism was wide spread in schools which resulted in poor supervision and monitoring of teaching and learning process. School syllabus and co-curricular activities were not adequately covered. (SACMEQII, 2000,p.19). The same view was noted by the National Inspection Programme (NIP) report. (NIP, 2002/2003 p. 20).

Relatedly, the same message was echoed by the Education Standards Agency (2004 p.xi), now Directorate of Educational Standards (DES) in its report on Monitoring Learning Achievement in Lower Primary (MALP). Among the factors identified affecting quality education was:

- *High school enrolment levels translated into large classes.*

- *Lack of qualified teachers, poor teaching methods, teacher absenteeism and inadequate preparation amongst teachers.*
- *Irregular school attendance of pupils compounded by poverty and ignorance about the value of education in the community.*
- *Poor parental involvement in the learning process of children. (p.xi)*

The Uganda National Examinations Board (UNEB) in its reports on National Assessment of Progress in Education (NAPE) noted the trend of achievement levels desired in Literacy and Numeracy as table 2 below indicates.

Table 2: Overall percentages of learners reaching desired levels of achievement in Primary 3 and Primary 6.

		YEARS OF REPORTING									
	CLASS	1996	1999	2003	2005	2006	2007	2009	2010	2014	2015
LITERACY (%)	P. 3	23.40	20.56	34.3	38	45.6	45.5	55.9	57.6	64.2	60.2
	P.6	29.96	24.02	20.0	30	33.5	49.6	48.1	50.2	38.3	51.9
NUMERACY (%)	P. 3	33.90	33.67	42.9	41	42.5	44.7	71.3	72.8	72.7	71.2
	P.6	40.00	39.69	20.5	33	30.5	41.4	53.3	54.8	39.4	60.2

Source: UNEB – NAPE Reports 1996, 1999, 2003, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2009, 2010, 2014 and 2015.

Although there is generally an increasing trend in reaching, the defined competency levels of achievement in P.3 while P.6 achievement levels were characterized by ups and downs in both literacy and numeracy over the years, the percentages of achievements are still low compared to the desired (defined competency levels of advanced (38 – 50) and adequate (20 – 37). The percentages of 70+ and 60+ noticed in Literacy and Numeracy in the years 2014 and 2015 and starting with 2009 respectively are attributed to the introduction of the Early Grade Reading (EGR) Methodology with the emphasis on mother tongue.

A similar observation was made by the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2008, p.17) in its report on Impact Evaluation of Interventions in the Primary Education in Uganda that, “examination and test results are gradually improving, but still far below satisfactory levels.”

In a similar situation, the same report (2008) noted and concluded as follows on the quality of primary education.

Whereas Uganda is successful in improving access in education, quality remains low. Teaching methods are old fashioned and books are not always used effectively. Moreover, high teacher and pupil absenteeism as well as high drop -

out rates undermine the effectiveness of investments in the education sector (p.17).

The same report (The Netherlands report 2008) further indicated that, despite the interventions the government has put in place, the quality of education has remained low (p.17). Quite a number of initiatives towards improving quality in primary schools have been put in place. However, learners have failed to read and performance is not improving at all.

At a personal experience level, working with a local government and learning from colleagues working in similar local governments; and secondly, as a classroom teacher and head of a primary school, I have made the following observations.

- There is lack of adequate supervision/monitoring visits to schools due to inadequate funding to the district inspectorates which has greatly down played the quality of education.
- Making unilateral decisions by councilors in disregard of the existing law/policy.
- Mis-positioning of human resource regardless of their orientations (areas of expertise) in education due to political influences.
- Recruiting untrained human resource.
- Absenteeism among teachers and learners.
- Greed and intrigue among councilors and civil servants.
- Lack of inadequate supervision of teachers at school level by heads of primary schools and members of SMC.

These observations are rampant in local governments to the detriment of quality assurance in service provision. Yet, quality assurance issues from a personal view and experience are a concern of every stakeholder concerned with education. This personal view is backed by UNESCO (2003: p.2) and stressed, “Education is no longer a top-down process, it requires the participation of all stakeholders in a transparent system and genuine consultation about the aims, processes, consents and outcomes of education to ensure sustainability”.

One of the observations above was also evidenced by the Uganda Local Governments Association (ULGA, 2004) when it stated, “some local governments have unfortunately flouted rules, regulations and guidelines that govern the management of public affairs. In the process, they have been accused of impropriety corruption”. The same report further cited, “political influence over the District Service Commission (DSC) resulting in unjustified promotions, appointments and dismissals. Nepotism in Civil Service vis-à-vis quality of personnel (Merit) – “sons and daughters of the soil syndrome is rife”. This is coupled with political rewards to supporters in terms of jobs and creating non-existing positions in the structure. Further, the report indicated, “forging of documents by applicants for jobs especially teachers and tenderers for works, goods and services”. This is a very crucial issue to the quality of education offered in the districts. Teachers with forged documents have failed to perform and do not know what to do. As a result children’s performance has remained low, some to the level of failing to read and write. Classes constructed by tenderers are of sub-standard, shoddy work has been done. Classes and toilets have collapsed very fast leaving schools without facilities to use.

1.2 Research Problem.

Basing on the context analysis given above, it is evident that the Ugandan primary schooling is managed at district level under a decentralized system. By implication, the quality of education in primary schools is controlled, maintained and guaranteed at district level. So is monitoring and evaluation (M/E).

It is also evident that at least 20% of the national budgets across the world is spent on education (World bank, 2006 pp 84-87). Uganda in particular is spending in a range of 62% - 40% of the education budget on primary education including donor funding (MOES, MTBF 2006/07 – 2015/16; Budget Speech, 2006/07 - 2015/16).

Relatively, MOES (2005 p 2), had this to comment, “Despite the heavy investment in the sector, learners in this particular sector have not attained the required learning competencies in literacy and numeracy”. The same message was echoed by

MALP Report (2004, pp 24-65), and NAPE Reports (1999, pp7-20; 2000; pp21-58; 2003, pp 23 – 99; 2005 pp. 27-88 and 2006, pp.44-143).

At a personal experience level, districts are inadequately funded for monitoring visits. This implies that, there is inadequate monitoring of schools thus inadequate monitoring of the teaching – learning process.

Even at school level, the primary school head-teachers are not monitoring the teaching-learning process as required. This is backed by ESA Report (2003 p.1) of the National Inspection Programme (NIP) 2002/2003 that, “monitoring and evaluation of teachers/tutors/lecturers by heads of institutions is ineffective in most institutions: for primary head-teachers at the unsatisfactory/poor level is 44%; ...” Mis-position of human resource in disregard of their orientation and recruitment of unqualified teachers are rampant in districts and down play the quality of education. In totality these teachers are not trained in what they do. They do not know what they are doing.

In spite of all interventions and initiatives to address quality in the primary education sector, quality is still low and levels of achievement expected are not being reached (critical questions). Relatedly, the study has indicated that there are a number of factors in a decentralized set up that are impacting the provision of quality ranging from both internal and external (of schools) as indicated in chapter five.

It is against this background that I decided to handle the problem of quality assurance (QA) in a decentralized set up in primary education sector of the Uganda education system. Again, the Ministry of Education and Sports has realized that there is a problem in quality of primary education. This is evidenced in its effort to embark on “Quality Enhancement Initiatives Programme” in twelve worst performing districts in the country and funding District inspectorates with effect from financial year 2008/2009.

1.3 Research goals.

In the light of Uganda’s decentralized primary schooling sector, I wanted to investigate.

- How QA Policy has been interpreted and implemented in the sector
- The influence of M/E on QA in primary schooling.

In short, I wanted to know how Quality Assurance Policy (QAP) is understood and carried out and whether if so, how M/E has made difference to QA at both a practical and policy level in a decentralized Ugandan primary schooling.

1.4 Scope.

In this study, I concentrated on Decentralization as a system of governance in Uganda which has characterized management of primary education, (since the establishment of the Education Ordinance of 1942). In a decentralized strategy, I wanted to see how under the strategy, QA has been interpreted and implemented with the guidance of policies in place. Relatedly, I wanted to see how M/E has impacted on QA at both a practical and policy level.

The effects of M/E do affect policies so designed thus creating necessary reviews of policy framework to respond to the emerging outcomes (as a way of feedback), (Valadez and Bamberger, 1994 p.102).

The conceptual framework below illustrates the scope under which the study was carried out as detailed above.

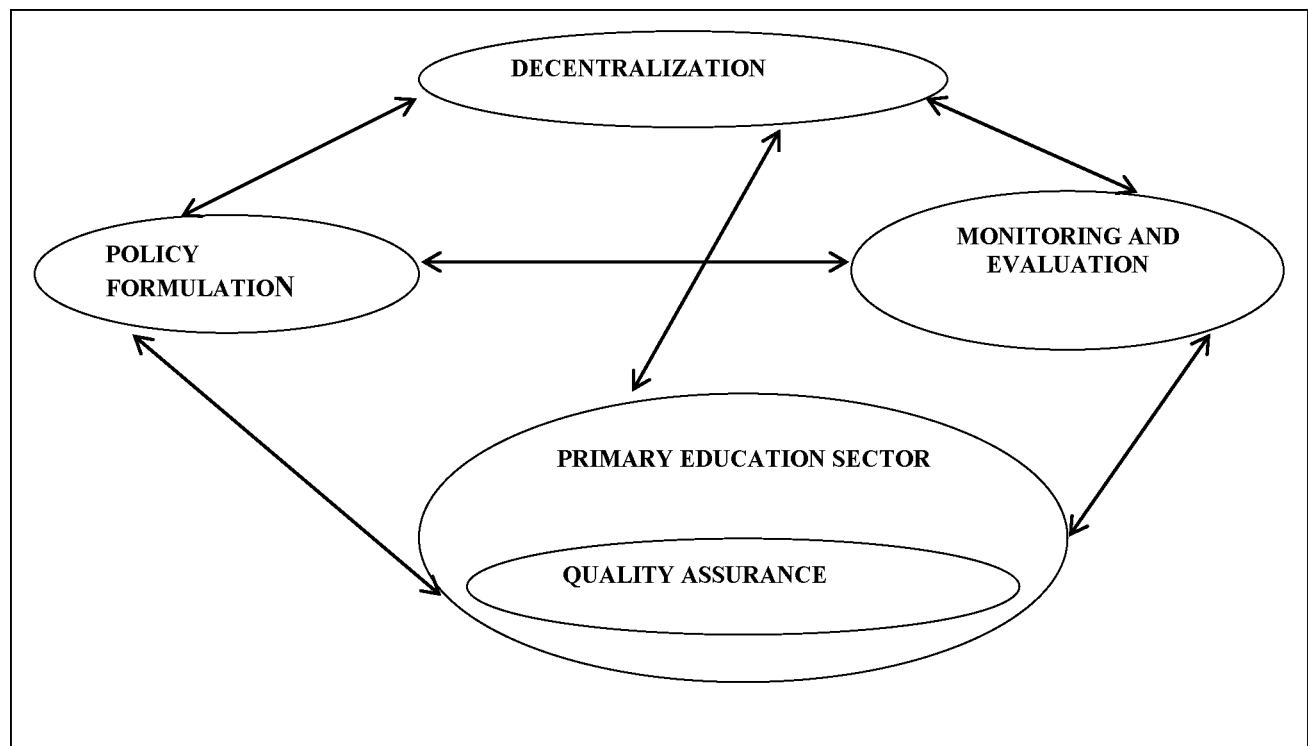


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework for the Study

The conceptual framework above shows the two variables of decentralization – policy guidelines and M/E affecting the provision of QA within the primary education sector.

The study was conducted in Masaka district as a case study. Masaka (with now three more new districts cut off) is one of the 112 districts (Local Governments) that form Uganda and it is found in central Uganda.

Masaka was chosen for its historical position. First, it is a mother district to four (4) districts (Rakai: [in its South]; Ssembabule [in its West]; Lyantonde [in its South-west] and Kalangala [in its East]). Thus, the greater Masaka extended as far as the boundaries of these districts, (see Map of Uganda, page xiii). So, it is one of the original 21 districts at independence time. Secondly, Masaka had a history of good performance in education in 1960s, 1970s, and early 1980s, but the situation has changed downwards now.

1.5 Value of the Research.

The research intended to inform:

- Both policy makers and decision makers on how policy formulation, M/E have impacted quality provision in the primary education sector.
- Policy makers that M/E results are a necessity to policy review to answer emerging views /situations.
- Decision makers on how to improve on or put in place quality control systems to facilitate QA.
- Policy Analysts to recommend interventions of policy up-date to suit the prevailing circumstances.
- Policy Analysts that policy alignment /harmonization is a vital component if various policies are to co-exist. Policies so established, recognize the existing policies to avoid gaps.

- Policy Implementers of the importance of M/E vis-à-vis policy formulation if development and progress of decentralization is to impact quality.

1.6 Methodology Overview.

The study was positioned in the Critical Realist paradigm under the method of a case study. The major methods of data collection were interviews supplemented by document analysis, observation and on-line data sources. Triangulation was used as both a data collection method and a method to ensure the research quality. Data was analyzed into categories and later major themes. The former explains the latter.

1.7 Thesis Outline.

The thesis has been put into six (6) chapters. Chapter one gives the introduction to the study while chapter two deals with the Ugandan Education System with specific consideration of a historic perspective to quality within the system and its structure. Chapter three is on Literature Review with four sections on perspectives of QA, M/E, policy formulation and decentralization. Chapter four details the methodology of the study. Chapter five handles data analysis presentation, interpretation and discussion. The last chapter (six) outlines the findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

UGANDAN EDUCATION SYSTEM: HISTORY AND STRUCTURE

2.0 Introduction.

The chapter gives a historical perspective of the Ugandan Education System in regard to the QA trend at both the pre-independence era and post-independence era. In the second section it handles the current structure of the education system and how it operates. Lastly in the same section it shows the system management structure and how it operates.

2.1 Historical Perspective.

2.1.1 Pre-Independence Era.

The history of education in Uganda indicates that western education was introduced by missionaries when Muteesa I (the then Kabaka [King] of Buganda) invited the British Protestant in 1877 followed by the Roman Catholics in 1879. However, Muslim Arabs had been here since 1844 and had already started teaching the reading of the Quaran (Ssekamwa, 1997, pp. 25-29).

The missionaries taught numeracy and literacy alongside religious practices. The issue of QE was not clear, for there was no uniformity in the education provided by each religious sect and assessment was not there. Monitoring education was not in existence. Possibly, it is necessary to comment that quality was *individualized* according to each religious sect and was indirectly monitored and maintained.

Although, in 1894 Britain accepted Uganda as a protectorate and established its administration in the country, education remained in the hands of missionaries. This meant that the British Administration did not take direct control of education therefore there was no active participation of the British Administration in education. It was against this background that Lansdowne the Secretary to the Foreign Office in London in 1901 stated regarding the role of Colonial Government in education that, "education is certainly our business in the last resort, but the missionaries will do it for us, it would be better to give them the facilities in form of tax rebate," (Ssekamwa, 1997, p. 47).

This meant that provision of facilities depended on chance, if there were no taxes paid that reciprocated failure of rebate.

Primary education was offered in the following categories of schools:

- (i) Village schools - at times they were referred to as “bush schools,” “sub-grade schools” or “reading schools”. These schools had two classes (primary one and primary two).

The curriculum offered was composed of:

- Christian prayers and Christian practices.
 - Reading and writing
 - Catechism
 - Some History and Geography
 - Mass cultivation of fields for food production.
- (ii) Vernacular schools – this category of schools ran classes from primary one to primary four. The curriculum consisted of:
 - Christian instruction and Christian practices
 - Reading and writing
 - Arithmetic
 - History
 - Singing
 - Geography
 - Biology
 - Agriculture
 - Games.

These schools were also accessed by learners from village schools at primary three who had completed primary two.

- (iii) Central schools - these schools had classes from primary one to primary six and they were also accessed by learners from vernacular schools at primary five. The curriculum offered included :
 - Christian instruction and practices.

- Bible study
- History
- Games
- Grammar
- Singing
- Arithmetic
- Geography
- English

From central schools, learners joined high schools. These were junior secondary schools (Ssekamwa, 1997, pp.39 – 42)

Important to note is that the central schools were mainly boarding schools. The manner in which these schools were managed and curriculum offered was a concern of each missionary set up without the British Administration control or interference. Secondly, within the primary sector at that time there was graduation from one school category to the other for continuity of curriculum offered. That is, curriculum at the next school category was a continuation of the curriculum at the previous school category.

By 1911, missionaries were mounting pressure on the Protectorate Government for financial assistance. As a result of this pressure, in 1917 the government convened a conference of all missionaries of education providers to agree on terms of school operation and financial aid. The outcome of this conference was the establishment of an Advisory Board of Education by the Protectorate Government to guide it (Government) in educational matters especially financial support to different missionaries, (Ssekamwa, 1997, p.48). This could be said to mark the genesis of direct quality control by government within the education system in the country.

In 1920, the Uganda Protectorate Government was by circumstances (i.e. Chiefs sending their children abroad for education) forced to assist missionaries in education to address the following scenarios.

- To prevent Ugandans from going abroad for higher education (for political reasons).

- Direct funding for education, thus laying down educational policy as to how schools were being administered, built and utility of funds by provision of guidelines.
- To put order in the development of educational facilities in the whole country and to play down the interdenominational strife that was going on in the establishment of schools. (Ssekamwa, 1997, pp.49).

Quality control measures are seen more in the events of 1920s as positive interventions by the Protectorate Government towards education development as evidenced by the three scenarios above and procedures for the three were laid down.

In March 1923, the colonial office in London established the colonial office Advisory Committee on Native Education in Tropical Africa. The committee issued a memorandum on 13th March 1925 which formed the basis of the colonial office on education and education policy in the colonies. The policy required all colonial administration in Africa to involve themselves in the direction and financing of education in their respective colonies.

In 1925 before March 13th, the colonial office in London had invited the Phelps - Stokes commission from the United States of America (USA) to come to Africa and examine the condition of education for the Africans. One of its recommendations to the Governments in East Africa was that missionaries should not be left alone to shoulder the educational duties. *Governments should also be responsible for laying down the educational policies* in each area and to execute those education policies. This was in view of its findings and reported that, “---An educational system which branches out into the whole Protectorate has been brought ‘being’ (sic) in cooperation with the native chiefs, but with *supervision (italic and bold are mine)* from the Colonial government, and until recently without any financial support ---” (Ssekamwa, 1997, p.52). This was a timely observation towards QA which needed government intervention because of the differences in provision of and funding of education by each religious group.

In the same year, (1925); the Department of Education was established in Uganda and strengthened i.e. supplemented the activities and roles of the Advisory Board on Education formed in 1917. The board then was charged with the formulation of policies that guided the operations in schools. Through the existence of the Department of Education, the following were the immediate benefits to the education system.

- (i) A new general structure of education and the years for each segment/category was laid down
- (ii) Teachers for the various segments were produced.
- (iii) The curriculum and syllabi for all categories was to be set out thus bringing uniformity in education offered across the board. (Earlier curriculum and content were according to the needs of each religious sect although there appeared uniformity in subjects.
- (iv) Methods of examination were set up and certification was to be done on completion of each segment.
- (v) Conditions of each category of school for example buildings, qualifications and number of teachers in each category of school was prescribed.
- (vi) List of each category of schools throughout the country and their numbers were established for purposes of funding and knowing how much the government was to spend (planning).
- (vii) Counting of all learners in the various categories of school within the segments was done.
- (viii) Counting of all teachers and their different qualification was done. This paved way for arrangements to give courses in the teaching profession to those teachers who did not have the qualifications desired.
- (ix) Construction of schools for Muslims children in different areas since they were lagging behind in education.
- (x) Established basis on which education was to be financed as statistical data had been generated.

The above direct benefits of the establishment of the Education Department were genuine and timely. The positive strategies taken towards provision of quality education

and quality assurance at that point in time were necessary steps towards the establishment of policy and procedure in the education system.

2.1.1.1 Policy Issues.

During this era (pre-independence), education policies were in form of ordinances as a result of recommendations / memoranda made by the various commissions instituted by the protectorate government (Ssekamwa, 1997, p.59).

As earlier stated, in 1923, the colonial office in London established a committee to advise it on Native Education in Tropical Africa. In 1925 the committee issued a memorandum which established education offices in all colonies with responsibilities it was charged with. This marked the beginning of education policy of direct involvement in education by colonial Government in all colonies.

In 1925, Phelps-Stokes commission visited Uganda from the USA to study the situation of education in the country. One of its recommendations was, the Protectorate Government to assume the responsibility of directing the educational policies. Its recommendations were reflected in the *Education Ordinance of 1927*. The ordinance established an education tax to be levied by the local government with a purpose of aiding education in their areas of jurisdiction (*Decentralization starts*). Secondly, it spelt out the powers and procedures in the education system by government among others.

The Thomas Education Committee of 1940, studied the recommendations of de La warr Education Commission Report of 1936. Its (The Thomas) recommendations culminated into the *Education Ordinance of 1942* which made recommendations legal.

The Thomas Education Committee introduced three (3) major aspects into the administration of education in Uganda.

- Education had to be arranged along interdenominational basis. Thus, established regional boarding schools (without religious bias) under the direct control of the Protectorate Government.

- Establishment of Boards of Governors for boarding secondary schools and their equivalents.
- That, local government should be in charge of primary schools in their areas (*Decentralization*). The major drive behind this was three fold.

This marked the genesis of decentralization of primary education to districts as local governments up to the present. This transfer to the district led to the formation of Districts Education Committees (DEC). Committees responsible for the planning of education in the districts.

In 1951, The Binns Study Group studied the situation of education in Uganda with a purpose to improve quality and in preparation for independence in future. Among the major recommendations made concerning the primary sector were:

- (i) Primary school course was to last 6 years with a final examination at the end.
- (ii) Existing primary schools were to be enlarged and more schools to be built to increase enrolment of pupils (accessibility).
- (iii) Quality of education at all levels was improved through provision of scholastic materials and posting qualified teachers to schools.

In 1952, the de Bunsen Education Committee was put in place to study the recommendations of The Binns Study Group and develop implementation strategies. Among its recommendations, it established a similar body to each primary school to be known as School Management Committee (SMC) – an equivalent to Board of Governors (BOG) committees responsible for the planning and management for each secondary school. The name (BOG) that has been maintained up-to-date. The recommendations were made legal by the *1952 Education Ordinance*.

The 1959 Education Ordinance – this aimed at streamlining two issues. First, it allowed any child regardless of his or her race and religion to attend any school in Uganda. Secondly, it aimed at curbing the then mushrooming private schools which were opened without regard to education standards and health provisions. Each private

school to operate was required to be allowed by the Director of the Department of Education first and fulfillment of the two (non discrimination based on race and religion) was mandatory. Quality issues in private schools were now being addressed by meeting set education standards and health provisions before being allowed to operate.

2.1.2 Post-Independence Era.

On the 9th October 1962, Uganda regained its independence and was faced with numerous challenges. The education system was thought to be the way forward in solving them. In 1963 the Castle Education Commission was appointed to study and review the education system which hitherto operated on the recommendations of the de Bunsen Education Committee of 1952.

The issues recommended by the Castle Education Commission Report were reflected in the *Education Act of 1963*. This marked the beginning of education policies /laws in form of acts. This also marked the beginning of education system review on a periodical (10 years) basis although it has not been done every after ten years as the strategy requires.

Among the recommendations made concerning the primary sector were:

- (i) Under the new education structure the primary school course last 7 years instead of 6 years.
- (ii) Establishment of Grade III (certificate) Teacher Training Colleges for primary teachers with 'O' level secondary education, Teacher Training Colleges for Grade II primary teachers with primary school education were to be phased out. Courses to upgrade the existing Grade II primary teacher to Grade III status were to be conducted.
- (iii) New primary schools were to be constructed countrywide.

As a result of Castle Commission Report the government passed *The 1963 Education Act* whose aim was to put control of all grant-aided schools (schools under religious bodies but receiving funds from government) under the government.

This was backed up by three main reasons.

- a) There was need to create unity in Ugandan schools administered along racial and religions lines, which were dividing people.
- b) Government was fighting through schools to produce enough qualified human resource to take up jobs both in government and private sector.
- c) Government wanted every pupil and student to grasp its ideology of “African identity and African personality”.

The 1970 Education Act (GOU, 1970) – this was put in place by government to streamline the opening and operating of private schools in Uganda and any school by the Uganda Government. It did put in place the procedure any school proprietor would follow to establish and run a private school. It also strengthened functions related to decentralization by establishing District Education Committees (DEC) under law whose major function are to manage the affairs of primary schools through policies and to plan for them. The 1970 act put all teachers under one authority – Teaching Service Commission (TSC) through the Unified Teaching Service (UTS). The body now called, Education Service Commission (ESC).

The Uganda National Education Policy Review Commission of 1987 – this, at times is referred to as the Senteza-Kajubi Education Commission. It was put in place to review the whole education system of this country and to recommend the necessary adjustment and new trends in the education system. This was a commission established after twenty four years since the Castle Commission. Its recommendations are embedded in its report of 1989 popularly referred to as Kajubi Report (1989). Among its recommendations were the following.

Control over pre-primary education.

- Defining general aims and objectives of basic education and that of primary education.
- Extension of the primary cycle from P. 7 to P. 8.

- Achievement of Universal Primary Education (UPE) for the children of age group 6 – 10 by 2000.
- Suitable measures to be taken based on systematic studies of causes of wastage (repetition and dropping out of school).
- Pre-vocational education to be offered in the upper primary grades P. 5 - P. 8. This was to include Agriculture, Arts & Crafts, House Science and other pre-vocational skills like business and technical skills.
- A system of continuous comprehensive evaluation to be introduced in primary schools and cumulative record cards of pupils showing their performance in all areas of the curriculum should be maintained.
- The results of Primary Leaving Examination (PLE) to be reported on a standardized scale and in terms of letter grades for each subject separately. Marks/grades of internal assessment to be reported along with results of P.L.E.

These were key recommendations towards the improvement of quality in primary education schooling.

The Kajubi Report (1989) was followed by the Government White Paper (1992) on The Uganda National Education Policy Review Commission Report (Kajubi Report, as popularly referred to), in which government gave its stand position on its recommendations. This was passed as a policy document by parliament (1992) in which government and MOES in particular has continued to base its policies governing the education sector. The Government White Paper continued to guide the education policy until 26th August 2008 when a new act, *The Education (Pre-primary and Post – Primary) Act 2008* was assented to by the President and became operational on the 29th August 2008.

2.1.3 Formalization of Decentralization.

In 1995, through the 1995 Constitution (GOU, 1995), the GOU, adopted a decentralization strategy and it became a constitutional system of governance.

Clause 2, Subsection (b) of article 176 states.

Decentralisation shall be a principle applying to all levels of local government and in particular, from higher to lower local government units

to ensure peoples participation and democratic control in decision making
(p.16)

Important to note is that, in the 1962 Uganda Constitution, a federal system was enshrined. The 1995 constitution shows a diversion from federal to decentralization and suggests decentralization as a principle of governance stating it more clearly than ever before.

This implied that from district level, Local Council (LC) V to sub-county level (LC III), the Local government units, primary education is managed in a similar manner. Decisions are taken through people's representatives who were democratically elected. Both operational and strategic plans for primary education are developed by LCs and they take a leading role in day-to-day management of primary education. LCs also monitors all the activities such as teaching, use of funds, usage of instructional materials and parents' participation. The lower administrative units (LCs II and LCs I) take a similar charge whose inputs and findings have far reaching impact in the management and operations of primary schools. This is evidenced by the fact that the membership of the SMC is drawn from the communities of these administrative units. The diagram below illustrates the decentralization set up explained above.

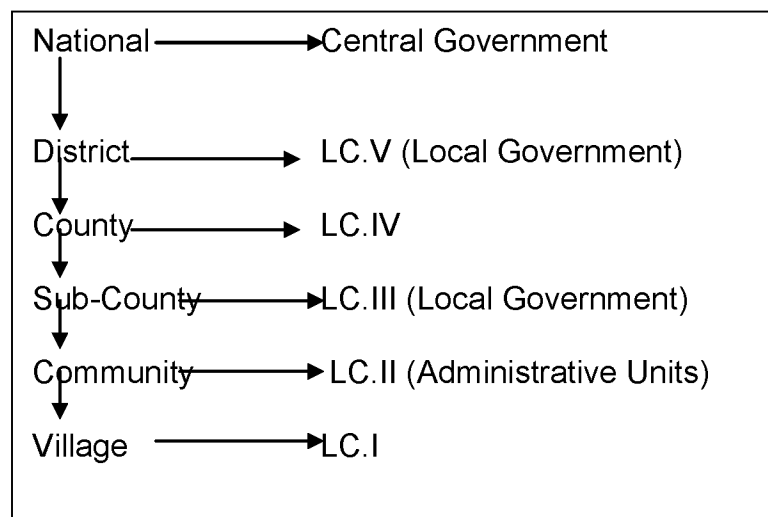


Figure 2: Local Government Structure

The 1997, Local Government Act, (GOU; 1999), was enacted by parliament and assented to by the President on 19th March 1997 to spearhead the implementation of the strategy (decentralization) in the districts. The purpose of the Act was

...to amend, consolidate and streamline the existing law on Local Governments in line with the constitution to give effect to decentralization and devolution of functions, powers and services; and to provide for decentralization at all levels of Local Governments to ensure good governance and democratic participation in, and control of decision making by the people; ... (p. 9).

The Act, therefore, made decentralization a permanent strategy to direct and govern all policies concerning service delivery and the management of districts including education.

The Education (Pre-Primary Primary and Post-Primary) Act 2008 whose major objectives are, among others:

- (a) to give full effect to education policy to Government and functions and services by Government;*
- (b) to give full effect to the decentralization of Education services;*
- (c) to promote partnership with the various stakeholders in providing education services;*
- (d) to promote quality control of education and training (pp.4-5)*

Thus, the act enshrined the decentralization strategy of education services and strengthened quality control measurers and community participation in the education system.

2.2 The current Education System in Uganda.

2.2.1 Structure of the Education System.

The Structure of the education system in Uganda is built on four major segments: Pre-Primary Education, Primary Education, Post – Primary Education and Training (Secondary Education) and Tertiary and University Education. This four – tier model has been recognized by the Education (Pre-Primary and Post – Primary) Act, (2008, p.15).

The education system consists of education to children aged 2-5 years provided by private agencies and fully sponsored by parents and guardians (Pre- primary). The

role of government is to provide curriculum, policy guidelines and curriculum for teacher training for pre-primary teacher training. This is followed by seven years of primary education to learners aged 6-12. The four years of lower (Ordinary -‘O’ level) and two years of Upper (Advanced-‘A’ level) of post – primary education (secondary education). After post-primary education learners may join University, Teacher Colleges or BTVET (Business, Technical and Vocational Training) institutions (Tertiary and University Education).

After pre-primary, learners enter primary education. At the end of which, they sit for Primary Leaving Examinations (PLE) leading to a Primary Leaving Certificate. Graded leavers with accepted aggregates/points join post-primary education or technical institutions. The same applies to post-primary education. Then, the successful ones at post-primary and technical institutions earn the Uganda Certificate of Education (UCE) at lower post-primary education (‘O’ level) and the Uganda Advanced certificate of Education (UACE) at upper post-primary education (‘A’ level) and certificates in their fields of study respectively.

At both segments (primary and post-primary), UNEB uses a 1st -4th grade system with a ‘U’grade for ungraded (failure) students. At tertiary and University education where courses range from 2-5 years, students are awarded certificates, diplomas and degrees depending on the institution or nature of courses taken.

Currently, the entire primary education is under the Universal Primary Education (UPE) programme, equally, learners of the lower and upper post-primary education specifically Senior I to Senior 6 are under Universal Secondary Education (USE) programme in selected schools especially rural schools. This implies that, secondary education has two categories – one which is entirely free in selected schools fully funded by the government and the other not free where parents have to pay tuition fees but government pays teachers’ salaries and funding of some areas – textbooks and construction of the infrastructure.

The diagram below illustrates the structure of the Education System in Uganda

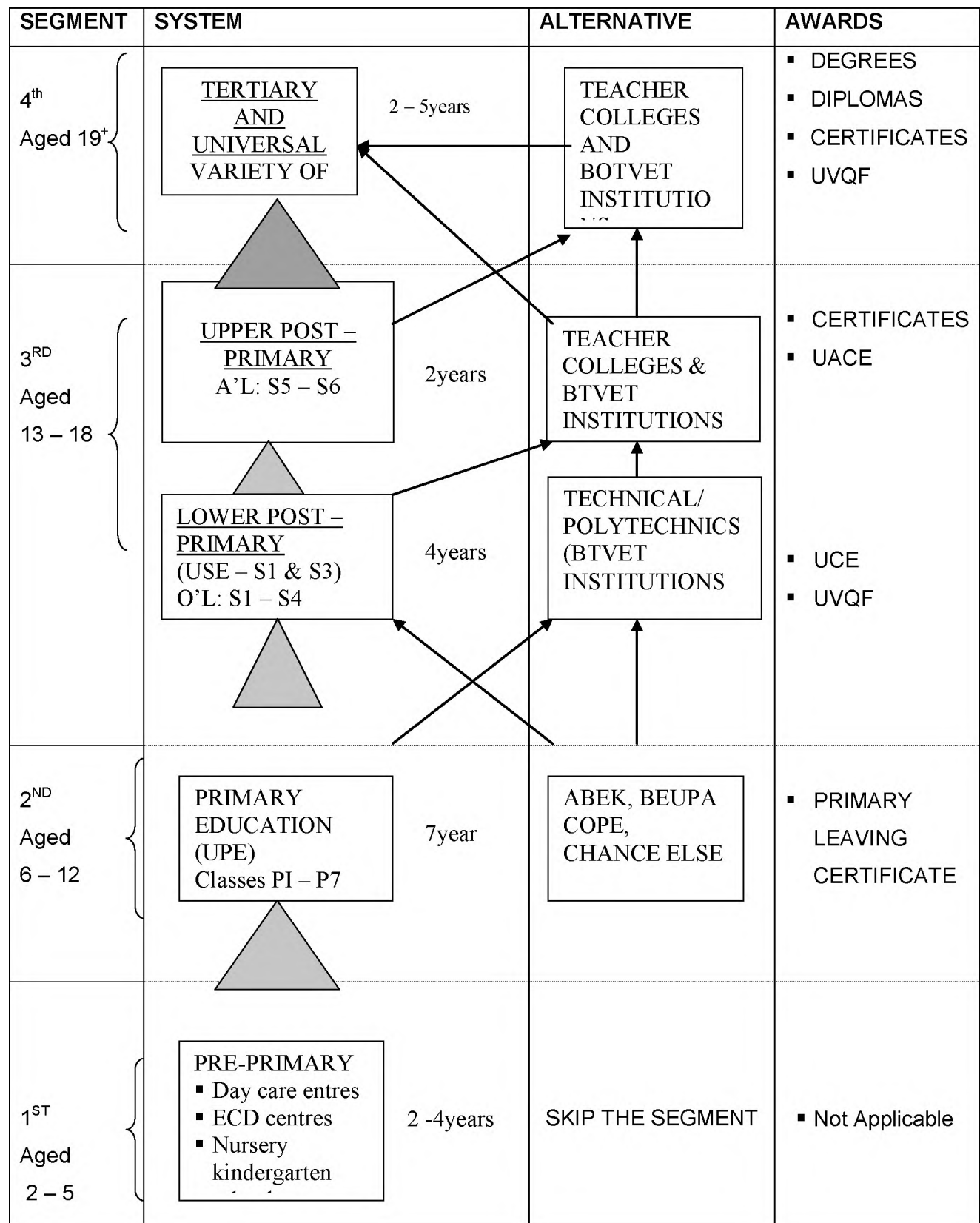


Figure 3: Education System Structure of Uganda

The four columns show how the system operates. The first column (segment) shows the order to follow and the expected age of learners at each segment. The second column (system) shows the direct route the learner is expected to follow when not interrupted by any eventuality (Normal trend in system). Column three (Alternative), shows the alternative course to follow when normal trend not followed. These are equivalencies of the normal trend if diversions are made. Pre-primary education is not compulsory so, one can skip it.

The last column (Awards), shows the possible awards at each segment. UVQF (Uganda Vocational Qualifications Framework) in the column is a strategy to recognize the various vocational qualifications of learners who meet the set occupational and assessment standards of different studies to allow them continue with further studies (The BTVET Act, 2008, pp. 13-14).

The alternatives to primary Education indicated in the box (equivalency of primary) are options of education given to disadvantaged children due to social exclusion based on geographical location, culture, ethnicity, language, conflict and disability. These are:-

ABEK – Alternative Basic Education for Karamoja. It was developed to reach the pastoral and semi-nomadic communities of Karamoja (Kotido and Moroto districts).

BEUPA – Basic Education for Urban Poverty Areas. Non formal basic education that targets out-of-school children who never had chance to attend school at the appropriate age in the capital city – Kampala.

COPE – Complementary Opportunities to Primary Education

Non-formal education designed for children aged 10 – 16 years and have neither attended school or dropped out before acquiring the basic skills and

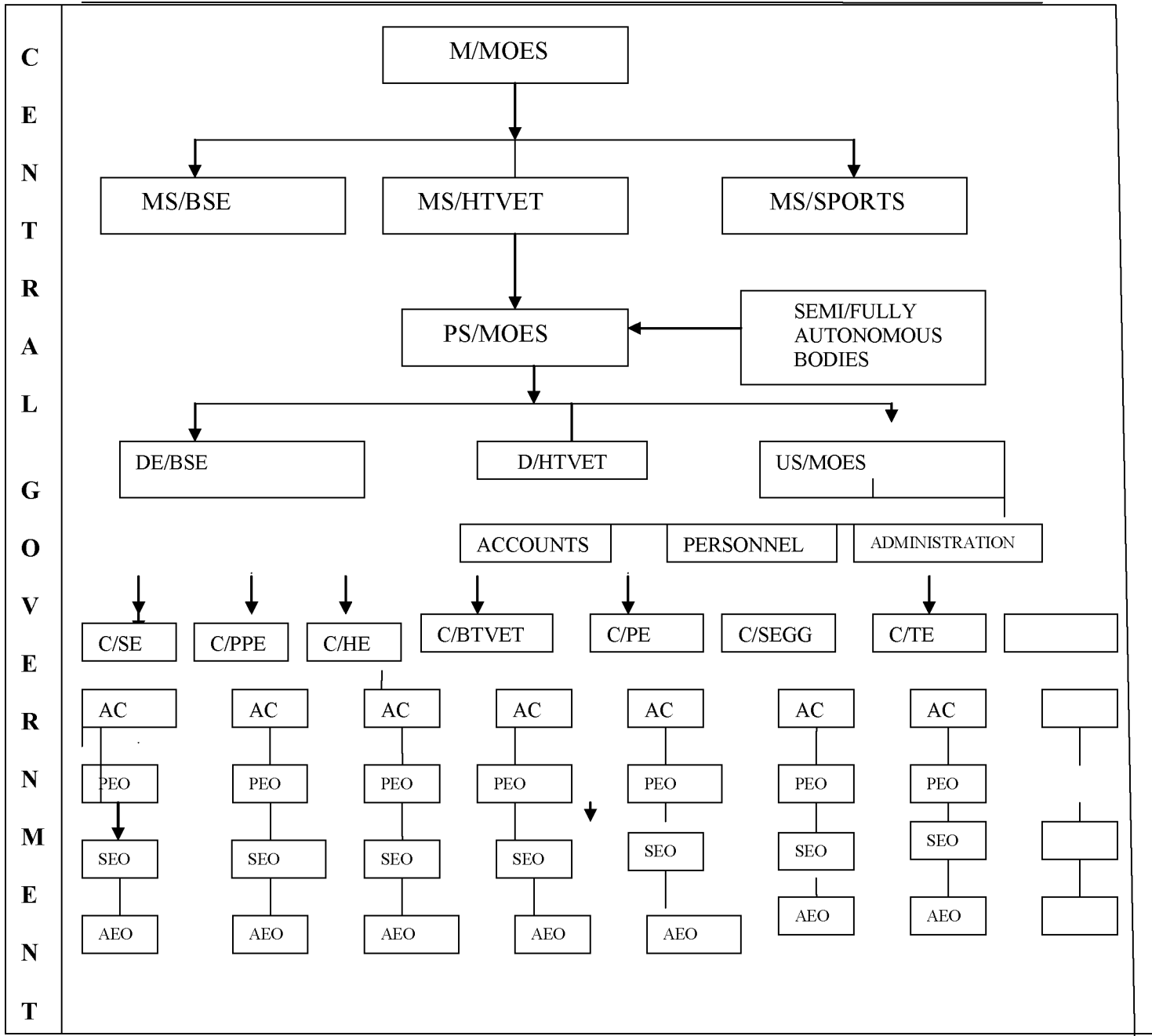
literacy. This is in ten districts – Arua, Bushenyi, Kamuli, Kisoro, Mbarara, Mubende, Nebbi, Ssembabule and Kalangala.

CHANCE – Children centered alternative non-formal community based Education. Designed for nomadic pastoral children out of school and unable to join UPE schools. It is in districts of Nakasongola, Luwero and Wakiso.

ELSE - Empowering Literacy Skills Education. Designed for children in Masindi district who were unable to access for education. (The Netherlands report, 2008, pp 41-42).

2.2.2 Management of the Education System

Below is the management structure of the education system at both central and district local Governments



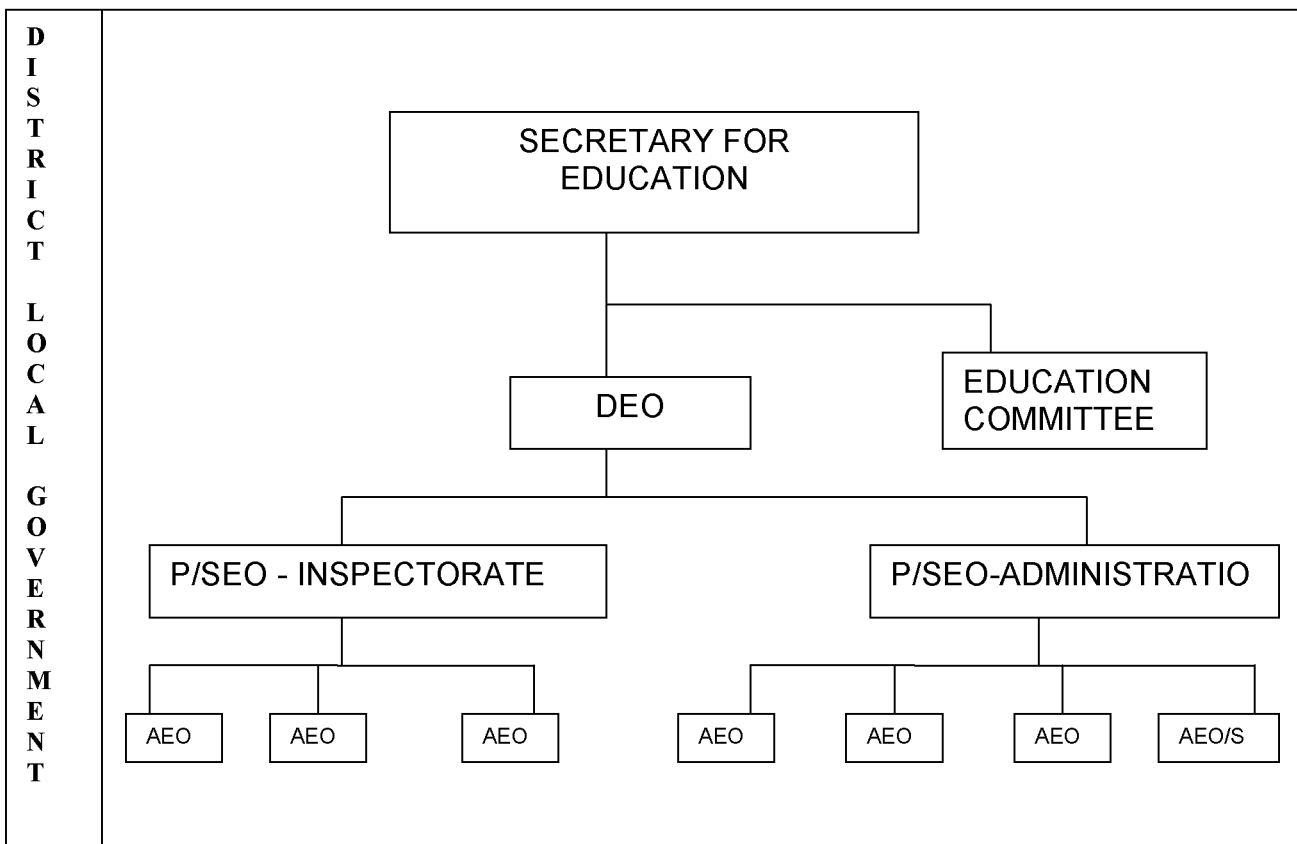


Figure 4: Education Management Structure (National & District)

The above diagram shows how the organizational structure relates to the Management of the education system at both central and local governments. Important to note is that, at the centre the inspectorate section is treated as a Directorate of Educational Standards (DES) and is a semi-autonomous body which is not the case at local governments. At Local Governments, there are inspectorate sections under the department of education. The relationship between the Directorate and Local Governments' sections of inspectorate is to incorporate the inspectors at districts and municipalities as Associate Assessors (AA) in regional or National Inspection Programmes (NIP) as need may arise (Education [Pre-Primary, Primary and Post – Primary] Act, 2008, p.39). By implication the relationship is temporary if it exists; or may or may not exist if regional/national inspection programmes take place or do not take place respectively.

In districts, there are coordinating centres under which a group of primary schools are clustered headed by Coordinating Centre Tutors (CCTs). These, are answerable to Principals of core primary teachers colleges who in turn report to the

Commissioner Teacher Instructor and education training at the centre. Their major role is to mentor primary teachers in primary schools in the districts.

At the top most management structure of the system is the full Minister of Education and Sports (M/MOES) with three State Ministers of Higher Technical and Vocational (Ms/HTVETT) Education; Basic and Secondary education (MS/BSE) and Sports (Ms/Sports) respectively.

Below this political team is the Permanent Secretary (PS) who is the head of Civil Servants (Chief Executive), Accounting Officer and overall supervisor of the ministry. After the PS is the Under Secretary (US) for Administration and Finance. The support sections operating under the supervision of the US are Disposal Unit, Construction Unit and Instructional Material Unit who report direct to the PS.

The Ministry has eleven technical departments each headed by a Commissioner (C) The departments are:

- Pre-Primary and primary Education (PPE)
 - Government Secondary Education (GSE)
 - Private Secondary Education (PSE)
- } Under Director of Basic and Secondary Education (BSE)
-
- Business Technical, Vocational Education (BTVET) and Training
- Teacher Instructor and Education Training (TIET)
- Higher Education and Training (HET)
- } Under Director of Higher, Technical and Vocational Education And Training (HTET)
-
- Special Needs Education and Career Guidance (SECG)
- Guidance and Counselling (GC)
- Physical Education (PE)
- Planning and Policy Analysis (EPPA)
- Finance and Administration
- } Report directly to the PS .Education

Commissioners are supervised and are answerable to the Directors of their respective directorates and permanent secretary as indicated above. Directors are answerable to PS.

Below the Commissioners, are Assistant Commissioners (AC) heading Sections in the departments. The number of ACs depends on the number of sections in the departments. Under each AC are Principal Education Officers (PEO), Senior Education Officers (SEO) and Assistant Education Officers (AEO) to give support.

Apart from the mainstream structure, there are corporate semi or fully autonomous bodies under the Ministry. These are:

- Directorate of Industrial Training (DIT)
- The National Commission for UNESCO
- Uganda National Examination Board (UNEB)
- National Curriculum Development Centre (NCDC)
- Directorate of Educational Standards (DES)
- Education Service Commission (ESC)
- Public Universities (Makerere, Mbarara, Kyambogo, Gulu, Busitema)
- National Council for Higher Education (NCHE). The major functions of each body in brief are:

DIT - To assess, determine qualification standards and provide certificates (BTVET)

UNESCO - To carryout UNESCO activities at national level

UNEB - To develop and administer examinations, conduct NAPE and award certificates for examinations conducted.

NCDC - To initiate, develop, monitor, and evaluate existing and new curriculum.

DES - To define, review standards and develop systematic approaches to inspection. Provide, disseminate and develop use of reports and control education quality.

- ESC - To recruit, interview and recommend appointment of education service providers for the ministry
- Universities -To handle, develop curriculum and courses for tertiary and university education. To award diplomas, degrees and certificates for courses conducted.
- NCHE - To accredit and maintain quality in universities. To inspect and regulate private tertiary and University institutions and recommend them for licensing.

The heads of these institutions/bodies report to the PS.

At District level, the education sector (Department) led by a political secretary for Education (equivalency of a Minister) and is headed by the District Education Officer (DEO). Below the DEO, are Senior Education Officers (SEO) for inspectorate commonly known as District Inspector of Schools (DIS) and for Administration. In some districts the DIS, is at the rank of Principal Education Officer (PEO) depending on the model in which the district is categorized.

Under the DIS are Assistant Education Officers (AEO) at times referred to as Assistant Inspectors of Schools (AIS) who are in charge of counties – County Inspectors of Schools (CIS). Under the SEO (Administration) are AEO in charge of counties – County Education Officers (CEO) and one in charge of sports in the district – District Sports Officer (DSO). The number of counties available in a district determines the AEOs.

The districts with Municipalities have Municipal Education Officers (MEO) for administration and heading the Municipal Education Department and the Municipal Inspector of Schools (MIS) heading the inspectorate section.

However, Districts, Municipalities (Urban authorities next to a city), sub-counties, town councils (Urban Authorities equivalent to Sub-counties) and divisions (Sub-counties of municipalities) have Education Standing Committees whose compositions are the councilors. This committee together with a technical team of the departments

plan and develop policies for the education sector. Which in turn are sent to the entire council (District/Municipal) for approval. After which, the Education Departments implement. The committees' major role is to oversee all educational services decentralized to these local governments (Education [Pre-Primary and Post-Primary] Act, 2008, p.26).

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

SECTION A: QUALITY ASSURANCE (QA).

3.1 Introduction.

The section looks at the background of QA, what it is and the different perspectives in which QA is looked at. The concept of quality is discussed from the perspectives of international bodies dealing in education and from the education traditions. The chapter further looks at quality development and understanding in terms of quality control and quality culture. Then the quality situation in Uganda is discussed and ends up with quality experiences in other countries.

3.1.1 Historical Overview of the Concept of QA.

The origin of QA in education has its roots in the successful application of Total Quality Management (TQM) in manufacturing industries in the USA in the 1980s (Kanji and Malek, 1999; p ; Bogue, 1998, p.12) and it is built on the work pioneered by W. Edward Dewing (1986) Bogue (1998, p.12). It is now an essential requirement in education. A quality revolution is slowly but steadily shaping both the business and public sector (Robbins and Coulter, 1996, p.13). the concept of quality assurance is now an international vocabulary with literature and research building up very fast (Lycke, 2004, p.219).

TQM is a comprehensive, customer focused programme to continuously improve the quality of an organization's processes, products and services. In view of systems analysis, education as a social service needs QA putting in mind the needs of both learners and society, while taking into consideration the emerging comparative issues and situations. It is therefore necessary to consider TQM in any organization's strategic management.

3.1.1.1 Theoretical Framework.

Before going into details of the definition of quality, I will discuss the theories or schools of thought that are influencing the provision of quality in institutions, thus shaping the definitions.

The theory of limited supply – the assumption of this theory is that by definition, quality is in limited supply. This is a view of people who look at quality as a competitive concept where very few excellent institutions can participate. That is, institutions with impressive resources, national reputations that are selective in admissions; institutions with high costs; and institutions which are large and comprehensive can offer quality (Bogue, 1998, p.8). This is a theory that advocates for the rankings of institutions where normally prestigious institutions and with national reputation excels. This has been in existence since 1964 in the United States starting with the study of Allan Carter (one of the earliest rankings of college quality (Bogue, Ibid). In America, the theory operates in the yearly ranking and ratings of best colleges. So is in the Netherlands, where the higher education inspectorate ranks the Dutch Universities that portray this theory (Palmer, 1995 as cited by Bogue, 1998, pp.8-9. This presents a pyramidal modal of quality.

The Theory of Value – added – according to Alexander Astrin (1985) as cited by Bogue (1998, p.9), asserts that, “the most excellent institutions are those that have in greatest impact add the most values as economists would say on the students’ knowledge and personal development and the faculty (staff, is mine) members’ scholarly and pedagogical ability and productivity.

The assumptions of the theory ,is therefore what difference/impact does the institutions make in the students’ /staff’s knowledge, skills and attitudes (Bogue, Ibid).

The Theory of Quality Within Mission – the theory assures that institutions have the potential of high quality envisaged in a variety of missions and insists on quality in relation to those missions. The theory guides the definition of quality given by Bogue and Saunders(1992) p.20) as “quality is conformance to mission specifications and goal achievement – within publicity accepted standards of accountability and integrity (as

cited by Bogue, (1998, Ibid). Diana Green's (1994, p.15) view of the theory is that, "a high quality institution is one that clearly states its mission (or purpose) and is efficiently and effective in meeting the goals that it has set itself (as cited by Bogue, 1998, Ibid). The notion or vision of this theory holds is that, each institution should demonstrate quality within its mission context diversity with distinction.

The analysis of theories discussed above show the out-look judgement of quality while the ones discussed below, reflect the work done inside the classroom the teaching-learning process and what the parents do inside the school and the environment in which schools operate classify institutions as performing or underperforming as a measure of quality.

The Contingency theory – assumes the activities of heads of institutions, teachers and school governing bodies mediate between the educational process and the school's situational (internal and external contingency) factors, (Greeners, Scheerens and Reynolds, 2000, Scheerens, 1997 as cited by Houtreen, Win Van de Griff, Kuijpers, Boot, Gost and Kodijman (2007, pp.379). This implies that in schools where performance is improving mediation is successful and unsuccessful where underperformance occurs.

The Opportunity to Learn Theory – predicts that learners in underperforming schools are not given opportunities to attain the minimum objectives of the curriculum due to inadequacies in the curriculum a shortage of learning time, poor quality teaching, insufficient and un-stimulating educational environment, insufficient knowledge about learners' achievement and insufficient remedial measures for learners who lag behind (Van de Griff, 2001, as cited by Van de Griff & Houtveen, 2006, pp.257 – 258). Houtveen, et al, 2007, p.379). Such factors, Hopkin (2004, p.184) called them "factors".

The Compensation Hypothesis – the assumption is that schools in disadvantaged areas must compensate for the fact that learners entre these schools

when they are lagging behind their peers. That is, these (disadvantaged) schools must provide for learners' basic needs that include a safe, orderly and stimulating environment before they embark on structural improvements to educational processes (Chrispeels, 1992, Janssens, 2001; Teddlie, String field by Reynolds, 2000, as cited by Houtveen et al, 2007, p.379) Van de Griff & Houtveen, 2006, p. 258)

The Additivity Hypothesis – assumes that schools in disadvantaged areas have a higher risk of low output, even after correction of social and economic background of the learners and the area (Baurnaett, Stauat & Watrman, 2005, Janssens, 2001, Opdenawker & Van Damme, 2005; Reynolds and Teddlie, 2000, Willms, 1992 as cited by Houtveen 2007, p. 379), Van de Griff and Houtveen, 2006, pp.258 – 259).

The last three hypotheses presume that institutional locations determines the conditions under which quality is provided. So, they emphasize a conducive environment unr which learners should receive education. The themes below are organizational development oriented in view of quality provision for improvement.

Organization Theories – Utilizes three external circumstances criteria which are:

- a) Adaptability or responsiveness to external circumstances or changes – this calls *for flexibility to suit the changing situations in which quality is provided.*
- b) Continuity of the organization in terms of stability of the internal structures and acquisition of resources – *calls for maintainance of levela achieved.*
- c) Commitment and satisfaction of the members of the organization- *calls for outputs desired* (Fairman & Quin, 1985 as cited by Creemers Reezigt, 2005 p.365)

Curriculum Theories – they give provision of other models that link the school as an organization to the responsibilities of teachers. While curricular are documents that should be used in educational practice, they are formulated as guidelines at the centre level for guiding education in schools and classrooms. Normally, curricular is reflected in textbooks for students and teachers. So, curricular outline ethics of curricular in relation

to implementation of curricular and the outcomes in student achievement (Fullan, 1991, Fullan & Pomfret, 1977, Simons, Snyder, Bolin, & Zumwalt, 1992 as cited by Creemers & Roezig, 2005, p.365).

Behavioural Theories – assumes that schools (structures) do not change if the people (Agencies) especially the teaching staff within the schools do not change - that is, the actions of the individuals do not matter. Thus, the actions of people and their behaviour play a role in the provision of quality. Mechanisms of evaluation, feedback and reinforcement are employed to explain change in social psychology by behavioural theories. The mechanism therefore explain the effective instructions used to improve the impact of curricula on improvement (Carver & Sergiovanni, 1986, Debust Schroiff, 1986, Creemers, 1994b, Hoebe, 1994 as cited by Creemers & Reezigts, 2005, p.365).

Organizational Learning Theories – the assumption in organizational learning encompasses all the processes of adaptation to a changing environment, and processes purposeful change to improve schools effectiveness (Louis, 1994 as cited by Creemers & Reezight, 2005 p.365). Learning of educational organization is conceptualized by information richness, organizational procedures of processing and interpreting information, evaluation and monitoring procedures, interpersonal networks of sharing and discussing information, and organizations as makers of meaning by incremental adaptation intellectual learning style and assumption staring (Ludgerg, 1989, Senge, 1990 as cited by Creemers & Reezigts, Ibid).

3.1.1.2 Systems for QA.

In this subsection, discussions of the approaches to assuring quality in institutions are discussed. What constitutes QA and related terms are also discussed here.

There are four approaches that describe activities in which quality is assured;

a) Accreditation and programme review - being the more traditional approach that embraces the principles of peer review and external standards. It is here being referred to as Traditional Peer Review Evaluations – this includes.

- i. Accreditation – the test of mission and goal achievement,
- ii. Rankings and ratings in the test of reputation; and

iii. Programme reviews in the test of peer evaluation.

Common to accreditation ventures is a periodic institutional or programme self-study or self-evaluation followed by a visit of an external panel of peers who evaluate the institution's or programme's compliance with a set of external standards (Bogue, 1998, p.9). Accreditation is the oldest and best known seal of collegiate quality in the United States. Its foundation is cemented on the premise and the promise of mission integrity and performance improvement. In the USA accreditation is characterized by non-governmental form of quality assurance – it is carried out by non-governmental agencies. Accreditation takes the trend of an audit - whereby external evaluation periodically scrutinizes the evidence maintained by the institution that displays compliance with external standards of quality.

Another instrument of accreditation is the programme review. This is characterized by self-study/self-evaluation and then external peer review at the discipline, departmental or programme level. Although programme reviews are respected, they are at times regarded as futile and empty exercises because they have little relationship to resource allocation and other decisions (Bogue, 1998, p.11).

Ranking and rating studies – this is mainly conducted on programmes and institutions. Although, they keep the conversation on quality alive, they are indicted for offering little help toward improving programmes. Rankings have been called “quantified gossip”, or ‘Navel gazing” (Bogue, Ibid). Ranking and ratings are commented on the limited supply theory of quality although they tend to recognize institutional mission when comparing similar programmes.

Generally, accreditation is criticized of its processes and activities that are hidden from the public view; the second criticism is that of failing to prevent problems in both academic and administrative integrity. It also presents the challenge of reconciling the interests of institutional accreditation with the interests of discipline/programme accreditation remains an important and constructive for quality (Bogue, Opcit).

b) *The Assessment and Outcomes Movement* – this is the second system of QA. Its focus is on the acquisition of multiple forms of evidence in the evaluation of both students and programmes performance. Assessment concentrates its attention on results/outcomes more than reputation (Bogue, Opcit). There is need for a cluster of performance assessments and evidence in order to reach judgements concerning the quality in students, programmes and institutions. This is against the background that, as we get to know students at the entry point, we equally need to know learners at the exit point to ascertain changes in their knowledge, skills and attitudes. There is also need to recognize other actors in the assessment processes especially those beyond the boundaries of the institutions.

The dilemma with assessment activities is whether they are linked effectively to the teaching and learning process or to the improvement of what happens in the classrooms and in other learning infrastructure to most cases 'assessment is undertaken for pro forma and cosmetic purposes of meeting external government mandates' (Boue, 1998, p.12).

c) *Total Quality Management (TQM)* the most recent system of QA. Its focus is on the principle of continuous improvement and customer satisfaction. Some believe we listen enough to learners while others assert that programmes and services be improved through seeking evaluations from learners (Bogue, Ibid), teaching staff and institutional administrators look at TQM as relevant to improvements in administrative settings (e.g. administrations, business office, facilities maintenance, etc).

d) *Accountability and Performance Indicator Reporting* – because governments are increasingly injecting a lot of funding in institutions, so is the growing interest in the question of quality. This system is characterized by the following indicators normally found in the accountability reports, enrolment trends, student performance on admissions, examinations; retention and graduation/completion rates, pass rates, job placement rates, learner and alumni satisfaction.

According to Segers and Dochy (1996) as cited by Bogue (1995 p.13) a performance indicator is defined as a quantitative data on any aspect of institutional or programme performance. However, some writers prefer to distinguish a performance indicator from a management statistics. That is,

a data point is a performance indicator if it reflects information or intelligence related to a programme or institutional goal. Then, it is a management statistic if it reflects activity or achievement in an area of management interest that is not directly to a goal (Bogue, 1998, p.13).

The purposes for performance indicators are that:

- a) Performance indicators allow institutions to demonstrate accountability to public bodies.
- b) Establish trend lines of activity and achievement,
- c) Mark progress on goals for education in general.
- d) It is a means for demonstrating Stewardship of government resources (Bogue Ibid).

3.1.1.3 Purpose of QA Systems.

Lycke (2004, p.221) outlines four main elements in the purpose of QA system, which are:

- i) *Ensure that the educational activities are of high quality and are developing towards further improvements,*
- ii) *Reveal cases of deficient quality and to detect good and bad quality,*
- iii) *Provide the institution with a basis for self assessment and change;*
- iv) *Help to develop a strong quality culture.*

The purposes emphasize high quality with concept of moving towards improvements and need to identify bad and good quality thus giving distinctions to the two. The element of self-assessment or self-evaluation plays a key role in identifying own weaknesses and strengths in view of quality if changes are to occur. Lastly, is the element of creating a strong quality culture for purposes of continuity and maintenance of what has been achieved.

Lastly, below I quote Bogue's governing ideals and design principles in form of questions that guide the design of effective QA systems.

- i) *Can the program or institution offer rich evidence or multiple indicators of both performance and improvements, activity and achievements?*
- ii) *Are these indicators of performance being used to make increasingly informed decisions on policy, program and personnel?*
- iii) *Is the distinctive mission of the program, institution or both affirmed and advanced by the indicators of quality and performance selected?*
- iv) *Are quality assurance systems designed to minimize duplication of effort and to maximize usefulness for decisions? Is there an awareness of and allegiance to the overall approach by faculty (Institution – is mine) and staff?*
- v) *Is each quality assurance instrument clearly linked to teaching and learning and its impact realized?*
- vi) *Is the campus (Institution – is mine) making use of external standards and judgments that go beyond the confines of its own experience and faculty (department – is mine)? (Bogue, 1998, p.15 – 16)*

3.1.2 Moving towards a Definition of Quality.

In an attempt to define QA, the background is based on the theoretical framework in section 4.1 and Assurance, it is important to understand the term ‘quality’ and to note that quality is relative in nature – it means different things to different people and it is relative to processes or outcomes, (Harvey and Green, 1993, p.9 McDonald & Van de Host, 2007, p.6). The context of quality is therefore determined by the understanding of individuals and direction any country or group could wish to take.

Quality as a relative concept is seen in two senses. Quality is relative to the user of the concept and the situation in which it is applied. Different stakeholders in education hold different views on quality. They perceive quality differently and thus, have different perspectives on quality. The effort of any government is to try and give a generally accepted perspective of quality to the stakeholders in the education sector. In other sense, quality is viewed as an absolute – it is similar in nature to truth and beauty.

In an attempt to define quality, Harvey and Green, (1993, p.9) categorize quality into five distinct but interrelated areas; “quality can be viewed as exception, as perfection, as fitness to purpose, as value for money and as transformation”. However, there is also a traditional notion of quality.

3.1.2.1 Traditional Notion.

This concept of quality is associated with the notion of distinctiveness and of something special or of high class (Harvey and Green, 1993, p.11). The traditional notion of quality implies exclusivity (Peffer and Coote, 1991) as quoted by Harvey and Green (1993, p.11). The notion, according to Harvey and Green (Ibid), hold that “quality is not determined through an assessment of what is provided but based on the assumption that the distinctiveness and inaccessibility of an Oxbridge education is of itself quality. This is not quality to be judged against a set of criteria but the quality separate and unattainable for most people.

The Oxbridge education in this context is equated to education acquired from prominent high class schools (Theory of limit supply). In this approach to quality, benchmarks against which to measure it is not an issue, therefore a definition to quality does not exist. Quality is an instinctive, which anyone knows it exists (apodictic). The notion therefore, holds that quality is part and partial of any educational institution. It is embodied within and there is no need to demonstrate it (Church, 1988, pp.27-43). This kind of approach can be traced in the German system of education especially higher education where there is no particular agency – internal or external, monitoring quality. Quality in the system is internalized by the academic staff and whatever they do. The traditional concept of quality is weak or rather useless when it comes to assessment of quality – there are no set standards or benchmarks against which to evaluate it.

3.1.2.2 Quality as Excellence.

The perception of quality as excellence is an extreme view in the sense that something to be excellent it must be exceptionally good, distinctive or outstanding among others. By implication, it is achieved by a few (Limited supply Theory). Secondly, it is understood in terms of exceeding a set of high standards, which can be specified in an objective sense. In view of developing countries, definition of quality as excellency is clearly problematic given the financial constraints and depending on donor funding as far as budget supports are concerned. It is difficult to provide high quality materials and

human resources, well facilitated classrooms and an adequately facilitated monitoring system.

3.1.2.3 Quality as Perfection.

The construct of quality as perfection includes assuring that a set of specifications are met perfectly and consistently. In this context, you need to focus on process and doing things correctly in order to have a finished product (learner) with no defects. It is associated with the view of developing a quality culture. That involves the development of controls for quality (Quality Control) at all levels of the process in the organization/institution. This implies that everybody in the organization/institution is responsible for quality not only those responsible for quality control.

3.1.2.4 Quality as Fitness for Purpose.

Harvey and Green (1993, p.17) define “purpose” in two ways; “as a customer specification or as a mission”. In this notion therefore, quality is related to purpose of the product (learner) or services being provided. The product or service must fulfill its purpose, if it does so, then quality is achieved. This further explains the relativity of quality. By implication, every product or service has the potential to fit the purpose it is/was meant for (Theory of Quality within Mission).

As customer specification, it means that the customers’ (learners’) requirements are determined by the provider of the product or service which is designed to meet the customer needs. In this sense institutions or governments have to design curriculum to the needs of the learners and communities who are customers in this sense (The TQM system).

Fitness for purpose as a mission refers to the purpose of the product or service is determined by its provider. It is in this sense that every organization/institution have both mission and vision statements that explain its existence. From which both strategic and operational plans are determined; goals, objectives and activities are clearly stated in order to fulfill their mission/vision statements. A mission in this context is a quality

indicator that needs explanation to each stakeholder to strive to achieve (Quality Within Mission Theory).

3.1.2.5 Quality as Value for Money.

The notion of quality as value for money is related to the ideas of Efficiency, Effectiveness and Economics (3Es). This is true with governments' demands to increase the learner numbers (accessibility) without any corresponding increases in funding. This calls for determining specifications tagged to costs. In reality, this leads to providing QA based on measurement against performance indicators to assess where the situation was and the extent it has reached (Theory of value added).

Performance indicators have been developed to monitor efficiency, teacher – learner ratios, learner – book ratios, learner – classroom ratios; indexes of revenue and capital resources, pass rates, completion rates, dropout rates and ratios of public to private funds to measure institutional efficiency. There has also been a growing interest within the public in both managerial efficiency and institutional effectiveness. Thus, there is need to use performance indicators to monitor the education system. Likewise, institutions have to monitor their own efficiency and effectiveness (Harvey and Green, 1993, p.25).

The challenge here is equal facilitation of all institutions to avoid diversity in the system. This charges governments to fund all institutions without discrimination and set policies that give institutions equal opportunities to funding. Universal Primary Education (UPE) guidelines in Uganda for example, are discriminative. They allow urban schools (municipalities and city councils) to charge Uganda shillings ten thousand, four hundred per term which is not the case with rural schools. Equal opportunities will assist the application of performance indicators across the board with ease.

The underlying major principle of value for money is the notion of accountability – accountable to the funders and users of services (customers). This is against the background that institutions are custodians of resources.

3.1.2.6 Quality as Transformation.

The construct of quality as transformation is tagged to the idea of fundamental change and is related to the idea of adding value. This calls for using quality learning experience to enhance and empower learners. This is a relative notion of quality in the sense that absolute standards of input process or output are not an issue, they are independent. That is to say, if the products (learners) of the institution are not equal in standards to those of another, then it is not important provided they (learners) have been enhanced and empowered by experiences within the institution of origin. This is true where institutions are not evenly facilitated especially in developing countries.

It is evident from the theories, traditions, perceptions, QA systems and their purpose discussed above, that QA looks at both internal (the processes and environment within the school and classroom and their actors) and external (environment, community and its actors and geographical location) efficiency. Implying that, determinants of QA are both what goes on in the school and outside it. Its assessment will therefore depend on what the actors both inside and outside say and perceive of the school in causing positive changes desired. QA therefore, *'is a process that ensures the desired standards by both internal and external actors against set benchmarks to determine desired positive changes in achieving institutional goals'*. This implies that QA is relative but dynamic in nature. What you perceive as quality today may not necessarily be quality in a few years to come.

3.1.3 Components of QA.

The effort in this sub-section is to look at the definition of QA from a wide perspective with a view of building consensus of what really QA is.

UNICEF (June, 2000) gave an encompassing definition to quality education (QE). The definition considers quality as an inter-play among key factors when put together assure QE. The key factors are

- (i) Learners who are healthy, well-nourished and ready to participate and learn and supported in learning by their families and communities.

- (ii) Environments that are healthy, safe, protective and gender sensitive and provide adequate resources and facilities.
- (iii) Content that is reflected in relevant curricula and materials for the acquisition of basic skills, especially in areas of literacy, numeracy and skills for life.
- (iv) Instructional processes through which trained teachers use child-centred teaching approaches in well-managed classrooms and schools and skillful assessment to facilitate learning and reduce disparities, and
- (v) Outcomes of the education system that encompass knowledge, skills and attitudes, and are linked to national goals for education and positive participation in Society.

These are factors that any QA process must monitor and evaluate regularly for improvement of quality in education (Position Paper: Rwanda, 2004, p.6).

3.1.4 The Education Tradition Approaches.

As many writers have pointed out (Lennaitre, 2001, Singh, 2001a; Vioeijenstin, 1995) that, the origins of QA lie in developments related to globalization. The challenges and future directions of QA in developing countries must take account of the ideological dimensions of globalization and their relationship to issues of “quality”. The education traditions therefore, have associated notions to quality which shape ideological discussions in the globalization process. While thinking about quality of education, it is important and necessary to differentiate between educational outcomes and the processes leading to them. Those interested in particular defined outcomes, rate quality in those terms and rate educational institutions based on the extent to which their products, meet absolute criteria concerning academic achievement, sporting process, musical success, behaviour, values or any other desirable outcomes (UNESCO, 2005, p.32).

To understand quality, it is useful to undertake a quick but brief review of the different major alternative traditions of educational thought. The different emphases on quality have deep roots in these educational thoughts.

3.1.4.1 The Humanist Tradition Approach.

The humanists hold that, human nature is essentially good and that individual behaviour is autonomous. Everyone is unique and all people are born equal but subsequent inequality is a result of circumstance. Reality for each person is determined by himself or herself. Where these principles are accepted, have direct relevance for educational practice. To the humanists, learners are at the centre of meaning – making which by implication creates a relativist interpretation of quality. They further hold that, education that is strongly influenced by learner actions and is judged central to developing the potential of the child.

The central link between humanists and constructivist learning theory holds the notion that acquisition of knowledge and skills require the active participation of learners (UNESCO, 2005, p.32).

Therefore, quality in the humanist tradition of educational thought as stated by UNESCO (2005) takes the following trend.

- a) *Standardized, prescribed, externally defined or controlled curricular are rejected. They are seen as undermining the possibilities for learners to construct their own meaning and for educational programmes to remain responsive to individual learner's circumstances and needs.*
- b) *The role of assessment is to give learners information and feedback about the quality of their individual learning. It is integral to the learning process; self-assessment and peer assessment are welcomed as ways of developing deeper awareness of learning.*
- c) *The teachers' role is more that of facilitator than instructor.*
- d) *Social constructivism, while accepting these tenets, emphasizes learning as a process of social practice than the result of individual intervention (p.32).*

However, the social constructivism greatly influenced the approach to quality in this tradition. It regards learning as intrinsically, a social issue, thus an interactive process which has overtaken the more conventional constructivist approaches. The humanists look at quality in the context of the traditional notion.

3.1.4.2 The Behaviorist Tradition Approach.

This group holds that learners are not intrinsically motivated or able to construct meaning for them. They further believe that human behaviour can be predicted and controlled through reward and punishment. Further, they believe that cognition is believed on the shaping of behaviour. Both deductive and didactic pedagogies e.g. graded tasks, role learning and memorizations are helpful.

Comparing this group to the humanists, their theories lead to the apposite direction. This is due to their belief that manipulation of behaviour is via a specific stimuli.

Quality in the eyes of the behaviourist, as UNESCO (2005, pp.33) puts it, is that:

- a) *Standardized, externally defined and controlled curricular, based prescribed bjectives and defined independently of the learner are endorsed.*
- b) *Assessment is seen as an objective measurement of learned behaviour against preset assessment criteria.*
- c) *Tests and examination are considered central features of learning and the main means of planning and delivering records and punishments.*
- d) *The teacher directs learning, as the expert who controls stimuli and responses.*
- e) *Incremental learning tasks that reinforce desired associations in the mind of the learner are favoured.*

The behaviourist approach to quality, rhyme with the notion of quality as perfection.

3.1.4.3 The Critical Tradition Approach.

The critical tradition, under which this study has been carried out, emerged as a critique of the percepts of the humanist and behaviourists in the final quarter of the 20th century. This is mainly a group of sociologists who perceive society as a system of interrelated parts, with codes and stability maintained by commonly held values.

The role of education is to pass over the values. According to this tradition, quality should be measured by the effectiveness of the processes of value transmission. The critical approaches share the view that education tends to reproduce the structures and inequalities of the wider society. They further assert that the critical intellectuals should

work to empower the marginalized learners by helping them analyze their experience and thus re-class social inequality and injustice. The approach allows learners find their own voices, frees them from externally defined needs and helps them to explore alternative way of thinking norms.

According to UNESCO (2005), the critical traditions look at education quality as:-

- a) *Education that prompts social change*
- b) *A curriculum and teaching methods that encourage critical analysis of social power relations and of way in which formal knowledge is produced and transmitted.*
- c) *Active participation by learners in the design of their own learning experience.*

The critical approach tends to align their approach to quality along the notion of quality as transformation expecting to cause social change.

3.1.5 The Concept of QA.

The quality of education is a main concern of every stakeholder and is a prerequisite for achieving the education goals. Each nation is in dire quest for quality of its education. In 1990, when the World Declaration on Education for All was made, quality was identified as a prerequisite for achieving the fundamental goal of equity.

- i) It is again in that similar tone that Len and Price Rom (2006) had to write

Educational quality in developing countries has become a topic of intense interest, primarily because of countries' efforts to maintain quality in the context of quantitative expansion of educational provision whether explicit or implicit, a vision of educational quality is always embedded within countries' policies and programmes (p.2).

It is of no interest to talk about education without emphasizing its quality. Quality now is a topical issue in all efforts to address educational achievements.

- ii) Len and Price – Rom (2006, p.2) state that, often the literature is based on an assumption of “consensus on what the term means, approaches to quality can vary widely. "This further explains the relativity of quality. Adams (1993) and Adams et al (1995) explain that, conceptions of educational quality can focus on a variety of inputs (e.g. facilities, curriculum), processes

(e.g. instructional approach and student participation) and / or outputs (e.g. learner achievement and attainment).

However, the question remains, what constitutes QE. Quality of education is looked at differently by different individuals and groups of individuals. The sixth goal adopted at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal in 2000 reads.

Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills (2004, p.4).

The goal sets motion into the quest for the concept and consequently the definition for QE. It is true from the goal that the concept is approached from the aspects/perspectives the concept must address.

In the Ugandan context, Ministry of Education and Sports /UNESCO (MOES and UNESCO, 2005) define QE as”

The improvement of all aspects of learning and ensuring excellence so that recognizable and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all learners, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills. In other words, quality education should provide learners with essential skills necessary for responsible living (p.54).

This definition, identifies three major essential elements of QE as, literacy, numeracy and life skills in the Ugandan context, the absence of the three elements refers to the absence of quality education. The definition is narrow in scope and looks at only learning and is silent about all the aspects of learning and other aspects of QE. It focuses on the learner in particular, learning outcomes and not the provider of learning and the environment in which the learner receives the learning process. The associated learning materials that are supposed to support and bring out the learning outcomes are not mentioned. It too, does not mention the content (curriculum) the learner receives.

3.1.5.1 UNESCO and UNICEF Approach.

According to UNESCO, (2004, p.30), it is looked at in terms of pillars – based upon four pillars

- (i) *Learning to know, acknowledges that learners build their own knowledge daily, combining indigenous and ‘external elements’*

- (ii) *Learning to do, focuses on the practical application of what is learned.*
- (iii) *Learning to live together, addresses the critical skills for a life free discrimination, where all have equal opportunity to develop themselves, their families and their communities earning to be, emphasizes the skills needed for individuals to develop themselves, their families and their communities.*

This concept to education emphasizes the learning of the child to have behavioral change towards positive living.

The UNICEF approach to quality puts emphasis on desirable dimensions as identified in the Dakar framework. The paper defining quality in education recognizes five dimensions of quality: learners, environments, content, process and outcomes (UNESCO, 2005, p.31). The dimensions are based on the rights of the child and all children to survival, protection, development and participation (UNICE, 2000). It is against this background that UNICEF (2005) had to state.

Like the dimensions of education quality identified by UNESCO (Pigozzi, 2000), those recognized by UNICEF drawn on the philosophy of the convention on the Rights of the Child (Economic, Social and Cultural Rights). Such legal safeguards permit stakeholders to hold government accountable for progressive realization of the right to education and for aspects of quality” (UNESCO, Opcit).

It is against this background that governments have struggled to put in place interventions to address quality in education based on accessibility, equity and retention to address demands of stakeholders.

In view of the above, UNESCO (2005) had to make it clear that:-

Where human rights legislation deals with education, its central concern are equity; the objective of increasing equality in learning outcomes, access and retention. This ambition reflects a belief that all children can develop basic cognitive skills, given the right learning environment. That many who go to school fail to develop these skills is due in part to a deficiency in education quality. Recent analysis confirm that poverty, rural residence and gender inequality persists as the strongest inverse correlates of school attendance and performance (UNESCO, 2003a) and that poor instruction is a significant source of inequality. Quality and equity are inextricably linked.

3.1.6 QA Development and Understanding

Given the diverse understandings and interpretations of quality as discussed in the previous sections, it is imperative to get to understand and develop consensus on quality aspects. This is also in the efforts that there is effectiveness in achieving quality improvement in the education systems.

The yearn for quality worldwide, demands that there be development of both internal and external elaborate and comprehensive procedures to audit the practices and procedures of education service providers if the broad education goals are to be achieved. This calls for a QA System (QAS) in place to guide the practices and procedures of any education system. The QA cannot happen in a vacuum, there must be an enabling policy/atmosphere in order to achieve its goals and objectives, an enabling policy will call for a QA Framework (QAF) detailing all that is required of the education service providers, institutions, policy makers and decision makers as regards quality provision. With quality assurance in place, quality control, and quality maintenance and their quality improvements are assured.

Dr. W. Edwards Deming (Shannon, 2003 – 2008), developed a shewhart cycle for QA and it consists of four steps: Plan, Do, Check and Act – commonly known as the PDCA model.

Under the step of plan, you determine and establish objectives and processes required to deliver the desired results. Here you have to think of the viable and relevant implementation strategies and activities. At Do step, you implement the processes developed with the assistance of strategies and activities designed at planning stage.

The Check step ensures that you monitor and evaluate the implemented processes by testing the results against pre-determined objectives to see whether they (objectives) are being achieved. Monitoring may call for either internal monitoring (self-

monitoring) or external monitoring or both but at different intervals, the latter checks on the former.

Likewise, evaluation too, will call for internal evaluation (self-evaluation) or external evaluation, the former informing the latter. Finally, at the Act step, you apply actions necessary for improvement if the results require changes.

The PDCA model tries to analyze the existing methods and conditions being employed to provide products or services and later offers strategies (at action stage) for improvement. If the cycle is repeatedly used in the lifetime of the product or service delivery it ensures internal efficiency which is so crucial during products process or service delivery. However, Dr. Kaoru Ishikawa looked further at Dr. W. Edwards Deming's PDCA model and developed it into a six step model (DSLU – Manilla 2002):-

- a) Determine goals and targets
- b) Determine methods of reaching goals
- c) Engage in education and training
- d) Implement work
- e) Check the effects of implementation
- f) Take appropriate action

In my view, Ishikawa expanded the planning step into two steps – determining goals and targets and then methods of reaching goals. These are planning activities. At his step two, you pre-determine the implementation strategies. Where he deferred with Deming, is the step of education and training. The implication is that before you engage in the implementation work (Do step) you need to educate through training those to handle the products (learners) if service delivery is to be effective and efficient and if desired goals are to be achieved and strategies fully implemented.

3.1.6.1 QA Development.

There has been overwhelming growth in QA processes in Higher Education (HE) unlike in primary education, specifically because of the global outlook of higher

education. The growth has generally been spearheaded primarily by the national agencies on quality (Goshing and D'Andrea, 2001), in addition to regional bodies on QA and the need for internationalism (Lemaitre). The unfortunate part to primary education is lack of the internationalism element neither the global outlook. This is primarily a national concern where individual governments take national concern and initiatives although with experiences borrowed from other countries to provide quality primary education unlike where higher education enjoys uniformity in provision, accreditation at both continental and world level and course design across the world.

However, the principles of QA development in higher education can easily be applied to shape QA in primary education sector.

Quality development enables QA and educational development work in partnership with each other to achieve some common goals of the education system (Goshing and D'Andrea, 2001). It is in view of this that Goshing and D'Andrea (2001) had this to say.

There are undoubtedly ways in which the kinds of improvements to learning and teaching with which educational developments is centrally concerned will be, and should be reflected in the criteria by which quality is assessed... Similarly, there are quality assurance mechanisms that can and should be part of an integrated process for improving students' learning experiences (pp.7-8).

The quality development approach is a combination of educational development that brings in the enhancement of learning and teaching together with the quality and standards monitoring processes in an education system (Goshing and D'Andrea, Ibid). Educational development in this context settles into the management of three major areas – academic (content) development, learning development and quality development. The educational development should take care of development implementation and evaluation of the educational provision. Later it should inform the curriculum development and validation process of the new developments in pedagogical theory and practice and teaching/learning strategies that are effective in achieving the curriculum goals so developed.

Bringing together learning development with academic development and quality development, the process takes into account the expertise of each area and produces a more useful result. In this context, the learners are adequately supported to achieve the best results in their studies (Goshing and D'Andrea, 2001, p.12).

The quality development concept is built on a four pillar approach – peer observation of teaching, learner evaluations, curriculum design and learner learning development (study skills) (Goshing and D'Andrea, 2001).

In the context of peer observation of teaching, the ultimate goal is a summative judgment of the teaching observed – no formative feedback by subject reviewers and no reflective practice on the part of the teacher observed. The focus of the approach is on the stated outcomes for the teaching observed and whether they have been achieved by the learner at that particular time without reference to past learning experience. The function of the approach is to inform and assist departments/institutions to provide a high quality educational experience to teachers, to encourage teachers to reflect on the effectiveness of their own teaching and identify both their and departmental/institutional development needs. Important to note at this stage is that, all observers need to have the appropriate methods of observation and know to provide feedback. A learner evaluation of teaching – learner involvement in the evaluation of their learning is on the increase. In the USA it has been in place for quite some time. This is against the background that learners' voice be heard to improve the learning experience.

The learners' demand has been that curriculum should be more relevant to meet their needs and scholars thought that this should be a vehicle for change. Learners' evaluations are used by managers to assess teaching performance of teachers and consequently used for identifying poor teaching where remedial can be provided. The emphasis here is that learner evaluations should be separated from managerial purposes (Goshing & D'Andrea, 2001). In my view and basing on personal experience it cannot be entirely divorced from that purpose. Quality is not only about the teaching learning process but it too covers the management system of the schools.

Although it is argued that learner views should not be used to make judgment about personal performance, they can be used to review curriculum and identify areas of improvement among the staff.

This may sound unfamiliar and not possible among the learners of primary education but it is possible with due respect to their understanding and nature of exposure. The ANPPCAN (African Network for Protection, Prevention of Child Abuse and Neglect) – Uganda Chapter (2008) published a report on children monitoring of UPE, their findings is a testimony that primary education learners can do it. Secondly during my data collection visits to schools, I noticed only one head-teacher who uses learners to evaluate or monitor teacher teaching in classes. A child in class was recording the lessons each teacher attended and taught.

With curriculum design, it is important to develop a learning outcome model for curriculum design. The model is built on the notion that, teachers are expected to have achieved expected learning outcomes at each class level. The outcomes need to be clearly stated. The importance of the model is to achieve transparency for both the teacher and the learner as a tool for planning teaching and achieving effective learning.

At higher education, this called for an establishment of a qualifications framework for award of credits at identified levels of learning. This is true with countries like U.K, South Africa, Australia, New Zealand and Uganda where it has been enriched in an act-BTVET (2008) Act. At primary education level in Uganda, the MOES (2005) went ahead to print and distributed to primary schools, learning competencies (outcomes) expected of teachers at each class (P1-P3) to guide the teachers' teaching process. The implementation failed. However, the dilemma was how to assess them. At that point, the ministry had proposed a mid-cycle examination at primary four to assess them as the case is with Tanzania and Ghana but this has never taken off.

Learner learning development, one of the major targets of a quality assurance approach is to bring about improvement. Which improvement must take note of the impact on learners' learning. Although there is little evidence that QA processes improve students' learning experience (Horsburgh, 1999), it is important that the factors that have created an enabling situation to success of the learners learning be taken into account. In most cases, QA processes look at inputs – systems in place that support learner learning and outputs as measured by indicators but target the factors that have been so crucial in influencing the inputs to yield to outputs (Goshing and A'ndrea, 2001 p.15). A quality development approach should therefore take note of the impact of interactions between learner and teacher, the effectiveness of materials available and their use by students.

3.1.6.2 Quality Control.

This is a strategy within the quality assurance process that checks on the objectives of the QA. Cole (1996, p.232) stated that, “the role of quality control is to ensure that appropriate standards of quality are set and that variance beyond tolerance is rejected”. It is mainly a system of putting in place quality standards and measuring performance against standards set and taking appropriate actions to deal with deviations outside permitted tolerances. In education, inspection and supervision are common key components of evaluation and monitoring in a quality control system. M/E is a typical way to control quality. It provides and checks on key quality indicators. The quality process includes the periodic review of programmes, standards (benchmarks) and evaluation (World Bank, 1996).

Quality control emphasizes identifying /locating mistakes that may have already happened. On the other hand TQM is a system, it simply refers to monitoring quality preventative measure – it emphasizes actions to prevent mistakes. Quality control will look at strength, consistency, reliability, validity or any other characteristics to ensure that the product or service meets some pre-established standards. This implies that quality control may be needed at one or more points during the process at the beginning or in the process and at the final stage of the product or service.

Quality control calls for monitoring as a strategy to ensure that things are done the correct way. It may either be self-monitoring (Internal-monitoring) or external monitoring. These are important in the sense that they check on and support the implementation of reforms from within or from outside the institution (Akiyoshi, 2002). Self monitoring attracts internal reflections for the reforms taking place and external monitoring attracts the outside view that the self-monitoring may not be possible to point out.

Another strategy is evaluation self-evaluation (Internal evaluation) or external evaluation. These too, have the same benefits with the strategy monitoring but with a value judgment as an added advantage. Self-monitoring, self-evaluation and decentralized assessment provide flexibility to institutions to develop institutions to develop institutional QAS relevant to its needs within a QA Framework.

The third strategy is the centralized versus decentralized assessment. The decentralized assessment is equated to external monitoring carried out by the central government and external evaluation while decentralized assessment is to self-monitoring and self-evaluation.

Different quality control techniques can be used. Cole (1996) identified four of them:-

- a) *Acceptance sampling – a quality control procedure in which a sample is taken and a decision to accept or reject a complete tool is based on a calculation of sample risk error.*
- b) *Process control – a quality control procedure in which sampling is done during the transformation process to determine whether the process itself is under control.*
- c) *Attribute sampling - a quality control technique that classifies items as acceptable on the basis of a comparison to a standard.*
- d) *Variable sampling – a quality control technique in which a measurement is taken to determine how much an item varies from the standard (p.707).*

Although the above techniques are applied in manufacturing industries, they equally apply in the education system. For example, mid-cycle examination (at primary four) is the example of process control technique. while NAPE, relates to attribute sampling technique. When, during an inspection a child is called upon to read a book to

ascertain the expected standard of the class, a variable sampling technique is employed.

3.1.6.3 Quality Culture.

A culture of quality is a collective effort that calls for everybody in the institution or organization be responsible for quality (Crosby 1986). At a personal experience level, the notion of culture calls for forms and traditions acceptable by everybody in any society that demands that each works towards achieving them and maintaining them. Thus, passing them over to the generations to come (continuity). A quality culture therefore, needs a system of interrelated actors and activities each with inputs and outputs, which are quality interfaces (maintenance). The actors and activities ensure that one output is the direct outcome of the inputs (Harvey and Green, 1993). When outputs are not, the system has led to unsatisfactory outputs and has to be analyzed to make corrections so as to avoid the reoccurrence of the problem. By implication, quality control is acceptable in a quality culture – there is a need to check the final output. To do so, there is need to shift responsibility away from the actors at each stage is the answer.

3.1.7 QA in the Uganda Context.

With the introduction of UPE in 1997 with four children per family (2girls and 2boys) and later to all children, the number of children increased from 3million children in 1996 to 5.3million children in 1997 (MOES, 2004). By 2008 the figure had reached 8million children in primary schools which has remained constant up to today.

This explosion in enrolment created gaps in teachers, thus the teacher – pupil ratio increased. In response, unqualified teachers were employed and retired teachers recalled. Classes were crowded; this meant that classrooms available could not accommodate the numbers. To cope with this situation, churches, mosques, trees and make shifts were used as classrooms. In turn the government started constructing classes in some schools- at least 4 classrooms in some schools under SFG programme. Textbooks were not enough for the numbers, so were the toilets.

Government started procuring textbooks under cycles and later under DIMP. Parents were not allowed to pay for anything neither contribute towards schools programmes and activities. For lunch, parents were supposed to provide “entanda” (cold packed lunch). The uniform was not an issue. To me, this marked the genesis of deteriorating quality education in the primary education system. Performance at PLE started going down – proficiency in literacy (reading) and numeracy started declining.

The cited responses above were adopted to face the challenges existing especially to enhance equity, access and retention of learners. This later drew Ministry of Education and Sports’, Donors’ and NGOs’ attention to interventions to address quality issues. Among which a series of studies were conducted to ascertain the level of learning achievements.

The following studies were conducted, MOES (2004, pp.2 -3).

- a) NAPE by UNEB (This is done annually. This is done with an aim to examine the levels of pupils’ achievement in English literacy, numeracy as related to pupils’ gender, age and school location. It also examines the impact of educational inputs and processes on pupils’ learning at p.3 and p.6 levels.
- b) Monitoring Learning Achievements at Lower Primary (MALP) by Directorate of Educational Standards (DES) and UNICEF. This was conducted in 2004 and its focus was on pupils’ achievement of desired proficiencies in basic numeracy, literacy and life skills.
- c) SACMEQ with Education Planning Department (EPD). This is conducted periodically with an intention to generate baseline data pertaining to general conditions of schooling and learning achievement.
- d) NIP by DES done in 2002 and 2003 to monitor and enhance the quality of education, through assessing institutional management, teaching and learning processes and the self assessment and evaluation system for institutional administrators.
- e) Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP)- conducted in 2004 with an aim to enable learners participate in the review of poverty eradication plan.

- f) Critical characteristics of effective primary education in Rwenzori Region in Western Uganda by Ireland, conducted in 2004 with a view to evaluate teachers' inputs in preparing learning activities and actual assessment of the learning processes.
- g) A study done in Northern and North-Eastern (Karamoja) Uganda to address issues of teacher competence in classroom activities, supervision of teachers by school administrators and availability of resources.
- h) The Norwegian Refugee Council – Primary Education Initiatives in Gulu district (Northern Uganda) focused on improving the learning environment and teaching quality for the benefit of internally displaced and local children within the district.
- i) School feeding programme for primary and secondary schools in Uganda. This was to assess health related factors in the school environment. This was conducted by the Principal Medical Officer, in charge school health services, Ministry of Health, Uganda.
- j) Break Through to Literacy (BTL) report – conducted in 2002 by Kyambogo University to evaluate the teaching of reading, writing and life skills in primary schools.
- k) Education inputs in Uganda: An analysis of factors influencing learning achievement in grade six – World Bank Working Paper No.98 by Harriet Nanyonjo in 2007.
- l) Impact Evaluation of interventions in the primary education in Uganda by the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs in 2008.

There are other studies carried out whose findings have not been published.

The reports on the studies carried out in general, raised the following critical and salient issues.

a) *Facilities and resources*

It was evident that the majority of schools especially in rural areas had inadequate facilities and resources. NIP (2002, p.19) indicated schools had a shortage of classroom accommodation and lessons were being conducted under trees. Sanitary facilities for both teachers and learners are inadequate to an average ratio stance of

1:100 in the majority of schools (NIP, 2002; MALP, 2004). In many schools teachers and learners (boys and girls) sharing the same stances (Researchers' observation).

b) *Teacher preparation and teaching process:*

The NIP (2002/2003) report indicated that 67% of the teachers had satisfactorily schemed and planned lessons in examinable subjects in PLE, this could possibly have been due to earlier warning of the NIP exercise otherwise the practice is absence of schemes of work and lesson plans as the case was with head-teachers. In most cases teachers use schemes and lessons of the previous 2-3years back. Teachers taught without proper instructional materials and lacked skills to improvise and effectively utilize instructional materials. Methods employed included mainly lecture, question and answer technique, a bit of brainstorming, group exercises and experiments. Generally, lacked methods of teaching. Poor communication skills in English were observed among teachers during data collection.

c) *Teacher competence in the classroom*

Teachers seemed highly trained as revealed by their certificates but classroom practices were generally poor. Some teachers lacked knowledge of subject matter and managerial skills. Quite a number especially in rural schools displayed poor communication skills in English in respect to sentence construction, pronunciation, grammar and speaking. They could not interpret the curriculum (NIP, 2002/2003 p.26) although the NIP report attributed this to inadequate training of teachers in use of volume I and II of the primary curriculum, the researcher attributes this to rampant forgery of certificates and impersonation among teachers.

d) *Reading, writing and life skills*

MALP (2004), NIP (2002/2003) and Rwenzori Region reports indicated that reading and writing skills were not adequately taught in schools as there was a tendency of teachers concentrating on examinable subjects at PLE. Consequently, learners depicted low levels of reading and writing and found difficulty in comprehending written tests and expressing themselves in writing.

e) *Absenteeism of head-teachers, teachers and learners*

SACMEQ and NIP reports noted that most head-teachers were absent from schools and did not effectively delegate responsibilities (NIP, 2002/2003, p.20). Teacher absenteeism was also rampant in schools. This led to poor supervision, monitoring of teaching and learning process and other school programmes. School syllabus and co-curricular activities were not adequately covered.

Learner absenteeism was too rampant in schools which affected learner achievements, promotes indiscipline and low motivation towards learning. The causes to learner absenteeism were due to poor monitoring of pupil attendance by teachers, children providing labour in their families and doing petty business for family support.

f) *Assessment System of Learner Achievement*

Written homework and tests were the main assessment strategies. The majority of teachers gave exercises and homework to pupils which were inadequate for large classes. Activities given to pupils did not cater for individual differences neither for cognitive aspects of their achievement.

Learners in Kampala, the capital city, performed much better than those upcountry especially in rural areas. A trend that is true with PLE. Report on impact evaluation of interventions in primary education indicated that inspite of all interventions put in place performance (achievement) has remained low. (The Netherlands, 2008, p....)

g) *Mid-day Meals*

Both teachers and learners in rural schools especially go on without mid-day meals and in most cases children come to school when they are already hungry from home. This caused absenteeism, lack of concentration and demotivation, as a result lowered the quality of education (SACMEQ, 2003, p.74; NIP, 2002/2003, p.20). School Health Services report indicated that meals served in schools contained mainly

carbohydrates and only 26% of the day schools provided midday meals in form of porridge.

h) Home background of Learner

Reports revealed that home background of learners greatly affect their achievements at school. 68.4% of learners are from poor families where shelter, utilities and food are inadequate. Parents from these homes had inadequate education and low attachment to educational values. These families had poor and unsteady sources of income and this made it difficult for them to provide the necessary learning resources. Northern region was the most disadvantaged with over 78% of learners' homes lacking materials (SACMEQ, 2003, p.74; NIP, p.78). Nanyonjo (2007, p.xiv) saw a positive relationship between number of books at home, language spoken (combination of English and vernacular) and pupils' performance.

i) Management Skills

NIP (2002/2003, pp.16-17) indicated 34% of school administrators were found to lack competent management and leadership skills, planning, prioritizing and supervision of school activities were poorly done which led to low quality of education.

j) Discipline in Schools

While communities in most districts believed primary school children were well-behaved, teachers reported that learners were indisciplined. The PEAP report indicated that leaders resorted to the use of corporal punishments as the dominant approach to disciplining the children (PEAP, 2004, pp.19-20).

k) School dropouts

PEAP and Rwenzori Region reports indicated that school dropouts were mainly due to education related costs imposed by schools management, (PEAP, 2004, p.32). The level of poverty and literacy of parents also contributed to learners dropping out of school due to lack of proper guidance.

Defilement, pregnancies and early marriages were the major causes of girls dropping out of school. This was as a result of being induced by rich men and at times forced into early marriages by parents who wanted to receive dowry (PEAP, 2004, pp 19-25). Displacement due to wars, child labour and exploitation has contributed to school dropout. Boys kept away from schools because of petty trade and attending to farms (PEAP, 2004, p.40).

I) *BTL pilot study was supportive to teaching and learning environment.*

Learner centred instruction strategies were adopted to allow learners take more responsibility for their learning and teachers to utilize a variety of learning activities at the same time for different learner groups. Learning was made enjoyable and life skills were promoted. Learners in BTL classes were found to be high achievers as compared to traditional classes.

With the above experiences as depicted by the studies the MOES went on to put in place and to emphasize a framework and process to spearhead initiatives to enhance QE.

The UNESCO (2004), position paper on QA in Basic Education (Uganda) detailed issues and questions on QA as required by UNESCO framework.

1) Who is involved in QA at different levels and their role.

a) *Autonomous Bodies*

The National Council of Higher Education (NCHE) set up by Universities and other Tertiary Institutions, Act 2000 is concerned with quality at university and other tertiary institutions. The roles is to set and regulate standards of setting up institutions, accreditation of the institutions, registration of private institution and monitoring achievement of standards.

- (i) UNEB – set up by act of parliament 1983 – UNEB Act 1983 whose role is to monitor the achievement of learning competencies through periodical examinations at different levels and award certificates.

- (ii) National curriculum Development Centres (NCDC) set up by a Decree of 1976 whose role is to develop and review the curriculum for primary and secondary education. Secondly to set learning competencies which are listed through different learning achievement assessment mechanisms to determine educational goals and achievements that have been achieved.
- (iii) Education Service Commission (ESC) was made operational by Article 167 of the Constitution and mandated to ensure that quality teachers teach in Ugandan schools through validation and discipline and determine the minimum entry requirements for training of teachers.

b) Decentralized Structure and Processes

- (i) The management of pre-primary education placed in the hands of private sector but the curriculum development role is with the NCDC.
- (ii) Primary education service delivery was decentralized to local government under the management of individual districts. Primary teacher education is the role of central government but recruitment and deployment is at the district level.
- (iii) Secondary education was decentralized to local government in principle but its management is still with the central government. Other than the transmission of salaries and wages the rest of the functions are still managed at MOES headquarters.

c) Semi-autonomous Bodies.

DES was established as a result of the Education Policy Review Commission (1989) and the specific recommendation to set it up in the government white paper (1992). The Directorate was established as a semi –autonomous body by the Education Act (2008) with headquarters offices and 4 regional offices. Its roles are to set, define and review standards in educational practice and provision at pre-primary, primary, secondary, business, technical and vocational education and training institutions. Secondly, to assess the achievement of standards and evaluate the effectiveness of educational programmes. Three, to develop systematic approaches to inspection, evaluation and self evaluation systems using appropriate quality indicators. Further, to provide and disseminate regular reports on the quality

of education. Lastly, to provide independent expert comments and advice on educational provision and practice at all levels of education.

d) Departments of the Ministry of Education and Sports

Each department as indicated in chapter 2 subsection 2.2.2 carries out QA activities pertaining to among other issues, issuing licence/registration to private schools and institutions; developing sector specific policies and monitoring their effective and efficient implementation, initiating procurement processes for the provision of inputs and monitoring their use, generally monitoring the quality of education provided under different sub-sectors from a national sub-sector perspective.

MOES has a M/E framework and a unit under the Education Planning department whose functions are to:-

- (i) coordinate different quality assurance strategies
- (ii)** ensure that the ministry is on target with its policies and work plans.

(2) Legal Framework

All the quality bodies (autonomous and semi-autonomous are mandated by their respective acts of parliament/decrees as stated above to execute their roles and functions as stated.

(3) Objective and role of QA Services

The objectives and roles of QA services in the country are derived from the MOES vision and mission for all:

Mission Statement: “To provide for, support, guide, coordinate regulate and promote QE and sports to all persons in Uganda for national integration, individual and national development”. (www.education.go.ug)

The vision and mission statement are derived from the objectives of the Education Sector Strategic plan (ESSP) framework that spells out the medium and long-term policies of strategies. These are in turn spelt out in the Uganda Vision 2025 development policies, the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) and the Poverty Reduction Support Credit (PRSC), where through improving the quality of life, education is one of the four pillars of poverty reduction.

(4) Qualification and recruitment procedures

Staff recruitment for those responsible for QA in Uganda is spearheaded by the Human Resource Sections of each QA body. After performance appraisal, they (sections) identify vacancies that need to be filled and notifies the governing bodies/councils. Job specifications, desired competencies, academic professional qualifications and experience are set and vacancies are announced in the media and interested applicants respond to adverts. Selection of suitable candidates to be invited for interviews depends on the prospective candidates scoring on the requirements spelt out in the advert. Vetting of suitable candidates is undertaken through open interviews conducted by a panel constituting of field experts, accountability organs and representatives of various ministry departments with a stake in the quality assurance body that is recruiting new staff.

However, in my personal experience, this has not been the case. Much as a suitable candidate is selected, the “*powers above*” in many cases have decided otherwise contrary to the suitable candidate due to political affiliation and this is killing the system. The QA body, if it has provisions, can proceed to organize an induction course for the successful candidates with appointment letters.

(5) Roles and Responsibilities

There are three bodies whose focuses are central to QA activities in the MOES – UNEB, NCDC and DES. Their roles and responsibilities were briefly listed in 1(a) 1 and (c) above. And, they are further explained in their respective legal frameworks.

(6) Factors determining the type of QA procedure.

DES has a broader mandate than UNEB and NCDC. The procedure is determined by:-

- a) Routine inspection to monitor school activities and programmes including those of UNEB and NCDC thus calling for designing inspection programmes targeting specific areas.
- b) In extra-ordinary situations calling for a focused or investigative type (fire fighting inspection).

(7) Types of QA and expected, frequency

DES uses an evidence based inspection framework modeled along good or poor practice criteria rated a four point scale of:-

(i) 1- Poor ,(ii) 2 – Fair, (iii) 3 Good , (iv) 4 – Very good.

The criterion is preceded by indicators developed, related items and a checklist of expected evidences to guide good practices with a view of assessing the quality of an area to be inspected.

The frequency of inspection is determined by;-

- i) The inspection framework which is characterized by
 - a) National Inspection Programme (NIP) to evaluate the quality of education in relative terms on a 4 – 5 year cycle.
 - b) Focus/ investigative inspections to evaluate the quality of specific aspects taking between 2 -5days.
 - c) Routine inspections of half a day per school on a daily basis (when possible) especially by district inspectorates.
 - d) Flying visits when the school/institution is on the way to the intended/programmed route.
- ii) Availability of funding and other facilities and resources to enable inspectors to carryout schools inspections. Inadequate funding has characterized the inspectorate functions especially at district level.
- iii) Availability of feedback reports on implementation of improvement programmes as a result of previous visits to enable inspectors carry-out follow-up visits.
 - iv) On-going programmes in other departments in which inspectors are required to participate thereby learning less time for routine school visits.

(8) QA data collection process

Different departments collect different data in view of purpose for which data is collected. DES focus is on the process of education which calls for developing instruments to collect more qualitative data. DES and Link community Development (international NGO involved in QE Initiatives) developed an instrument for qualitative data collection which later translates into quantitative data with 18 (eighteen) indicators under three major themes.

- (i) Teaching and Learning

- a) Teachers prepare and plan lessons effectively
- b) There is effective use of resources and of the classroom environment
- c) The quality of teaching and learning process is effective.
- d) Assessments are frequently carried out and records properly maintained.
- e) Teachers have a good understanding of what they teach.
- f) Pupils fully understand what they are taught.

(ii) School Leadership and Management

- a) The leadership in the school effective
- b) School finances are well managed
- c) Resources are well managed
- d) The teaching and learning process is properly supervised
- e) Staff are deployed and developed effectively
- f) Schools manage co-curricular activities effectively
- g) The school ensures access and equity for all.
- h) Climate and relationship within the school is good.
- i) The school ensures good sanitation, nutrition and health
- j) Safety and security within the school is good.

(iii) School Governance

- a) The school governance body is well organized and has a clear sense of direction.
- b) The community participates in the school life and improvement.

Under each indicator there is a checklist rated against. Not Achieved, Partially Achieved and Fully Achieved.

The data collection tools are designed to be user friendly identifying a specific indicator, specific focus areas of themes and spaces where evidence of good practices are entered. Data collection starts with sending a specially designed tool for self-assessment and evaluation to school managers. The purpose is, the managers to identify mainly areas of weaknesses to form the basis of the inspection so that strategies for improvement can be developed by inspectors, managers, teachers and learners together. However, this doesn't mean that good practices are not looked at. They are looked at and strategies for maintenance developed.

There are tools used to validate data and cleaning up before it is coded and made ready for analysis. Report writing is a collective process which starts with general observations, runs into recommendations and ends with specific quality indicators and recommendations.

The reports are disseminated at:-

- i) The schools where the inspection was carried out after agreement on recommendations during the conferencing session between inspectors, teachers and managers.
- ii) The district – where the schools are located, district leadership receives a copy of the report to address district level problems and challenges that are likely to affect the effective functioning of the schools as recommended by the inspector(s)
- iii) The MOES – the specific line ministry in which the schools fall. Receives the reports (district reports) to address policy related or administrative problems which have to be solved at ministry level as recommended by the inspector(s).

The schools, districts and MOES are expected to provide feedback on actions taken on implementing recommendations to enable DES carryout follow up visits to determine whether there is improvement.

UNEB collects quantitatively oriented data to track acquisition of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes in the management of national examinations. The tools are in form of:-

- i) Examination results- which provide overall examinations performance patterns and trend by subject, school, gender and district.
- ii) Independent subject specific research – which calls for designing, distribution and analysis of questionnaires.

Findings from examinations data are disseminated nationally through the media and to individual schools that had candidates. They (findings), highlight factors that affected academic performance in different subject areas and have implications for teaching and learning process.

(9) Monitoring and Evaluation

This is undertaken at different levels.

- i) Education sector level – by the department of Education Planning of MOES with a focus on school inputs and outputs, quality aspects, different programmes and strategies that impact education.
- ii) Education sector level – by DES with particular focus on the process and quality aspects of the education system.
- iii) Sub-sector departments' specific level – by focusing on the implementation of sub-sector programmes of the departments of the MOES.

Information at the three levels feed into the ministry's overall monitoring and evaluation framework backed up by the Education Management Information System (EMIS).

The emphasis has always been re-defining QE, setting performance indicators and benchmarks and investment in the data management system are some of the major initiatives in place for monitoring and evaluation of QA.

The quality assurance initiatives have been supplemented with the presence of the following handbooks.

- i) Management Committee Handbook
- ii) M/E Frameworks.
- iii) Guidelines for quality assurance in basic education in Uganda – A guide for managers, teachers, inspectors and community leaders.
- iv) Self-assessment guidelines.
- v) An inspectors' Manual
- vi) A stakeholders' Inspection Manual
- vii) Inspector Code of Conduct
- viii) Teacher Effectiveness, mentors training guide
- ix) School Customized Performance Targets (for head-teachers and their deputies.
- x) Learning Competencies Handbooks
- xi) Guidelines on teacher professionalism and competences.

The above have been supplemented by Quality Enhancement Initiatives launched by MOES in 2008 with a specific input of funding district inspectorates among others to visit schools on a frequent basis.

However, in my view, all of this effort is going on in the absence of a QA legal framework which will enable a QAS. If this was in place, then the country can boast of a 'Qualityculture'

3.1.8 QA in Other Contexts

The table below gives a comparative analysis of how Burundi, Eritrea, Kenya and Rwanda ensure QA as adopted from the “State of the Art” position papers for each country (UNESCO framework at UNESCO Nairobi Office, 2004). Equally, the Netherlands (CITO/International, 2009; www.minocw.nl; Focus on the Netherlands, 2004) and South Africa (NEEDU Report, 2009) are put under focus.

COUNTRY	QA INSTITUTIONS/BODIES	LEGAL FRAMEWORK	SCHOOL INSPECTION	QA FRAMEWORK
Burundi	- General Inspectorate of Education with, - Main Inspectorate office for Basic Education. - Four Regional Inspectorates for secondary schools. - The support office for private schools. - The Directorate of Bureaux Pdagogiques with, - Rural Education (Curriculum for Basic Education) - Secondary Education Curriculum. - Technical Training (curriculum for secondary technical and professional training).	- Executive Order No. 1/025 of 13/07/1989 on re-organization of teaching. - Ministerial Order No. 100/011 of 18/01/2002 on re- organization of the Ministry of Education. - Order No. 100/132 of 30/09/2004 on re-organization of School Inspection. - Ministerial Order No. 610/032 of 21/08/2002 on Qualification requirements for positions applied for in education sector. - Ministerial Order No. 620/290 of 31/08/1990 on primary school curriculum and timetable.	Done with specific objectives of Order No. 100/132 of 30/09/2004.	- Orders provide the framework to follow in terms of , - Quality indicators. - Curriculum concerns and reforms. - Monitoring process.

Eritrea	- Department of General Education(National) with, - Monitoring and QA division (with Supervision and Pedagogical Support Units). - Assessment and National Examinations Division (with Assessment and National Examinations Units). - At Regional Level, Basic and Secondary Units with Supervisors for monitoring and QA practices. - At Local (sub-region) level. Pedagogical/Resource Centres with coordinators in charge of 7-10 schools (80-100 teachers).	Selection Criterion on Qualification and Recruitment Procedure.	Done at local Level by Supervisors and Pedagogical Resource Centre Coordinators and provide annual reports to Regional level. National and Regional level have supervisory roles.	No well established framework for monitoring and QA.
Kenya	- QA and Standards Department to, - Coordinate. - Follow up. - Advice on curriculum delivery at all levels. - Kenya Institute of Education - develops curriculum for primary (pre-primary inclusive) to secondary education aligned to	- Act of Parliament of 1980 Cap. 285A. - Selection Criteria for QA personnel. - Code of Conduct for QA personnel.	Based on agreed inspection plans and work programs at national, district, division and zonal level.	“ All Round Performance” with indicators /benchmarks indicated.

	- needs assessment. - Kenya National Examinations Council – to administer tests and examinations.			
Rwanda	- The Inspector General of Education – charged for QA assisted by other bodies to establish norms and standards for operations of new schools and to inspect all schools at all levels except universities. - National Examinations Council – to evaluate performance at end of primary and secondary. - National Curriculum Development Centre – to design curriculum and determine teaching materials. - Educational Managers at national, provincial, district and school level.	Prime Minister's Order No. 05/03 Of 15/03/2003.	Done at provincial and district level. National level has supervisory roles.	No clear QA Framework.
The Netherlands	Inspectorate with tasks of control, evaluation, stimulation and reporting.	- Government issues rules and regulations – setting quality standards that apply to both public and private schools. - Innovation Policy in place – directs QA system. It emphasizes QA and	- Once in 4 years on a Risk-based Analysis based on, a. Test scores(results) b. Year documents. c. Signals- like complaints community, parents,	Schools categorized as Green, Orange, and Red depending on results.

		Testing which are guided by care and support. The focus is on teaching-learning and test results. - Quality standards set prescribing, a. Subjects to be taught. b. Attainment targets. c. Content of national examinations. d. Number of teaching periods per year. e. Required teaching qualifications.	administrative authorities. d. Results of prior inspection.	a. Green -Sufficient results. b. Orange – There is doubt about reliability and there are signals of possible risks. c. Red – Insufficient results and there are signals of possible risks. So, inspection is a must.
South Africa	- The South African Council for Education – for registration of teachers, ethics and their professional development. - Umulasi – Council for QA and General and Further Education and Training. Mandate – QA of standards in qualifications and curriculum, assessment, accreditation, inspection and provision of certification in	- Development Appraisal System. ELRC resolution 4 of 1998. - Whole School Evaluation (2000). - Performance Management. ELRC Resolution 3 of 2002. - Systematic Evaluation of 2003. Major focus on learner achievement, procedures, processes and performance standards. - Intergrated Quality Management System. ELRC Resolution 9 of 2002 and Resolution 9 of 2003.	Not clearly spelt out in documents.	Legal Framework characterize d by legislation. Each legal entity spells out QA procedure.

	schools, colleges and adult learning centres.	• National Policy Framework for Teacher Education and Development, 2007. • Further Education and Training Act, 1998. • South African Schools Act, 1996. • The National Education Policy Act, 1996. • National Qualifications Framework. Act of Parliament 2001 established Umulasi.		

Table 3: Analysis of QA in Other Contexts

The matrix above, gives a comparative analysis of how QA system is ensured in countries indicated along the themes of: QA institutions, Legal framework, School Inspection and QA Framework in place. From the table, it is eminent that legislation (in any form the country conceives it) plays a key role to guide and monitor QA. In turn legislation, forms the backbone of the QA Framework in which, the QA system is provided and maintained. Significant to note is that there are bodies responsible for QA with specific functions to accomplish but backed up by a legal framework. Equally, the mode of inspection of schools is unique to each country guided by research, monitoring & evaluation and backed up by policies which they inform.

SECTION B: MONITORING AND EVALUATION

3.2 Introduction.

Monitoring and Evaluation (M/E) are distinct in nature, with different goals, although they compliment each other. The effort of this section was to explore each concept independently and later as a combined concept. The strategies of inspection and supervision are also handled to further explain their role in M/E process in the context of this study, M/E are looked at as both a quality control system and a process informing both decision makers and policy makers (Hamilton, 1976, P.I and Worthen & Sanders, 1987, P.5).

3.2.1 Monitoring.

Monitoring is an internal activity intended to determine whether programmes or projects are being implemented as planned. That is, are resources being utilized as planned for and services delivered (*input monitoring*) or goals being achieved or products being delivered (*output monitoring*) on schedule? In Uganda both Central and Local Governments are expected to continuously monitor the progress of decentralization and primary education (ULGA, 2004, P.7).

Valadez and Bambarger (1994) view monitoring as:-

A continuous internal management activity whose purpose is to ensure that the programme achieves its defined objectives within a prescribed timeframe and budget. Monitoring involves the provision of regular feedback on the progress of program implementation and the problems faced during implementation. Monitoring consists of operational and administrative activities that track resource acquisition and allocation production or the delivery of services and cost records (P.12).

IFAD (2002) in its Guide for project monitoring and evaluation define monitoring as:

The regular collection and analysis of information to assist timely decision-making ensure accountability and provide the basis for evaluation and learning. A continuing function uses methodical collection of data to provide management and the main stakeholders of an on-going project or programme with early indications of progress and achievement of objectives (P.A.7)

ODA (1993) defines monitoring as,

A continuous process of data collection and information gathering over the lifespan of the project which allows adjustments to be made and objectives refined. Monitoring provides the information on which evaluation is based (P.5).

Monitoring further looks at the timeframes in which implementations are being executed to assess progress. That is timeliness of activities. If not so, what were the problems and challenges faced and their causes that stalled the process. The regular feedbacks call for informing the concerned ones of all these in order to lay further implementation strategies towards achieving the stated goals and objectives of the programmes/projects then the timeframe.

Monitoring is about collecting information that will help one-answer questions about the project or programme. It is important that, information be collected in a planned, organized and routine manner. Information is used to report on the project or programme and to help in the evaluation process.

Organizations keep records and notes and discuss what they are doing. This kind of checking becomes monitoring when information is about activities or services, users or about outside factors affecting the organization, project or programmes.

Monitoring information is collected at specific times, daily, monthly or quarterly. At some point, the information should be put together so as to answer questions such as:

- How well are the participants of the programme, project or organization are doing?
- Are the right things being done?
- What difference is being made?

At this point, evaluation is taking place. Although monitoring is routine and on-going, evaluation is an in-depth study taking place at specific points in the life of an organization, project or programme.

According to Mulusa (1990), monitoring (a programme, project or institution), “is checking on it regularly to find out how far it is functioning according to plan”. A well planned programme is supposed to have short-term goals, timed activities, special events and a whole host of anticipated changes which should be inspected and documented at specific periods.

Monitoring helps continued self-evaluation (or internal evaluation) by providing data to generate insights through formal and informal processes. Formal monitoring – consists of collecting data about chosen indicators and performance questions. *Informal monitoring* – is about valuing and sharing impressions from chats with stakeholders and from observations in the field. Monitoring therefore, focuses on regular information gathering and the frequent checking of short-term progress, with analysis about implications for the project, programme or institution (IFAD, 2002, P.2-3).

In the education context, monitoring should regularly collect data and frequently check and inform the education manager of the short-term progress within institutions and the implications that accompany the progress. Its intention is to collect information on schools' performance (areas of excellence, strengths and weaknesses).

This kind of information gathering is at times based on standardized instruments with specific performance areas. This gives room for comparison of schools' performance within the education system (NEEDU Report, 2009, P.30).

3.2.2 Evaluation.

3.2.2.1 Historical Development.

Guba and Lincoln (1989, pp. 21-78) list four phases which they called 'generations' in which evaluation has had transformations developmental processes. Each phase had its focus of emphasis.

The First Generation Evaluation (Phase I – mine) ranges from 1800 to 1930s. This was characterized by the measurement of various attributes school children. School tests were used to determine the mastery of content in various disciplines they underwent. During this period, the terms measurement and evaluation were interchangeably used.

Thus, the first generation of evaluation can legitimately be called the measurement generation. The role of the evaluation was technical; he or she was expected to know the full panoply of available instruments so that any

variable named for investigation could be measured. If appropriate instruments did not exist, the evaluator was expected to have the expertise necessary to create them (p.26).

So, in my view, this marked the beginning of psychometrics and as Guba and Lincoln noted, the psychometric laboratories were established in 1873 and 1879 by Galton and Wundt respectively.

The second Generation Evaluation (phase II – mine) begins from 1940 to 1950s. This came into existence as a result of the weakness of First Generation Evaluation of targeting students as objects of evaluation. This group felt that there was need for an evaluation approach that could explain other attributes of students rather than the student data alone. So, the second Generation Evaluation.

An approach characterized by description patterns of strengths and weaknesses with respect to certain stated objectives. The role of the evaluator was that of described although the earlier technical aspects of that role were retained. Measurement was no longer treated as the equivalent of evaluation but was redefined as one of the several tools that might be used in its service (p.28)

The Third Generation Evaluation (phase III – mine) traces its work from 1960 to 1980. This came about as a result of second Generation Evaluation's inadequacy to evaluate "the federal governments" response to the putative deficiencies of American education that had allowed the Russians to gain a march in space exploration." In 1967 the urge to include judgment to the process of evaluation marked the beginning of Third Generation Evaluation. The process was characterized by efforts to achieve judgments. The evaluator assumed the role of a judge while retaining the earlier technical and descriptive functions as well (p.30).

This phase demanded that evaluation lead to judgment and it could not be ignored. So, the 1970s saw models of evaluation designed as judgmental in nature. The term evaluation according to language stems from the term *value*. It is pertinent to think of evaluation in terms of *value judgement*. This was in the view that "the evaluator has no control over how evaluation findings are used; if persons with different values choose

to interpret the factual findings in different ways, the evaluator can hardly be held responsible” (p.34).

The fourth Generation Evaluation (phase IV – mine) begins from early 1980s to date. This has come into existence because of its “*over-commitment to the scientific paradigm of inquiry*” (p.35). As a result of this, Guba and Lincoln (1989) came up with an alternative approach to evaluation – Responsive Evaluation (p.38) first proposed by stake in 1975. This determines the “parameters and boundaries through an interactive negotiated process that involves stakeholders and that consumes a considerable portion of time and resources available” (p.39).

Responsive Evaluation has four phases,

In the first phase, stakeholders are identified and are solicited for those claims, concerns, and issues that they may wish to introduce. In the second phase, the claims, concerns and issues raised by each stakeholder group are introduced to all other groups for comment, reputation, agreement or whatever reaction may please them... in the third phase, those claims, concerns and issues that have not been resolved become the advance organizers for information collection by the evaluator ... in the fourth phase, negotiation among stake holding groups, under the guidance of the collected, takes place, in an effort to reach consensus on each disputed item (p.42).

So, fourth Generation Evaluation, is “a form of evaluation in which the claims, concerns and issues of stakeholders served as organizational foci (the basis for) determining what information is needed) (p.50). Guba and Lincoln continue to give five reasons why stakeholders’ claims, concerns and issues are utilized during the process as :-

- Stakeholders are groups at risk – have a stake in the evaluation.
- Stakeholders are open to exploitation, disempowerment and disenfranchisement.
- Stakeholders are users of evaluation information
- Stakeholders are in a position to broaden the range of evaluative inquiry to the great benefit of the hermeneutic/dialect process.
- Stakeholders are mutually educated by the fourth generation process (pp.51 -57; italic is purely for Guba and Lincoln).

■

Then, the fourth generation evaluator charged for:

- Identifying the full array of stakeholders who are at risk in the projected evaluation.
- Eliciting from each stakeholder group their constructions about the evaluand and the range of claims, concerns and issues they wish to raise in relation to it.
- Providing a context and a methodology (the hermeneutic/dialect) through which different constructions and different claims, concerns and issues, can be understood, critiqued and taken into account.
- Generating consensus with respect to as many constructions and their related claims,
- Preparing an agenda for negotiation on stems about which there is no, or incomplete, consensus.
- Collecting and providing the information called for in the agenda for negotiation.
- Establishing and mediating a forum of stakeholders representatives in which negotiation can take place.
- Developing a report, probably several reports, that communicates to each stakeholder group any consensus on constructions and any resolutions regarding the claims, concerns and issues that they have raised (as well as regarding those raised by other groups that appear relevant to group).
- Recycling the evaluation once again to take up still unresolved constructions and their attendant claims, concerns and issues (Meta evaluation – analysis is mine) (pp.72-75; Italic is purely Guba and Lincoln's)

Feuerstein (1986) backs Guba and Lincoln on stakeholders' involvement when he said that;

The newer approaches aim to make the methods suit the people and their situation. The approaches and technology are tailored to suit the real contexts of development programmes and the abilities and technical levels of the participants. The collective name for such approaches and methods is participatory evaluation (p.ix)

Guba and Lincoln (1989) do not differ much from Worthen and Sanders (1987, pp.11-20) in their historical perspectives of evaluation – they trace the history of evaluation from the American context with a few examples from Europe and china not forgetting the verbally mediated evaluation of teachers like Socrates, Plato and Aristotle.

It is against this background, that different scholars of evaluation equate evaluation as:-

1. Evaluation = Measurement + value judgement
2. Evaluation = Non-Measurement (Descriptions) + value judgement
3. Evaluation = Measurement + Non-Measurement + Vale Judgement

Important to note in these equations, is that value judgment remains an important element of evaluation, it is required at all times.

There are many different perspectives and approaches to evaluation. Answering questions such as

- Why are we doing it?
- Who is the evaluation for?
- What is the evaluation for?
- What are the key issues to address? Will help one decide whether you wish to self-evaluate, (Internal evaluation) or to have an outside (External evaluation). The questions further help one to think about what (s) he wants to focus on. This could be
- Organizational structure and how it works
- How you carryout services or activities
- How users experience the project /programme/institution
- What changes or impact or benefits the project /programme/institution brings about.

IFAD (2002) define evaluation as

To assess or judge the value or worth of something – in practice, this means that implementers need a questioning attitude for continual assessment. Evaluation events are often more periodic and asks more fundamental questions about the

overall progress and direction of a project. Self evaluation processes combine well with external evaluations (p.2-3).

Looking at evaluation again, IFAD (Ibid) take a more comprehensive and holistic view of the concept when it states that, it is

A systematic (and as objective as possible) examination of a planned, on-going or completed project. It aims to answer specific management questions and to judge the overall value for of an endeavour and supply lessons learned to improve future actions, planning and decision-making. Evaluation commonly seek to determine the efficiency, effectiveness, impact, sustainability and therelevance of the project or organization's objectives. An evaluation should provide information that is credible and useful offering concrete lessons learned to help partners and funding agencies make decisions (p.A-5).

The definition above systematically gives the purpose of evaluation what it strives to achieve and the benefits (intended and incidental) thereafter. It further characterizes evaluation as a process.

Worthen and Sanders (1987, p.24) define evaluation as,

The act of rendering judgments to determine value – worth and merit – without questioning or diminishing the important roles evaluation plays in decision – making and political activities.

Evaluation in this context, is value judgment which later determines the decision making process basing on the data gathered, conclusions and recommendations made.

ODA (1993) looks at evaluation as,

A retrospective assessment of performance against objectives at a particular point in time (formative evaluation – analysis is mine) or after the completion of a project (summative evaluation – analysis mine) (p.5).

Evaluation can be informal (*informal evaluation*) where choice of alternative approaches is based on highly subjective perceptions or formal (Formal Evaluation) where choices are based on systematic efforts to define criteria and obtain accurate data about alternatives (Worthen & Sanders, 1987, p.5).

In the context of education, formal evaluation has played key roles, which include:-

- To provide a basis for decision making and policy formation
- To assess student achievement
- To evaluate curricula
- To accredit schools
- To monitor expenditure of public funds
- To improve educational materials and programs (Ibid)

However, Gooler (1974) as cited by Worthen & Sanders (1987, p.6) outlined three major reasons for conducting evaluation as

1. Planning procedures, programmes and /or products
2. Improving existing procedures, programmes and/or products
3. Justifying (or not justifying) existing or planned procedures, programmes and/or products.

It is believed that evaluation can serve either a formative purpose (e.g. as helping to improve an English curriculum) or a summative purpose (like deciding whether the English curriculum should be continued). In view of this, Anderson and Ball (1978) as quoted by Worthen and Sanders (1987, p.6) listed six major purposes of evaluation as:

1. *To contribute to decisions about programme installation*
2. *To obtain evidence to rally support for a programme*
3. *To contribute to decisions about programme continuation, expansion, or certification.*
4. *To obtain evidence to rally opposition to a programme*
5. *To contribute to the understanding of basic psychological, social and other processes.*

The list of five above is not conclusive. The purposes of evaluation expand as experience of evaluation users grow. Worthen & Sanders (1987) continue to urge that, continued use of evaluation is based on one of the following arguments.

- i) *Need to plan and carryout school improvements in*
 - a) *Systematic manner that encompasses*
 - b) *Identifying needs*

- c) *Selecting the best strategies from among known alternatives*
- d) *Monitoring changes as they occur*
- e) *Measuring the impact of changes*
- ii) *Need for cost-benefit analysis of programmes and practices that require large sums of money.*
- iii) *Need to test popular theories about the effects of education on learner development*
- iv) *Educator has a professional responsibility to appraise the quality of their school programmes and ways of improving that quality.*
- v) *Need to reduce uncertainty about educational practices when experience is limited.*
- vi) *Need to satisfy external agencies' demand for reports to legitimize decisions or to improve public relations through credible, database decision-making (pp.6-7).*

Evaluation is used to diagnose learners learning ability at the beginning of any programme (*Diagnostic Evaluation*) in order to be directed on how to handle learners and their individual differences.

ODA (1993) give purposes of evaluation as:

- *Improving performance*
- *Enhancing accountability*
- *Furthering communication*
- *Learning and empowerment (p.8)*

Evaluation is for school improvement, its intention is to locate the institutions' specific priority problems to assist with schools' improvement goals and strategies (NEEDU Report, 2009, p.30).

3.2.2.2 Internal Evaluation.

Some literature (Campbell and Rozsnyai, 2002; Analytic Quality Glossary, 2009) refer to *internal evaluation* as *self-evaluation*. This recognizes the use of members of the institution/organization to assess themselves. It is a process that mobilizes institutional partners to reflect on their own strength and weaknesses and work towards their development – improvement of their status (McBeath, 1999 as cited by NEEDU Report, 2009, p.29).

Internal Evaluation develops a sense of institutional ownership and generates into self-directional strategies to face the challenges within the institutions. However,

this could be dangerous especially where institutions are comfortable with their levels of achievement and feel contented with the challenges or if they do not have a professional evaluator within the institution for accountability issues. But in participatory interventions accountability is built in as role players are party to the intervention. There is a mutual accountability. This is about being a learning organization. (Crubb, 2000, pp. 696 – 723). This is possibly, where an external evaluator can be of an advantage to verify and enrich self-evaluation (*Participatory Evaluation*).

Another approach to QA through M/E is that of Organisational Development (OD). French and Bell (1995. p.1) define OD as a “planned systematic process in which applied behavioural science principles and practices are introduced into the organization with the goal of increasing individual and organizational effectiveness”. By this definition, the ultimate goal of OD is improved performance by all key players in the school system. QA is brought about by individuals in a concerted manner. OD then paves a way of thinking about people in groups and organizations.

French and Bell do not differ from Miles and Taylor (cited in Schmuck and Runkel, 1994, p.5) who describe OD as,

... a coherent systematically, planned sustained effort at system self-study and improvement focusing explicitly on change in formal and informal procedures, processes, norms or structures and using behaviour science concepts. The goals of OD include improving both the quality of life of individuals as well as organizational functioning and performance with a direct or indirect focus on educational issues.

The quotation gives a holistic view of OD and its goals to achieve. OD presents a comprehensive strategy of providing quality in a whole system approach.

French, Bell and Zawacki (2000) define OD as

A powerful set of concepts and techniques for improving organizational effectiveness and individual well-being that had its genesis in the behavioural sciences and was tested in the laboratory of real-world organizations as addresses the opportunities and problems of (sic) involved in managing human dynamics in organizations. It offers solutions that have been shown to work. OD consists of interventions, techniques, theories, principles and values that show how to take charge of planned change efforts and achieve success (p.vii) charges

in normative orientations involve changes in attitude, values, skills and significant relationships, not just changes in knowledge, information, or intellectual rationales for action practice (p.23).

OD recognizes the fact that schools, local governments and administrative units are social organizations. Without human collaboration and commitment, they are only wood, concrete and paper (Schmuck and Runkel, 1994, p.1). They assert that educational improvement requires less change in the paper and more change in the patterns of human interactions. This is in line with the critical Realistic' thinking of looking for reality and seeking for knowledge. OD places human factors as a major identifying factor to group or organization change.

Clive (2003, p.1) citing Hanson (1986) identified three types of change, “*Spontaneous, Evolutionary and Planned.*” Spontaneous change is unexpected, abrupt or unanticipated for or sudden. So, evolutionary change is slow, unnoticed and at times so slight in nature. Planned change is consciously thought about and systematically carried out (Clive, 2003, p.2).

Chin and Benne (1976) as cited by Clive (Ibid), describe three types of planned change strategies as: empirical– rational, normative re-educative, power-coercive. However, OD is solely based on a normative reeducation or cultural change strategy and on empirical – rational strategy.

Chin and Benne (1976) describe the normative re-educative strategy as,

These strategies build upon assumptions about human motivation different from those underlying the first. The nationality and intelligence of men are not denied. Patterns of action and practice are supported by socio-cultural norms and by commitments on the part of the individual to these norms. Socio-cultural norms are supported by the attitude and value systems of individuals – normative outlooks which under grid their commitments. Change in a pattern of practice or action, according to this view, will only as the persons involved are brought to change their normative orientations to old patterns and develop commitments to new ones. And changes in normative orientations involve changes in attitudes, values, skills and significant relationships ,not just changes in knowledge, information or intellectual rationales for action and practice(p.23).

Change in my view is necessary as a managerial strategy for improvement of quality for development. Quality improvement or development looks at positive change that brings out desired indicators. Negative change is undesirable as it is likely to bring a drawback in an organization.

According to Robbins and Coulter (1996, p.420), define change as “an alteration (s) in people, structure or technology.” The alteration(s) should show a desired change and give(s) a new outlook, thus improving quality. According to the two (Robbin & Coulter), change had forces or factors that exert influence to cause it. The forces are either *External or Internal* (Ibid p.421).

External Forces that bring about need to change emanate from a number of sources. Government laws, policies and regulations have always exerted pressure for change. New developments in technology world-wide have caused change. International decisions based on conventions /conference or charters like EFA goals, Millennium Development Goals, Children Rights have too, influenced changes.

Internal Forces that exert pressure for changes originate mainly from the operations of the organization or from the influence of external changes (Ibid). When an organization redefines or modifies its strategy, a number of changes occur. A mere decision made, effects a change.

Change, recognizes a change agent(s) – people who act as catalysts and manage the change process (Ibid, p.422). A quality assurance process needs change agents in order to achieve its objectives. An agent could be an individual or a group of people but an individual belongs to a group of people and it is rare for an individual to effect change alone without concerted effort of other group members. The individual could be an initiator or innovator, but will need the help of others to effect the change. It is in this effort that Burke (1982) stated that,

If one attempts to change an attitude or the behaviour of an individual without attempting to change the same attitude or behaviour in the group to which the individual belongs, then the individual will be a deviate and either will come under

pressure from the group to get back into line or will be rejected entirely. Thus, the major leverage point for change is all the group level, for example, by modifying a group norm or standards (p.151).

OD Features. OD is distinguished by the following

- (i) It is a cultural or normative planned change strategy.
- (ii) Adopts a participative or collective approach to change.
- (iii) People on the spot are best placed to solve their own problems.
- (iv) Empowerment
- (v) Facilitators role
- (vi) Group or organisation initiates the contact (Clive, 2003, p.p.4-8)

OD recognizes the collective or participative approach. That is, all individuals or groups, to be affected need to be directly involved in the conceptualization, planning, implementation and review of change and should actively participate in the process from the word go. This aligns with the principle of a participative democratic approach to decision making Kurt Lewin who is thought to be the originator of OD (Heibord, 1987, p.95) found that, “we are like to modify our own behaviour when we participate in problem analysis and solution and likely to carry out decisions we have helped make” (Ibid p.89). He further asserts that, “people will commit to plans they have helped to develop” (Ibid, p.285).

Group dynamics research, a key component to OD has continuously indicated that: most organisation members’ desire increased participation in organization decision making and process.

- i. Participation is energizing and enhances performance
- ii. Participation produces optimum solutions to problems.
- iii. Participation enhances acceptance of and commitment to decisions.
- iv. Participation overcomes resistance to change
- v. Participation increases organisation per commitment
- vi. Participation reduces stress levels

- vii. Participation meets organisation members' need for a sense of belonging, achievement and recognition and influence
- viii. Participation overall enhances feelings of self worth and satisfaction (Clive, 2003, pp.4-5).

He (Clive), further puts down the rules of the game (participation) as

- i. Involve all those who are part of the problem, challenge, opportunity
- ii. Involve all those who are part of the solution or vision
- iii. Have decisions made by those who are closest to the problem or opportunity.
- iv. Those who are closest to the problem or opportunity are the experts, acknowledge them as such (p.5).

The feature that, people on the spot are best placed to solve their own problems asserts that the group or organization is the real experts. Why? They know what is going on, know what they want to see going on, know how to abridge the gaps (*Participatory Approach - mine*).

The facilitator role feature recognizes the expert approach. The expert is presumed to have the knowledge to solve a problem or cause change. The expert will give a solution to the problem or give course of action to the problem. Another recognition is where an individual or a group of an organisation is taken out for a course or workshop/seminar. They return with a hope that they will effect changes based upon what they went through when away on a course or workshop/seminar.

Group or organisation initiating the contact uses a process approach. When the leadership of an organisation recognizes a particular need, problem or opportunity, it approaches a facilitator to come in for assistance.

OD Theories and Concepts. The success of OD depends on theories and concepts that are employed during implementation. "Without which OD would not be OD" (Clive, 2003, p.9).

System Theory – a system, “denotes a bounded whole (Clive, 2003 p.9). It has identifiable inside and identifiable outside or environment that the system is open to. It is therefore crucial that an organisation recognizes the environment within and outside it and communicates with it in order to understand and recognize the influence it exerts in the interest of the organization.

Learning Organization – a learning organisation is the one that systematically, frequently and critically asks itself – how are things moving on, and how better can we do things. Feedback is an essential element in a learning organization. It forms the basis for change either at a group or organization level.

Teaming – teamwork is an organisation’s life. It is accepted that teams are the building blocks – the bricks/pillars of effective and satisfying organisation life “(Ibid, p.13). Weibord (1987) as cited by Clive, view teamwork as “... derives from the most widely used and predictably helpful tool in the OD kit: team building” (p.297).

Readiness – Weibord (1987 p.299) view readiness as “the building block for all constructive change”. By implication, it is being well motivated and ready to do something. It is further, the desire, willingness or capability to face the challenges of change. Confidence to attack changes is a form of readiness.

Action Research – according to French and Bell (1995, p.108) action research is “a data-based change method that replicates the steps involved in the classic scientific method of inquiry”. It involves a participative process of activities that include research purpose, process initiation or start up, agreement on process, data collection, data analysis and feedback, data exploration and interpretation, action planning based on the data interpretation and implementation of the action plan (Clive, 2003, p.21). Additional data collection will determine the outcome of the change that is likely to result into more change cycles.

Resistance to Change. It is common in organizations, people to hate changes that do not augur well with their interests. With this view in mind, they are bound to resist any changes initiated. However, it is a duty of managers as change agents to persuade and motivate members of the organizations to accept changes – changes are bound to improving organizations effectiveness. According to Robbins and Coulter (1996, p.426), there are three reasons why individuals are likely to resist change, “uncertainty, concern over personal loss and the belief that the change is not in the organizations best interest”.

They (Robbins & Coulter), further suggest techniques of reducing resistance as:

- a) *Education and communication* – this is against the notion that, resistance depends on misinformation and poor communication. So, frequently provide information or facts and adequately communicate to members of the organization.
- b) *Participation* – allow participation of all members in all activities. It is difficult for individuals to resist change in which they participated.
- c) *Facilitation and support* – provision of support services and facilitating members of the organisation in whatever they do, reduces resistance.
- d) *Negotiation* – bargaining for what is necessary to change with members of the organisation is very crucial.
- e) *Manipulation and cooptation* – using hidden or secret attempts to influence change or putting a radical group or individual in an influential position to enforce change or decision making process.
- f) *Coercion* – using threats or force to effect changes. Threats of transfers, demotions, poor performance can reduce resistance to change (pp.426 -428)

Managing Change - calls for strategies that will sustain the changes made. According to Robbins and Coulter (Ibid) there are three techniques for managing change, “Structure, Technology and People”.

Changing Structure – calls at looking for the complexity of structure, its formalization and centralization or decentralization which, calls for structural redesign or job redesign.

Changing Technology – changes in technology calls for change in inputs that translate into outputs. This, calls for buying new equipment, tools or change of methods, computerizing the system or automation or changes in work process.

Changing People – this calls for helping individuals or groups within the organisation to work together more effectively to effect changes, thus QA achievement. OD in this case plays a key role in changing people, their quality and interpersonal relationships and work. The popular techniques of OD, Robbins & Coulter (1996) suggest are:-

- *Sensitivity training – a method of changing behaviour through unstructured group interaction.*
- *Survey feedback – a technique for assessing attitudes, identifying discrepancies between these attitudes and perceptions and resolving the differences by using surveyed information in feedback groups.*
- *Process consultation – help given by an outsider/consultant to manager in perceiving, understanding and acting on process events.*
- *Team building – interaction among members of work teams to learn how each member thinks and works.*
- *Inter-group development – changing the attitudes, stereotypes and perceptions that work groups have of each other (pp.430-431).*

These techniques tally with Clive's core theories and concepts employed during the OD implementation process. When the techniques are adequately employed they lead to a more effective and inter-personal work relationships.

Important to note is that a QA process greatly depends on effective inter-personal work relationships if its goals and objectives are to be achieved.

So, QA recognizes changes that are positive emanating from OD as a M/E strategy. QA is seen in positive changes.

Self-Evaluation is building an organisation from within by using the expertise of its entities. This has led to some institutions to establish a monitoring and evaluation

section within their organisational structures. Thus, internal evaluation mainly concerns with functionality and needs to show coverage of the fundamental constructive phenomena just like *feasibility evaluation*.

However, at this point in a systems life cycle, it must also be shown that this system is actually improving as a result of development (changeability) and that improvement in one area does not make something else worse (stability). By implication, internal evaluations occur on continual or periodic bases in the course of research and development. They test whether the components of the system work as they are intended (*monitoring*)

In the context of education, schools benefit from the evaluation of their performances for, this is a generative mechanism of school improvement. It collects data on schools' performance areas of excellence, strengths weaknesses, threats and opportunities. They mainly employ the *SWOT Analysis Test*. This is mainly true with schools that have tremendously improved their status at times termed as *turn around* schools. This kind of evaluation is normally based on a standardized evaluation instrument, with specified performance indicators and criteria to allow for a comparison of school performance across the system (NEEDU Report, 2009, p.30). This, possibly explains the existence of two types of internal evaluation – *Mandatory Internal Evaluation* and *Discretionary Internal Evaluation*.

Mandatory Internal Evaluation (MIE) is required by law or Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) in the context of projects and this is self accountability. It is based on standardized evaluation instruments, specified performance indicators and specific criteria.

Discretionary Internal Evaluation (DIE) is optional or non-mandatory evaluation conducted by managers or heads of institutions for their own use. It normally supersedes the issues covered by MIE.

It is within the context of the above, that Vlasceanu Grunberg and Parlea 2004) describes Internal Evaluation /Self-Evaluation as

The process of self-evaluation consists of the systematic collection of administrative data, the questioning of students ... and the holding of moderated interviews with lectures and students, resulting in as self-study report. Self-evaluation is basically a collective institutional reflection and an opportunity for quality enhancement. The resulting report further serves as a provider of information for the review team in charge of the external evaluation (p.38).

This is further seen in the explanatory context (Analytic Quality Glossary Homepage, 2009) of internal evaluation given as

Internal review is something an institution does for its own purposes. From an external agency perspective, internal review is seen as the part of external process that an institution undertakes in preparation for an external event, such as a peer – review, site visit. In such circumstances, internal review tends to be conflated with *self-evaluation*.

Bazargan (n.d.) sums it up when he said that,

The main purpose of internal evaluation of a department (or any other academic unit) is to assist faculty members (educationists – is mine) to: obtain a basic understanding of departmental mission(s) (institutional mission(s) – is mine); identify issues or primary importance to development of the unit, direct its resources to improve quality by the staff within any institutions or institutional units with a view of the mission statement in mind as a guiding principles.

It is in this view Melissa (2005, p.) comments that “evaluation for organisational Improvement is conducted by internal evaluators i.e. OD, more especially, by managers not necessarily, ideally by organisation participants themselves.”

While quoting Slayter (1998, pp.68-70), Mellisa (Ibid) asserts that Slayter “presumes that internal evaluators should measure indicators of quality and stability for performance improvement”

3.2.2.3 External Evaluation.

This draws the attention of outsiders (external people) to evaluate quality or standard of an institution /organization/programme or unit. The intention is to verify and enrich internal evaluation through a more professional and objective evaluation process (NEEDU Report, 2009, p.30; Analytic Quality Glossary, 2009)

External Evaluation in some countries (UK, New Zealand) is used in the same context as review. The New Zealand Qualifications Authority (2009, p.6 define external evaluation and review as “a systematic process of enquiring designed to provide independent judgments about an organization performance and capacity in delivering high quality education”.

According to Vlanscanu et al (2007), UNESCO defines external evaluation as:

The process whereby a specialized agency collects data, information, and evidence about an institution, a particular unit of a given institution, in order to make a statement about its quality. External evaluation is carried out by a team of external experts, peers or inspectors and usually requires three distinct operations:

- i) Analysis of the self-study report (Internal Evaluation Report – is mine)*
- ii) A site visit*
- iii) The drafting of an evaluation report (External Evaluation Report – is mine)*
(p.56)

Thus the process of external evaluation uses people external to the programme or institution to evaluate quality or standards so far reached. It further gives recommendations and possible strategies that are likely to bring change or improvement or maintain the status quo (incase of standard quality) in the institution programme. So, the external people come in as consultants. They are selected because of their experience and specialized expertise (Goldberg and Sifonics, 1994, p.27).

The process provides a summative judgment of the quality of the institution or programme and it calls for undertaking an independent evaluation. In another context, the process is a valuable tool for measuring students' skills and academic progress. It further detects deficiencies in the system. It also helps the institutions to identify academic need reinforcement.

In a broader sense, external evaluation is used as an umbrella term for all forms of quality monitoring, assessment, audit enhancement, legitimation, endorsement or accreditation (Harvey, 2000, p.1). It is in the sense that it provides a summative judgment. Further, it is in this context, SDC (2000, p.18) said that, external evaluations are therefore suitable for factual issues, relatively complex situation and overall appraisals”.

External evaluation is recommended basing on its strengths as SDC (Ibid) put it.

The strengths of an external evaluation lie in its distance and its independence. On the basis of their experience, the evaluators can make comparisons and hence see things which those who are directly involved cannot or can no longer see. Questions of sustainability, impact and effectiveness can be addressed through an external evaluation.

This same view is shared by Melissa (2005) and Worthen and Sanders (1987).

However, much as there are strengths for its support, the process depicts some weakness. SDC (2000,p.18) noted,

The weaknesses of an external evaluation lie in the substantial effort required in its preparation and implementation as well as its limited timeframe. Only part of the various realities can be examined within the short time available. This necessarily calls for analysis that is more detailed. Moreover, an external evaluation provides a mere snap shot whereby current events can completely overshadow any longer-term assessment. However, evaluations that refer to the results of monitoring can better determine the dynamics of a particular action.

Time factor is a key issue in this context and is likely to distort a long-term assessment. However, monitoring reports can save the situation if reference is made to them as a back-up. It is at this stage that monitoring compliments evaluation.

From a personal experience perspective, external evaluation is a periodic process of an institution to provide a statement of judgment that builds confidence about an institution in terms of educational performance and capacities in self-assessment. Educational performance according to New Zealand Qualifications Authority (HZQA) is,

The extent to which the educational outcomes achieved by a Tertiary Education Organization (TEO) (an institution – is mine) represent quality and value for learners and others. An evaluation of educational performance

involves answering questions focused primarily on the quality of learning and teaching and the achievements of learners (2009, p.5).

The same authority defines capacity in self-assessment as,

The extent to which an organization (institution is mine) uses self-assessment information to understand performance and bring about improvement. It reflects the extent to which an organization (institution – is mine) effectively manages its accountability and improvement responsibilities (Ibid).

The target for external evaluation should focus mainly on the:-

- i) Extent to which an institution systematically determines and addresses learners' and wider community needs – efficiency.
- ii) Key process or factors contributive to the achievement of outcomes for learners.
- iii) Quality of the provision of education and its impact learner progress and achievement.
- iv) Achievements of outcomes for learners and the wider community (employers, industry, local or national interests) – external efficiency.
- v) Effectiveness of institutions' self-assessment in understanding its own performance and using this for improvement (op cit).

External evaluation can therefore be of an advantage in verifying and enriching self-evaluation through a more professional and objective evaluation process. It can further provide a mirror i.e. learning organization- self reflective organization in which the school sees a reflection of its own self. "If the reflection is not firmly evidence-based, the reflection is likely to be a distorted image" (NEEDU Report, 2009, p.30).

External evaluation can also be seen in the context of inspection. The noun inspection is from the verb to inspect, which according to Cambridge International Dictionary of English (1995) mean "to look at (something or someone) carefully in order to discover information especially about quality or correctness " (p.736). This calls for an in-depth element of closely looking at objects, people or activity with a purpose of gathering information for judgment about quality or correctness.

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia (Wikipedia, 2009) defines inspection as:

An organized examination or formal evaluation exercise. It involves the measurements, tests, and gauges applied to certain characteristics in regard to an object or activity. The results are usually compared to specified requirements and standard for determining whether the item or activity is in line with these targets (p.1).

Inspection in this context, examines the quality of objects or activities against the pre-determined standards for conformity. According to Norn's (1998),

Inspection is a form of evaluation. Typically it involves an external small team of inspectors (experts, connoisseurs, senior members of the profession or trained personnel and sometimes including 'lay' representatives) visiting institutions, scrutinizing and assessing written evidence, using performance indicators assembled specifically for the visit, interviewing or interrogating staff, talking to clients, consumers or other partners and stakeholders, observing practices and reporting on individual and institutional strengths, weaknesses and various aspects of quality. Judgment lies at the heart of inspection (p.214).

In this context, inspection is externally oriented and it is external evaluation which takes care of a holistic view of the institution.

Norn (1998) further asserts that, "inspection might be regarded as a form of expert review, although when it is based on following a handbook, manual or strict set of guidelines the claim to expertise is undermined" (1998,p.214). Review, in the British context and Europe in general refer to inspection done by a team of experts foreign to the school. In the context of higher education it is visitation (Gibton and Goldring, 2001, p.93).

In a similar effort Norn (Opcit) notes that,

In education, inspection is meant to provide both feedback to the school staff, information to parents and accountability for the expenditure of public money. Inspection tends to emphasize independent summary judgment at the expense of advice (Thomas, (1996) or negotiated outcomes. Where inspection is bureaucratic, judgment often rests on conventional criteria (Gilroy & Wilcox, 1997) embodying a standardized model of good practice.

Inspection should provide feedback to the stakeholders of the Institution to know the improvements of the institution. Inspection further investigates the accountability processes in the schools and their expenditure trends of the public findings received. Value for money in view of its impacts made is essential to assessment of improvement.

In the context of Britain for example, the office for standards in Education (OFSTED) has a powerful system for school inspection and grading. Once every 4 years, each school is inspected thoroughly by a team of experts (Gibton and Goldring, 2001, p.91). Each team is led by a registered inspector who is an independent consultant, not a government employee. OFSTED calls for registered inspectors to bid for the contract to inspect a particular school and the selected registered inspector is required to bring together a team appropriate to the needs of that school. Some inspection teams are made up of education advisers employed by a local authority. Inspection teams generally include a lay member without professional qualifications or experience in education (Ester and Marrison, 2002, p.329).

Another example, in the Netherlands, inspection is carried out basing on a risk analysis principle. Analysis is based on available information – test scores, year documents, signals (like complaints) and results of prior inspections, additional data is only requested for in case of insufficient data. School governing boards are the first contact points of the inspectorate to provide their views and perceptions. To me, this is a ‘critical friend in the context of Britain. A school governing board is responsible for one or more schools. A school showing bad results, inspection is intensified. Within four years, a school is visited once. The risk analysis categorizes schools into (i) Green Schools’ (No inspection – performance satisfactory), (ii) ‘Orange Schools’ (there is doubt about reliability and there are signals for possible risks), (iii) ‘Red Schools’ (Inspection possible). The possible risks for orange and Red schools are that.

- i) Too few students have passed the test (primary education).
- ii) There are many complaints about the school.
- iii) The number of students in the school is decreasing rapidly.
- iv) The school is too small to reliably evaluate the results.
- v) Too many students leave the (secondary) school without a diploma (dropouts).
- vi) The position of principal is vacant, (Cito, 2009)

The implication here is that the 'Green Schools' may not face the inspection. But the frequency is once in every four years a school has to be inspected.

New Trends in Inspection.

The current trend is based on the British and Hong Kong experiences with the New Relationship with Schools (NRwS) as described by MacBeath (2006, pp.2-3).

NRwS is a new relationship because it was designated to address the dissatisfaction with an inspection regime that had often been counter productive in its impact on school and classroom life as well as acknowledging the growing importance of school self-evaluation (Ibid).

The new approach puts focus on School Self Evaluation (SSE) as the starting point for any inspection to take place. Equally, it is placed at the heart of school improvement. This is against the background that, prior to inspection, schools are asked to complete the Self-Evaluation Forms (SEF). As MacBeath (Ibid) puts it, the form asks.

Schools to evaluate their progress against an inspection schedule, to set out the main evidence on which this evaluation is based, to identity their own strengths and weaknesses and explain the action the school is taking to remedy the weaknesses and develop strengths (p.7).

With this kind of self-evaluation, a school provides data on which to base the inspection. Thus, the new role of the inspectorate swifts from being the sole arbiters and narrators of the schools' story to speak for themselves(Ibid, p.2). Self evaluation is owned by a school staff but is not a soft option. Schools have to prove the ability to know themselves with authoritative and verifiable evidence while the inspectorate has to satisfy itself that a school is truly a master of its destiny (Op cit).

Features of NRwS. MaCBeath (Ibid, p.6) gives the main features of inspection under NRwS as:

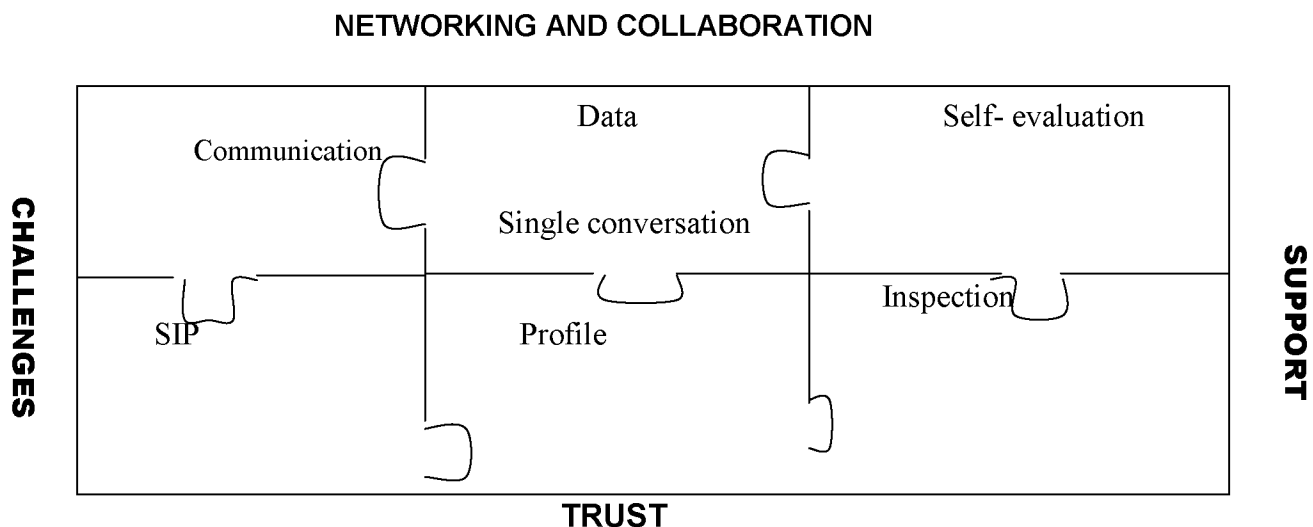
- Shorter, sharper inspections that take no more than two days in a school, taking self-evaluation evidence as the starting point.
- Shorter notice of inspections to avoid pre-inspection preparation and to reduce the levels of stress often associated with an inspection.

- Smaller inspection teams with a greater number of inspections led by one of her Majesty's (DES is mine) inspectors.
- More frequent inspections, with the minimum period between inspections reduced from the current six years to three years (Britain, Hong Kong and Netherlands are 4 years mine) though more frequently for schools causing concern.
- Self-evaluation evidence as the starting point for inspection and for the schools' internal planning with regular input and feedback from users – pupils, their parents and the community – in the school's development.
- A simplification of the categorization of schools causing concern, retaining the current approach to schools that need special measures but introducing a new single category of "Improvement Notice" for schools where there are weaknesses in pupil progress or in key aspects of work.

Elements of NRwS.

The features of NRwS are built on a foundation of seven elements – Communication, School Improvement Partner (SIP), Data; Single Conversation, Profile; and self-evaluation but portrayed as an interlocking set framed by trust, support, networking and challenge. The figure below illustrates this.

Figure 5: Elements of NRwS



Source: MacBeath (2006) New Relationships for old inspection and self-evaluation in England and Hong Kong.

As earlier stated, the strategy starts with self-evaluation, which generates data that forms the communication channel to the “critical friend” – SIP. This in turn forms the single conversation, which creates a school profile on which the inspection bases its operations. Therefore, without the self-evaluation process the inspection is at a stand still, so is the NRwS.

School improvement Partner (SIP) is an appointed person described in policy documents as a “critical friend” who adheres strictly to confidentiality, respects the schools’ autonomy to plan its development and starts from the schools’ self evaluation and the needs of the community, especially those of the children. The SIP is chosen by the local authority (whom the school can reject only once). (S)he reports to the local authority, to government and OFSTED on the schools’ adherence to policy directives. The SIP can initiate action to put a school into special measures. “*Improvement Notice*”.

As one primary teacher put it

The purpose of looking at the school from the lens of self-evaluation is to make the school a better place for learning. That leads us unto raising attainments ... We are in the business of raising our standards through learning (MacBeath, 2006, p.8).

Then, a secondary school teacher pointed out.

Student learning is vital, if we can understand self-evaluation this way, we can make something about our teaching. It will enable schools to respond to and implement change (Ibid).

This implies that, self-evaluation is for both schools and teachers’ own improvement in learning and teaching, not for the benefit of any authority.

In the context of Hong Kong, the aim of the new relationship is to review all schools over a four-year cycle with self-evaluation as the focus of inspection visits. The logic behind this is that those closest to everyday practice are best placed to evaluate, develop and improve it. To achieve, the starting point is that, the successful school is a self-evaluating school in which there is a shared belief that school improvement is the right of and responsibility of every single member of the school community. The self-evaluating school is singled out by its willingness to improve through learning (EMB, 2003, p.7 as cited by MacBeath, 2006, p.10).

However, MacBeath’s description of self-evaluation and the accompanying self-evaluation form does not detail the components it has to address. According to

OFSTED (1995) as cited by Osler and Marisson (2002, p.329) the purpose of inspection in general terms is;

To identify strengths and weaknesses so that schools may improve the quality of education they provide and raise the educational standards achieved by their pupils. The published reports and summary report provide information for parents and the local community... The inspection process, feedback and reports give direction to the school's strategy for planning, review and improvement by providing rigorous external evaluation and identifying key issues for action. Inspection findings also provide a basis for the external evaluation of schools and the annual report...community. The self-evaluating school is singled out by its willingness to improve through learning (EMB, 2003, p.7 as cited by MaCBeath, 2006, p.10).

3.2.2.4 Internal Evaluation Versus External Evaluation.

Whether to do internal evaluation or external evaluation depends on whom to do it (internal Evaluator/Insider or External Evaluator/Outsider) and the choice is a managerial process. However, both processes are necessary but at different times in the lifespan of an institution/organization/programme or project.

It is necessary that precaution is taken in determining the weaknesses and strengths of each (Melissa, 2005; Worthen and Sander, 1987; Owen and Rogers, 1999) before a decision for each is taken over the nature of the evaluator (outsider or insider) and the audience for evaluation (outsider or insider). Owen with Rogers as quoted by Melissa (2005, p.5) identify four types of resource arrangements based on the nature of evaluators and nature of the audience for evaluation process:

Insiders for insiders; Insiders for outsiders; Outsiders for insiders; Outsiders for outsiders

To determine who should do the evaluation for which audience, Melissa (ibid) discusses fifteen factors basing on the weaknesses and strengths of each evaluator in view of the factor and later draws a table of checklist to guide the decision between internal or external evaluators. The factors are:

Cost – internal evaluators have an advantage over external evaluation in terms of cost less than external evaluators. Internal evaluators are usually workers of the institution being evaluated.

Availability – Internal evaluators are readily available anytime they are wanted. With external evaluators, you need to source them – advertise for them and later assess them.

Knowledge of programme and operations – the internal evaluators has an advantage over the external evaluators in that, s(he) works within the institutions/programmes environment and knows it in and out but may have blind spots, which is not the case with the external evaluator. However, given enough time to do the evaluation, with monitoring reports in place, the external evaluator can gain the necessary knowledge and overcome it makes the familiar strange.

Knowledge of context – it is always important for the evaluator to have an understanding of the social cultural and political issues that affect the operating environment of the institution/organization/programme being evaluated. The evaluators' sensitivity to these issues is important to get the context in which to evaluate. It is easier for an internal evaluator to get these understandings compared to the external evaluator. However, a skilled external evaluator can develop sensitivity with time.

Ability to collect information – external evaluators are able to collect information that is likely to be difficult to grasp. Insiders in most cases open up easily to outsiders than insiders. People in many cases, tend to look for assistance or seek salvation from outsiders to put things right because of their wide experience or hoping that when an outsider talks they (insiders) will listen and possibly cause change. An outsider brings in new ideas based on the wide experience he has had with other similar institutions/organization/programme(s) s(he) has evaluated. In this case, internal evaluators find it difficult to access such information because of the internal politics and conflicts existing.

Flexibility – Internal evaluators are more flexible in that when they detect an evaluation activity not yielding results or not useful during monitoring, they change

course of action or re-design the activity in line. To the external evaluator this is not easy as s(he) comes in at the end. However, in continuing programmes this is possible to the next phase but the snag or deficiency detected will have taken place.

Specialist skills and expertise – external evaluators in many cases are selected basing on their experience and specialization/expertise. However, the evaluators' expertise in a specific area being evaluated is crucial. This implies that the evaluator could be external or internal with specialized knowledge in the setting being evaluated.

Objectivity – External evaluators enter into an evaluation process with unbiased mind compared to internal evaluators. They enter into a setting unknown or unfamiliar to them with an open mind. However, internal evaluators are familiar with the setting and know where the successes and failures are, its history, and modes of behaviour. These, get their objectivity compromised.

Perceived Objectivity – this calls for independent evaluation from someone with no obvious stake in the programme (Weiss, 1972). This should be someone without any prior relationship between the setting and internal evaluator. The external evaluator is assumed to be unbiased and objective.

Accountability for use of government funds – public demand for government accountability is one of the main reasons for the growth of evaluation as Meyers (1981) puts it. This calls for a more transparent process and perceived objectivity emerges stronger for a government programme. Although transparent evaluation can be achieved by both (internal and external) evaluators, it is more eminent to be achieved by the external evaluator.

Willingness to criticize – external evaluators can raise issues that are likely to be uncomfortable for an internal evaluator to raise. It is difficult for an internal evaluator to criticize colleagues s(he) is working with, this may cause both professional and social repercussions. However, an external evaluator can be put under pressure to give

favourable assessment and recommendation like the internal evaluator especially when the institution/organisation/programme needs more funding or the evaluator (external) hopes for more work or thinks his/her payments are likely to be withheld.

Utilization of evaluation – internal evaluators in most cases are better placed to understand the context and environment in which findings and recommendations are being used. They can prepare grounds for accepting and utilizing the evaluation results. This is against the background that internal evaluators know the ins and outs of the institute/organization/programme and are able to devise means and strategies that can allow evaluation findings be used and make a difference.

Dissemination of results – whether internal or external evaluator should know the urgency of timely communication of evaluation results to all those concerned. The issue of dissemination should not favour either of the two.

Ethical issues – both external and internal evaluators need to observe ethical issues of royalty and secrecy. This factor should not favour either of the two.

Organisational Investment – the use or availability of an internal evaluator is an investment (capacity building) to an institution/organization/programme.

The decision on who (external or internal) to evaluate as earlier stated is a managerial function but Melissa (2005, p.9) gives a checklist (table below) to guide the choice. ‘Weak’ shows that the factor slightly favours the evaluator over the other and “strong” denotes that it is more of a determining factor for the choice.

Table 4: Checklist for deciding between internal or external evaluator

Factor	Internal	External	Guideline
Cost	Weak		Cost comparison calculation needed in each case
Availability	Weak		Assessment of current availability needed in each case
Knowledge of program and	Weak		Depends on amount of

Factor	Internal	External	Guideline
operations			organizational infrastructure
Ability to collect information		Weak	Depends on how 'territorial' the organization is
Flexibility			Not a determining factor
Specialist skills and expertise			Not a determining factor
Objectivity			Not a determining factor
Perceived objectivity		Strong	May be important for 'sensitive' evaluations and specific audiences
Accountability for use of government funds		Strong	Government and organizations receiving government funding should consider this factor
Willingness to criticize		Weak	Not usually a determining factor
Utilization of evaluation	Weak		Depends on purchase of evaluation, especially if focused on organizational (improvement)
Dissemination of results			Not a determining factor
Ethical issues			Not a determining factor
Organizational investment	Weak		Depends on organizations' future evaluation needs

Source: Melissa (2005), a fundamental choice: Internal or External evaluation?

3.2.2.5 Utility of Evaluation in QA

In an attempt to answer how evaluation is used in QA, NZQA (2009) gave the following three usages, which are pertinent to this study.

- Answer questions about the value that learners gain from their education, the utility of their qualifications and the contribution of these to positive longer-term outcomes such as employment, social, economic contribution to society.
- Explore qualitative and quantitative evidence of educational outcomes and the key processes, which contribute, to them.

- Enable a participatory approach, using systematic inquiry and specific tools to reach robust judgments.

This implies that, the results of quality education as indicated by evaluation results should be seen affecting society into longer-term outcomes socially and economically for the benefit of development. Secondly, quality should be evidence based either qualitatively or quantitatively or both with their contributive factors explained by evaluation. Lastly, judgments on quality should be based on a scientific process of data collection, analysis and interpretation through a participatory approach – using all categories of stakeholders to education.

3.2.3 Monitoring and Evaluation

After looking at M/E as separate concepts in sub-sections 3.2.1 and 3.2.2 above respectively, there was need to look at the two as one concept.

M/E as a concept, combines monitoring and evaluation to give an impression that the two are inseparable and they occur at the same time. However, one (monitoring) feeds the other (evaluation) and in my view, this is the beginning of combining the two as a concept. In other words, you cannot get the results of evaluation without using the results of monitoring for effective management, reporting and accountability procedures. IFAD (2002) describes M/E as,

The combination of monitoring and evaluation, which together provide the knowledge, required for a, effective project management and b, reporting and accountability responsibilities (P.A-7).

Monitoring is equated to how the school is improving requiring day-to-day visits or periodical visits. While evaluation is equated to how good a school is and performing. Thus, requiring scheduled intervals of visits. This therefore calls for separation of roles.

Monitoring need specific and separate authorities to do it so, is evaluation as advised by NEEDU Report (2009, p.31). Monitoring has a support pillar while evaluation has a judgement pillar. Institutions need to establish a monitoring process, which would

include periodic visits, collection of data and surveillance of implementation. Monitoring is not a panacea; a monitoring officer might emphasize compliance with specific reporting requirements while barely examining whether an agency or staff was providing sensitive services to members of a specific group (Bruce, 1994, p.392).

3.2.4 Models of Inspection.

The Education Journal, issue 76 in the article – The Future of Inspection (p.21) it identifies three models currently in use in Europe: *Proportional*, *Ideal* and *Supporting*.

Proportional – Inspection takes the school's own data as its starting point. A high standard of self-evaluation leads to a less intensive inspection. The Netherlands, Scotland, Portugal, Flanders, the Czech Republic, Ireland and England apply this model.

Ideal – Inspection reports on the quality of self-evaluation and identify areas where improvement is needed. Northern Ireland, Austria and France employ this model.

Supporting – Inspection provides support for schools in carrying out self-evaluation more effectively. Denmark and German fall suit to this model.

3.2.5 Supervision.

The Cambridge International Dictionary of English (1995) describes supervision as a 'noun' from the verbs to 'supervise'. It defines supervise as, "to watch over (an activity or job) to make certain' that it is done correctly or to watch over (someone) to make certain that they are behaving correctly or are safe " (p.1463). The act of supervision calls for a 'watchdog' process to ensure that certain standards are maintained as laid down. However, this calls for the supervisor to be knowledgeable with the details of implementation procedures of the standards.

In Latin super means 'over' and videre, to watch, or see, implying the supervisor is an 'overseer' hence the growing use of the term supervisor whose job is to 'oversee'. Traditionally, part of the overseer's work was to ensure that work was done well and to standard (Petes, 1967, p.170).

Supervision can also be traced in the growth of charitable social agencies in Europe and North America during the 19th Century. It involved the recruitment,

organization and oversight of a large number of volunteers (visitors) and, later paid workers. (Smith, 1996, 2005, p.1). Thus, the overseers' job was to ensure that work was done well and to the standard. These were new forms of organization and interventions standards were being set and new methods developed (Petes, 1967, p.170). It is in the work of charity organization society in the USA and UK today that the present functions and approaches of supervision were signaled. So, supervision became more of an identified process (Smith, 1996, 2005, p.2 & p.10).

The National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) defines supervision as:

An going, positive, systematic, collaborative process ... that focuses on promoting professional growth and exemplary professional practice leading to improved performance of all concerned – school psychologist, supervisor, students and the entire school community (p.1).

Supervision is therefore a continuous systematic process in any organization that calls for teamwork with an aim of improving the profession and its skills that should be seen in improved performance. So, it is quality oriented.

IFAD (2002) defines supervision as:

A process, in which the legally responsible organization ..., periodically reviews progress towards objectives, identifies key obstacles, helps find workable solutions and makes strategic changes, as required (p.A-11).

By implication, it is to periodically check on the progress towards objectives achievement in view of problems identified and to which solutions must be sought, changes to this context refer to positive changes that bring about improvement in performance. We become full members of the community of practice (Smith, 1996, 2005, p.1).

The roots of what we know as supervision in the human services, emanates from the development of social work and casework. This is seen in the concern for the needs of clients and these taking up of ideas and practices that attribute much to the emergence of psychoanalysis. Getting a sense of supervision, it is necessary to look at the different forms of apprenticeship that existed in different societies. In ancient China, Africa and Europe, there were numerous examples of people new to a craft or activity having to reveal their works to and explore it with, masters or mistresses considered and recognized as skilled and wise. This process of being attached to an expert, of

“learning through doing” allows the novice to gain knowledge, skills and commitment. The novice gets these under the supervision of the skilled or wise. Thus, spending the time with the practioners, by ‘looking over their shoulders,’ taking part in the routines and practices associated with the trade or activity and having them explore our work.

The functions of supervision can therefore be seen in terms of administrative, educational and supportive (1926 as cited by Smith 1996, 2005, pp23). This is what Smith (1996, 2005) calls *Kadushin model*. Practor (1987) as Smith (Ibid, p.6) puts it, uses the same basic split of the model but different terms – *formative* (education), *normative* (administration) and *restorative* (support).

Administrative – the promotion and maintenance of good standards of work, coordination of practice with policies of administration, the assurance of an efficient and smooth-running office (35i)

Educational – the educational development of each individual worker on the staff in a manner calculated to evoke her fully to realize her possibilities of usefulness and (educational). The major concern as Kadushin (Ibid) put it, is worker ignorance and or ineptitude regarding the knowledge, attitude and skills required to execute the job. So, the primary goal is to dispel ignorance and upgrade skills. This process calls for encouraging reflection on and exploration of work through helping the, supervisees to:

- a) *Understand the client (learner- is mine) better;*
- b) *Because more aware of their own reactions and responses to the clients;*
- c) *Understand the dynamics of how they and their client are interacting;*
- d) *Look at how they intervened and the consequences of their interventions;*
- e) *Explore other ways of working with this an (sic) other similar client situations (Hawkins and Shobel, 1989 as cited by Smith, 1996, 2005, p.4).*

Supportive – the maintenance of harmonious working relationship, the cultivation of esprit de corps. (Supportive). The primary problem is worker morale and job satisfaction. The major goal is to improve morale and job satisfaction (Kadushin, 1992, p.20). Workers (teachers) are faced with a variety of job- related stresses, which affect their work and lead to less satisfactory services to clients. There is the problem of ‘burnout’. Workers need help deal with these stresses.

It is this effort that Salaman (1995) as cited by Smith (Ibid) argued that managers must have a concern for both performance and learning and stated that:

[T]he essentially managerial aspects of managers' work is their responsibility for monitoring and improving the work of others; their managerial effectiveness is determined by their capacity to improve the work of others, if managers are not able to make this contribution, then what value are they adding? The only ultimate justification of managers' existence is the improvement of the work of their subordinates. If managers fail in this, way they fail as managers (p.3)

Thus, managers are expected to develop relationships and environments that enable people to work together and respond to change. Such joint performance involves having common goals, common values, the right structures and continuing training and development (Drucker, 1988. p.75).

Looking at the functions (elements) ,of supervision (administration, education and support) that characterize Kadushin's model, Hawkins and Shohet (1989) as cited by Smith (1996, 2005, p.6) list ten (10) primary different foci of supervision as related to the elements.

1. *To provide a regular space for the supervisees to reflect upon the context and process of their work (Educational).*
2. *To develop understanding and skills within the work (Educational)*
3. *To receive information and another (sic) perspective concerning one's work (Educational/Supportive).*
4. *To receive both content and process feedback (Educational/Supportive).*
5. *To be validated and supported both as a person and as a worker (Supportive).*
6. *To ensure that a person and as a worker one is not left to carry unnecessarily difficulties, problems and projections alone (Supportive).*
7. *To have space to explore and express personal distress, restimulation, transference that may be brought up by the work (Administrative).*
8. *To plan and utilize their personal and professional resources better (Administrative).*
9. *To be pro-active rather than re-active (Administrative).*
10. *To ensure quality of work (Administrative/Supportive).*

The ten foci of supervision give the core aspects of supervision it addresses in the process and elements/function(s) it depicts. It is against this categorization that different people develop the notion that the elements are inter linked/overlapping. Alternatively, there may be situations where the elements are not all present especially where one strongly focuses on the support side or administration side. When one element is removed, then the process becomes potentially less satisfying and less effective to both the supervisor and supervisee (Smith, 1996, 2008, p.3).

The National Association of School Psychologists (2004) identifies two types of supervision – *Administrative Supervision and Professional Supervision* (pp, 1 – 2).

Administrative Supervision - focuses on the functioning of the service unit. This includes personnel issues, logistics of service delivery, and legal, contractual and organizational practices. It further addresses the performance of job duties basing on conditions of employment and job descriptions. Its primary concern is with outcomes and consumer satisfaction other than discipline – specific professional skills. Administrative Supervision is carried out by individuals trained and credentialed in school administration (Ibid).

Professional Supervision – the oversight of the specific professional practices of personnel within one's own profession. It requires specific training and knowledge in the area of supervision. Professional supervisors are charged with supporting practices consistent with professional standards, promoting ongoing professional development to improve and up-date skills, and ensuring systems of personnel evaluation that are consistent with specific professional standards (Op cit). This is at times referred to as technical supervision. Collaboration between professional and administrative supervisors is essential to assure appropriate and ongoing evaluation of service delivery.

3.2.5.1 Educational Supervision.

Background to the Uganda Context

Educational supervision in the Ugandan case is traced back during the missionary era. The missionaries determined and supervised the curriculum. In 1904, they established a board to control and standardize educational developments. The board was charged with the quality of education provided; overseeing the existing buildings and construction of new ones; supply of 4teachers, their training and remunerations, and drawing the timetable and syllabi. Other trends of supervision are seen through commission's recommendation and ordinances as indicated below (Sscawn, 1997, pp.52 - 57; 164, 190). The Phelps – Stokes Commission of 1925 observed that deans and pastors inspected schools, but lacked the expertise, the time

and their interest was on how converts were prepared. It also observed that, missionaries were incapable of running quality education. So, it recommended the establishment of a Department of Education under a Director. The department had to look into all the education issues. Such an establishment meant that most decisions regarding education would be top-down with all the bureaucratic elements attached to it. Another mandate was to appoint deans - teachers who were to visit teachers to help the teachers in schools implement its policies so adapted.

The 1927 Education Ordinance gave the government legal mandate to control education in the country, although government did not own any school. The powers to direct and determine what the missionaries were doing was in their governments' hands, that is, the type of teachers to recruit, register and classify, closure of schools not meeting the standards, imposing fines on school contravening the ordinance, registering teachers and removing them from the register due to misbehaving and visiting schools for inspection at any one time without notice were all vested to the government. However, lack of ownership of schools by government at that time, deterred the implementation of the good intentions of the ordinance.

The de Bunsen Committee – recommended the separation of supervision and inspection. Supervision was to be done by voluntary agencies while the director of education did inspection. In 1955, Ministries were set up, the director of education was now reporting to the minister of education and the inspection section was set up at the headquarters.

The Castle Commission – recommended that inspection of all institutions should be the ultimate joint responsibility of the central and local governments. At local governments level, should be performed by the area education office and the district inspector of schools. To ensure maximum efficiency and cooperation, the report recommended that;

- a) Both the Ministry and inspectorate headquarters be together.
- b) Field inspectors should have easy access to area education offices.

- c) The staff of the inspectorate, the professional offices of the Ministry and the holders of the post of area education officer should be interchangeable at appropriate levels.
- d) The structural framework of the inspectorate be central and district. The regional offices were abolished.
- e) The inspector in charge of teacher training be established.

The 1989 Education Revision Commission Report (Kajubi Report) recommended the creation of new autonomous bodies (Recommendation 183). Among which was the Inspectorate of Education whose mandate was to develop guidelines for school supervision, to train administrators at the district level in inspection work and to carry out inspection of schools from time to time with teams of subject experts. It should be headed by an Inspector – General of Education of the rank of Commissioner of Education .

The 1992 Government White Paper on Kajubi Report (1989) endorsed the recommendation and commended that, the inspectorate should not only control the quality of education and ensure that schools maintain certain minimum standards. The functions of the inspectorate are more wide ranging and should include;

- a) *To act as a setter and monitor of standards in educational institutions.*
- b) *To ensure that education imparted in schools is relevant to the rational goals of development and appropriate to the needs of Ugandan children and society as a whole.*
- c) *To monitor the implementation of curriculum-related decisions in educational institutions.*
- d) *To control the quality of education and provide necessary guidance and supervision to educational institutions.*
- e) *To identify and make known good practices and innovations and draw attention to weaknesses.*
- f) *To advise the ministry on matters of educational theory and practice.*
- g) *To inspect, assess, audit and report on the effectiveness and efficiency of educational institutions.*
- h) *To provide opportunities of professional development to teachers/tutors/lecturers and heads of educational institutions through in-service training, refresher courses and publications.*
- i) *To conduct research and evaluation in such areas as teaching effectiveness and development of appropriate tools of inspection and supervision (paragraph 543, pp.195 – 196).*

The inspectorate of education exists in the name of Directorate of Education Standards (DES) headed by a director to the level of directors of education (Basic and Higher Education) with mandates stipulated in the Education Act (Pre-primary, Primary and Post-primary) 2008, Part viii, sections 46 – 48.

- a) To set, define and review standards in educational practice and provision through planned series of inspection;*
- b) To assess the achievement of standards and to evaluate the effectiveness of education programmes of institutions and agencies throughout Uganda;*
- c) To develop systematic approaches to inspection and evaluation, and to encourage evaluation systems, using appropriate quality indicators, within the education service;*
- d) To provide and disseminate regular reports on the quality of education at all levels;*
- e) To develop the use of the reports as a mechanism to provide support for and the dissemination of good practice, and thus to improve the quality of practice in the education service as a whole and in particular aspects;*
- f) To provide independent expert comment and advice on educational provision and practice at all levels of education; and*
- g) To give advice to the Minister on such matters related to quality control in education (pp.37-38).*

The relationship of DES with local governments is “to ensure effective implementation of national policies and adherence to performance standards on the part local governments and to incorporate municipal and district inspectors as Associate Assessors (AA) in both regional and national inspection programmes depending on need (Ibid p.39). This is in accordance with the Local Government Act (1997) sections 96 – 98. Sections of particular interest are 97 and 98 which state: section97,

For purposes of ensuring implementation of national policies and adherence to performance standards on the part of Local overnments, Ministries shall spect, Monitor and shall where necessary, offer technical advice, support supervision and training within their respective sectors (p.67).

Section 98, subsection (i) talks about the mandates of a line ministry which shall be;

- a) Monitor and coordinate Government initiatives and policies as they apply to local governments;*
- b) Coordinate and advise persons and organizations in relation to projects involving direct relations with Local Governments; and*

c) *Assist in the provision of technical assistance to Local Governments (pp. 67 - 68).*

DES is a corporate body of the ministry of Education and Sports, which is a line Ministry to the Education offices in the Local Governments.

3.2.5.1.1 General Perspective.

The phases of supervision to be discussed below are based on the span of American education (Glickman, 1990 p.). They were set in a framework of cultural changes and influenced by supervisory practices in other reactions like the Church, political arena, business and industry sectors. Each new phase borrowed from the previous ones and added its own contribution. Analysis of these phases can probably shape the supervisory practices of the future as we do react to the popular practices of the moment.

Phase 1: The Community Accountability Phase. The supervision in this phase, vested in the hands of various leaders of the community because of the American strong belief in local control of education. The Massachusetts School Law of 1647 required towns to establish schools and instructed community leaders to monitor the students' progress in reading and in understanding religious principles. Community leadership consisted of the clergy, merchants and representatives of other professions. These determined the school schedule guidelines for student discipline and the curriculum. They too, hired teachers. Members of the clergy were key supervisors of instruction.

The supervisory process during the period consisted of school visits by the community visiting committees in this earliest form of classroom observation. Among their roles were: a) assess students' progress; b) determine appropriateness of content taught; c) observe how the school house was being kept; and d) judge the appropriateness of the teachers' methods of instruction and discipline.

The visits were monthly and in other towns, they occurred once per year. At times committee members collected additional data from end of year examination of students. This period in supervision of schools is often referred to as an inspection stage because of the monitoring role that was assigned to community leadership (Bolin

and Panaritis 1992). The purpose of supervision at this time was to assess the teachers' performance. The early lay supervisors saw their role as that of improving instruction through helping the teacher make needed to know the community values and morals in order to assure that they were being transmitted to students.

The assumptions of this phase were that;

- a) Supervisors had a right to intervene directly in the classroom;
- b) The teacher was the servant of the community and was; expected to respond to community's directives;
- c) Community established the criteria for effective instruction and effectiveness was defined in terms of the desired outcomes among students reading scriptures and depicting morals desired by the community; and
- d) The committee had powers to dismiss the teacher thus the observations made by the committee had to be taken serious.

Phase 2: The Professionalization Phase. This phase began with the end of the community accountability phase when the responsibility of overall operation of schools shifted from community leadership to professional educators. This is a phase that saw the establishment of new administrative positions: superintendent, head-teacher, and principal in towns, municipalities and rural areas' schools. As population expanded, so was the need of more schools. As a result, a system of overseeing a number of schools in a given geographic area was developed and so was the creation of a hierarchical system for overseeing instruction state superintendents of education relied on community superintendents to visit and report on the operations of the local schools in districts. Local schools in districts established their own administrative hierarchies to manage what went on in schools. The role of the principal was vested with supervisory responsibilities. Assistance to individual teachers decreased because of teachers' institutes and because of superintendents supervising as many as 900 teachers. So, the trend was shifted to improving instruction and necessitated involving others in the supervisory process. Numerous supervisors saw the teacher as the key person to make this happen. Blumberg (1985, p.56.) concludes that during this period the quality and

methodology of teaching was the supervisors' foremost concern. Consequently, the advent of calling this phase, professionalization phase.

Phase 3: The Scientific Phase. By the beginning of the 20th Century, the professionalization of education resulted into the creation of the role of supervisory specialists. Specialists came in as a result of the increased size and complexity of school organization which increased the number of tasks to be accomplished. Specialists were also created to supervise the greater range of subject areas to be taught. Special supervisors were hired to teach these subjects to assist teachers convey appropriate instructional methods and to see that a certain standard of teaching performance was met (Karier, 1982 p.116). This phase, from around 1900 to 1920s was the transfer of scientific principles of business management e.g. control accountability and efficiency into the supervision of teaching (Tanner and Tanner, 1987). Core to scientific supervision was the concept of measuring the methods of teaching to determine the most productive ones in relation to student outcomes. This, led to increased attention to direct classroom observation and data gathering, especially through use of observation checklist. Lucio and McNeil (1979, p.57) point out that scientific supervision was at least a movement that created some order out of the class of educational goals and practice at that period. The thinking of the scientific phase was that research and measurement could provide supervisors with a firm base on which to judge the quality of instruction and that teachers were best assisted by supervisors who knew best the procedures to use for any given educational task.

Phase 4: The Human relations Phase. The 1930s and early 1940s saw the trend change from a scientific perspective focusing on achievement of organizational goals to a human relations perspective that focuses on the individuals within the organization. Oversight of instruction was now conceived of as a form of guidance rather than direction of instruction, this trend was characterized by the increased awareness of societal inequalities and by the development of social sciences. Social psychology offered a principle of situationalism that correct methods depended on the circumstances. On the other hand, the motivation theory derived from the well-known

Hawthorne studies, suggested that workers' effort and morale increased when employers paid increased attention to the work environment. (Robins and Coulter, 1996, pp.47-48) increased attention to workers increased production.

The primary purpose of supervision in this phase, was to assist the teacher. This was under the belief that teachers would do their best in a supportive environment and the supervisors' work was to improve instruction by focusing on the personal satisfaction of teachers. This, was done through allowing teachers to participate in decision making about curriculum and instruction.

The social and psychological needs of teachers were extremely important if teachers were to be effective. The result of this was that supervisors concentrated on building positive relationship with teachers. The resultant outcome of this relationship was that supervisors feared killing this relationship by conducting direct classroom observation. This implied that the human relations supervision was equated with hands off supervision where little assistance was provided.

Phase 5: The second – Wave Scientific Phas. In late 1980s, a resurgence in the application of the principles of scientific supervision occurred. The theoretical basis of assisting and assessing went through more transitions. This phase was characterized by complex use of observation systems to measure effective and ineffective teacher behaviours, increased reliance on standardized testing of students and emphasis on a behavioural objective basis for instruction that aimed to achieve measurable and observable outcomes.

From the late 1950s through the early 1960s, there was continuation of the first-wave scientific phase rather than totally a separate phase. The effective teaching research of the 1970s and 1980s and the popularity of Hanter's (1984), model of supervision, shows that the principles of these earlier scientific phases are alive in a new third wave scientific phase.

In both phases, (The 1st wave scientific and 2nd wave scientific) techniques for observing and recording what occurred in the classroom provided data that stimulated instructional improvement. Although supervisors and principals remained the primary classroom observers, teachers in this second wave analyzed their own classroom data with taped recordings. The skills to implement the principles of this phase were much more technical than in previous phases increasing the importance of classroom observations. At times, this was scaled down to the need for face- to –face interaction between supervisor and teacher (Sergiovanni and Starrah, 1988, p.56).

Phase 6: The Second Wave Human Relations Phase. In the late 1960s, the emergence of clinical supervision combined the tools and techniques of the scientific phases with the supervisor/teacher team approach of the human relations phase. Clinical supervision required sustained teacher and supervisor interactions in order to mutually solve classroom problems. The interaction was to occur during pre- and post – observation conferences. The last step in the clinical supervision process led to a recycling back to pre-observation (Goldhammer, 1969, p.106 and Cogan, 1973, p. 97).

The primary focus of this phase, was to assist pre-service and in-service teachers by having the supervisor and teacher analyze the teachers' performance together. The thinking behind this was that sustained cycle of assistance is necessary for teaching to improve and that the analysis of teaching behaviour patterns can lead to useful insights. It is important to note that a positive teacher/supervisor rapport is important for effective supervision. Thus, the supervisor was required to be highly skilled in data collection, providing feedback and relating to people.

Phase 7: The Human Development Phase. From the mid 1980s up to the present the attention has been turned to adult learning and development issues in effective supervision (Glickman, 1990, p.25., Levine, 1989, p. 98). In Glickman's (1990, p.50) view, the life stages and cognitive, conceptual and personality development of teachers directly affect supervision.

This phase combines the concern for teachers' personal needs with the concern for the productivity of the organization classroom observation and face-to-face interactions are elements that characterize almost all the current respected models of this phase. Models that can be used to address teachers' needs require a range of skills and knowledge of adult learning and development in order to determine which model to use.

3.2.5.2 Support Supervision.

Support Supervision (SS) is a process of guiding, helping, teaching and learning from staff at their places of work in order to perform their work better. It avails the supervisors and supervisees an opportunity to work as a team to meet common goals of objectives of the institutions, thus, it allows members to learn from each other with emphasis put on joint problem identification, joint problem solving and a two way communication between the supervisors and supervisees (Ministry of Health [MoH], 2000 p.5). while the aim of supervision is to promote compliance with standards and guidelines among education providers and hence improvement in the quality of education, the major overall objective of SS is to improve the quality of services provided and quality of education acceptable to all stakeholders.

SS provided can be *Technical*, *Integrated* or *Emergency* (types). Technical SS provides a specialized assistance/support in a specific specialty e.g. methodology (pedagogical), curriculum (content). This is specifically planned for and may also be requested for by the supervisees or supervisor after identifying a common problem among staff. This calls for specialists to address specific concerns with the supervisees (Ibid, p.6). That is, specific subject heads should provide specialized support to their subordinates.

Integrated SS calls for use of a multidisciplinary team with a mix of required skills in different areas. This presents supervisors an opportunity to have a broader awareness of the different areas/subjects or programmes and to share information, priority setting is also made easier depending on the level of needs identified. This will

also have an input for technical support in case a problem or deficiency identified calls for it (Ibid).

Emergency SS provides support to a specific emergency problem or need identified. If learners are identified with a problem of failure to read or a teacher cannot teach, reading such cases calls for immediate action to alleviate the problem (Opcit).

In all cases attended to in the three types of SS, there is need to provide feedback in form of reports both verbal and written. This is a very important aspect to supervisees and the supervisor. It brings up a common understanding and agreement between the two. Failure to fulfill this creates a communication gap and improvement will stall. So, there should be:-

- a) On sites verbal feedback to the supervisees soon after the supervision to reveal your preliminary findings and how things worked out. In turn the supervisee will give explanation to the supervisor why certain things were done the way they were done and later reach an agreement and the way forward.
- b) On site written feedback notes need to be developed during the process, which forms the basis of on site verbal feedback and a written feedback to the supervisee immediately after the supervision. The other importance is that the written report [later] will be based on these notes developed during the process.
- c) Written reports these are made after completion of the SS given to all staff detailing the findings, problems, lessons learnt, weakness, strengths and recommendations for improvement.

The supervision activities generate information and are accumulated through feedbacks and reports. It is this information that is used to improve the quality of education services. The process of data collection through the various methods is not the sole purpose of supervision. This process should result into continuous quality improvement through the use of information gathered. Proper recording of supervision findings, recommendations and follow up of recommendations made be done if utilization of information is to be successful. Such information obtained previously, is

used for planning, policy formation and further supervision. It will also be needed in planning for in-depth supervision (Inspection) (MOH, 2000, pp.8).

Finally, supervision is not complete without follow-up. Once recommendations have been made and agreements reached between the supervisor and supervisee, it is necessary to make a follow-up of the agreed upon decisions to see their implementation levels. This will further call for the assessment of the impact of the recommendations or interventions made towards the improvement of quality.

3.2.6 Clinical Supervision.

This is an approach to educational supervision derived from medical experience of direct observation.

Cogan (1973) one of the pioneers of the approach defined clinical supervision as:

The rationale and practice designed to improve the teachers' classroom performance. It takes its principal data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of these data and the relationship between teacher and supervisor form the basis of the program procedures and strategies designed to improve the students' learning by improving the teachers' classroom behavior (p.9).

Cogan's emphasis is on its direct effort to help a particular teacher work effectively with a group of learners through the observation and analysis of the behaviour of learners and teachers in the teaching – learning process.

Goldhammer, Anderson and Krajewski (1993) give a working definition of clinical supervision as:

That aspect of instructional supervision which draws upon data from direct firsthand observation of actual teaching, or other professional events, and involves face-to-face and other associated interactions between the observer(s) and the person(s) observed in the course of analyzing the observed professional behaviours and activities and seeking to define and /or develop next steps toward improved performance (p.4).

They (Goldhammer et al) emphasis observation and analysis of the observed behaviour (data) but go further to suggest the interactions between the supervisor and the supervisee to determine the next step(s). So, to them feedback is very essential if clinical supervision is to be complete and functional.

Goldhammer et al (1980, p.4) in their earlier edition, expressed the concept of clinical supervision as “the hands on or eyes on aspect of the supervisor who is attempting to intervene in a helpful way”.

Clinical supervision bases its operations on:

- i) The needs of learners,
- ii) Organizational needs,
- iii) Objectives of teaching,
- iv) Engagement opportunities of learners,
- v) Defining learning outcomes,
- vi) Identification of problems (by both the supervisor and supervisee)
- vii) Developing and trying out solutions, and
- viii) Evaluation of results.

All these are done in the process of clinical supervision as seen in the stages of the process. In nature, clinical supervision is consultation for a specific teaching – learning situation, it is a problem solving approach to instructional supervision. The emphasis then is placed on objectivity in observation, analysis and feedback to teachers with both supervisor and supervisee participating in the process as colleagues. This has the importance of establishing supervisor – supervisee relationship built on mutual trust and respect. Supervisees are expected to have the primary responsibility of evaluating and deciding on changes in teaching behaviour which the supervisor playing a helping supporting, suggesting and servicing function.

3.2.6.1 Clinical Supervision Process.

Clinical supervision is taken as a structured model, which is cyclic in nature and in operation. Goldhammer et al (1980) identified five stages.

The prototype of a sequence of clinical supervision consists of the following five stages: (1) pre-observation conference; (2) observation; (3) analysis and strategy; (4) supervision conference; and (5) post conference analysis (pp.31 - 44).

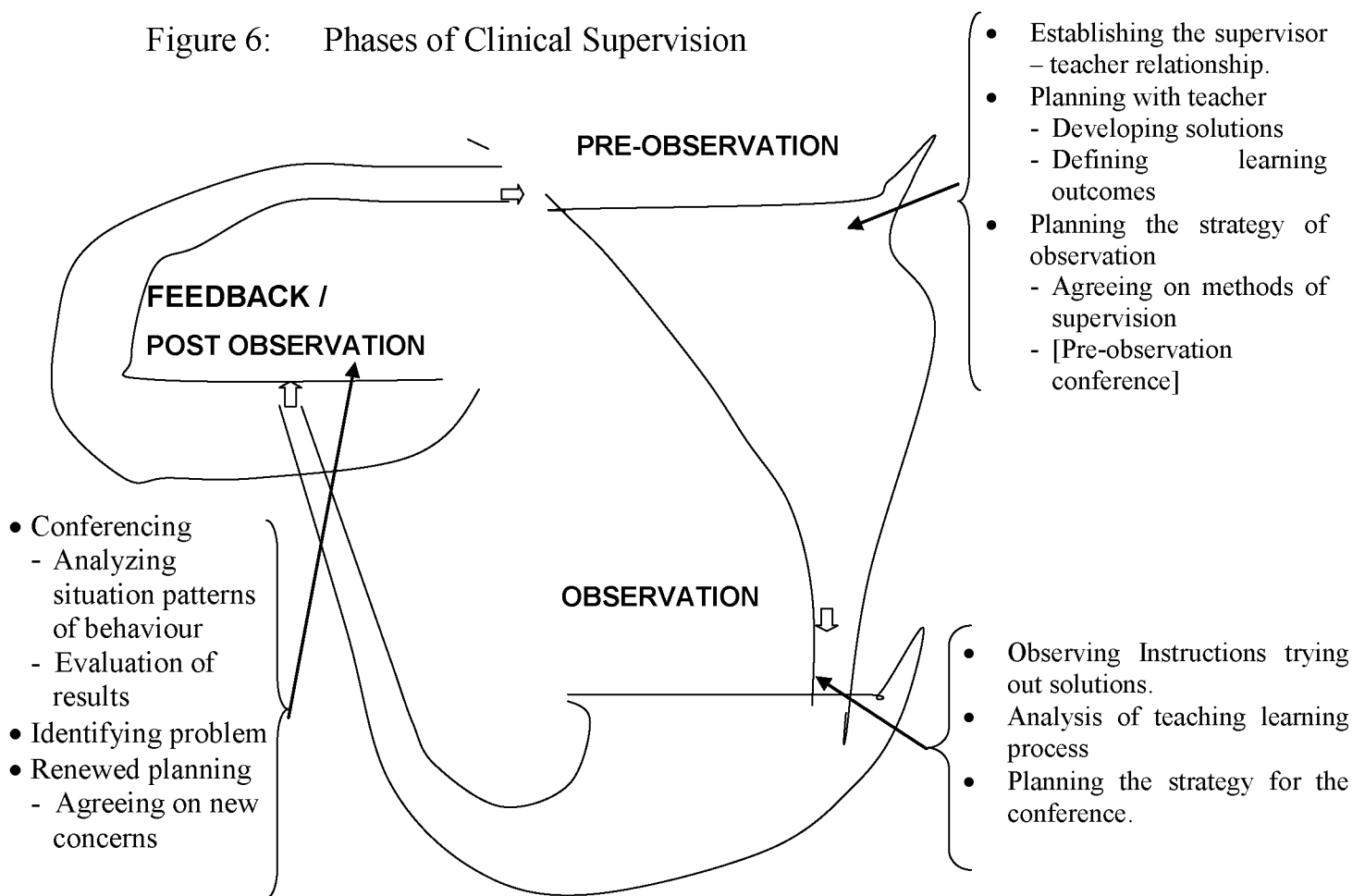
Cogan (1973) defined an eight-phase cycle of clinical supervision, which consists of:

- Phase 1. Establishing the teacher – supervision relationship*
- Phase 2. Planning with the teacher*
- Phase 3. Planning the strategy of observation*

- Phase 4. Observing instruction
- Phase 5. Analyzing the teaching – learning processes
- Phase 6. Planning the strategy of the conference
- Phase 7. The Conference
- Phase 8. Renewed planning (pp.10 – 13)

My analysis of the literature and basing on my personal experience in the use of clinical supervision as a teacher educator, What is being termed as phases or stages are just activities that depict what takes place in the phases. I summarize the phases (and their activities of clinical supervision as the diagram below indicates.

Figure 6: Phases of Clinical Supervision



3.2.6.2 Purpose of Clinical Supervision.

The purpose of clinical supervision should be improvement of instruction and learning outcomes (Goldhammer, et al, 1980, p.4). Cogan (1973, p.12) pointed out that

“the central hope for outcome is professionally responsible teachers who are committed to self-improvement through help from others and self-correction”. This calls for seeing the elements of self-directing and self-improving within teachers. It also implies that the teacher is in control of the supervisory situation. It is therefore crucial that the teachers get the opportunity to have knowledge of the concept of clinical supervision and develop the conceptual, technical and human skills needed in the delivery of clinical supervisory services.

Basing on personal experience, the above implications are on the assumptions that the teaching – learning situation is composed of observed and analyzed behaviours. These behaviours can occur on a more or less regular basis and the associated patterns of behaviour can result into improvement of instruction and learning outcomes for students.

According to Sergiovanni (1976, pp. 20–29) frame of reference, It can be concluded that clinical supervision should provide an opportunity for the teachers to do the following:

- (i) *Examine, discuss and explicate their espoused educational platforms.*
- (ii) *Receive objective feedback on their practiced platforms.*
- (iii) *Examine the relationship between their anticipated and actual behaviour in the classroom.*
- (iv) *Examine the relationship between the desired consequences of their behaviour and the actual consequences of their behaviour.*
- (v) *Examine the relationship between their espoused platform and other assumptions, theories, and research about effective teaching.*
- (vi) *Develop, implement and receive support for appropriate changes in both their espoused and practiced educational platforms (p.171).*

In the general analysis, the trend of the supervision seen in schools today, has the intent to improve classroom instruction through observation of classroom teaching, analysis of observed data and face – to – face interaction between the observer and the teacher with a view of improving performance.

3.2.7 Inspection Versus Supervision.

These two concepts are at times interchangeably used to mean the same thing by some people. Although, they may end up with the same results, they are distinct in nature and approach. One feeds into the other – supervision supports the inspection activities.

Both inspection and supervision are functions that support the quality of education. As earlier pointed out, inspection is externally oriented (Norms, 1998) and tends to give a wholistic picture of the institution. It is evaluative in nature and attaches value judgment to its findings. It determines how good a school is.

On the other hand supervision is internally oriented and provides support towards performance improvement. It is a day-to-day or a periodical function. It is a strategy within the monitoring concept (IFAD, 2002). It determines how school is performing or progressing.

NEEDU Report (2009 pp.30 – 31) identifies two kinds of evaluation – *Evaluation of school improvement* and *Evaluation of school performance* that generates data on the schools' performance, its areas of excellence, strengths and weaknesses. It is normally based on standardized evaluation instruments with pre-specified performance indicators and criteria that allow comparison of school performance across the system. To me this is inspection.

On the other hand, Evaluation for school improvement aims at identifying the institution specific priority problems to assist the achievement of school's improvement goals and strategies, to me this is supervision.

In a decentralization set up, supervision tend to be at institutional level while inspection is done at the district level with components of supervision involved. However, when the central government comes in, tends to combine the two supervision

and inspection. I think there is need to distinctly separate the two in the Ugandan context.

The general analysis of theories, models, and other concepts discussed in this section are summarised in the definition generated. M/E therefore, *'is the continuous process of collecting data on predetermined standards against set benchmarks to assess the progress of implementation and inform both managerial and policy decisions for continuity, impact, and change of strategy towards improvement and desired positive changes'*.

SECTION C: POLICY FORMULATION.

3.3 Introduction.

In this section focus has been made on the concept of policy – what it is and the basic components of policy. Then education policy is discussed and what it should take care of. Policy making theories are then discussed in general terms followed by policy justification which discusses the tests employed in the process of justification. Models of policy are later discussed in view of decision making process over policy options. Lastly, policy implementation is discussed with a view of policy failure and policy success.

3.3.1 Concept of Policy.

The aim of any policy is to provide a framework to guide and direct at all levels the planning, resource allocation and implementation of development programmes. Policy objectives, therefore, should shape the actions and choices of officials, executives and staff (Bruce, 1994, p.8). Policies are formal and written and are normally issued by legislation, court rulings, administrative guidelines or budget documents.

According to Bruce (1994) policy is for

Defining services and benefits persons can receive and clearly stating rules about determining eligibility, provides mechanism for the general public, their elected representatives and the governing boards of organizations to articulate and enforce their policy preferences, they create accountability and enforcement (p.8).

Concise Oxford Dictionary (19th Edition) defines as:

A course or principle of action adopted or proposed by a government, party, business or individual (p. 1057).

The definition here looks at two aspects of the concept of policy. Action in this context is just something to be done or accomplished and agent(s) the source of action (Jide, 2005, pp.8-9).

The Cambridge International Dictionary of English (1995) defines policy as:

A set of ideas or a plan of what to do in particular situations that has been agreed officially by a group of people, a business organization, a government or a political party (p.1091).

This definition, go further to explain policy as an official position over a plan taken by agent(s) as the source or initiator of the plan to be done or accomplished (Jide, Ibid).

Jide (2005) summarizes the concept of policy as consisting of “a plan by some agent (A) to do something (D) for some purpose (P)” (p.10). In the two dictionary definitions, purpose is implied within something to be done or accomplished. Something is done or accomplished for a purpose.

Brigan Magee(1973, p.75) define policy as:

As hypothesis which has to be tested against reality and corrected in the light of experience (as cited by Swann and Praff, (1999, p.39).

The definition is given in the context of policy testing. The implication is that, the plan agreed upon need to be tested before implementation or piloted in the context of experience. That is, after formulating the policy.

Then, what is policy formulation or policy making? According to Hayes (2001) it is:

The development of effective and acceptable courses of action for addressing what has been placed on the policy agenda (p.2).

The process calls for effective and acceptable formulation. Hayes goes on to explain the two as:-

Effective formulation – meaning that the proposed policy is regarded as valid, efficient and implementable solution to the issue at hand. That is, if the policy is found to be ineffective or unworkable in practice, there is no legitimate reason to propose it (Ibid).

Acceptable formulation - meaning that, the proposed course of action is likely to be authorized by the legitimate decision makers usually through majority building in a bargaining process. That is, it must be politically feasible. If it is likely to be rejected by the decision making body, it may be impractical to suggest (Op cit).

The political feasibility of a policy makes policy formulation be a political process. In this context, Blanche and Durrhein (1999), define policy making as:

A political process that is influenced by a variety of factors besides research and empirical evidence (p.239).

Hayes (2001, p.3) attaches two aspects to policy formulation – analytical and political. That is, policy alternatives based on sound analysis need to be conceived and clearly articulated. Secondly, a political choice of among the alternatives must be made. In other words, the policy must be authorized through a political process. Such as legislation or regulation. This implies, both phases of analysis and authorization form the basis of policy formulation. In nutshell, the definition of policy formulation is *ANALYSIS + AUTHORIZATION = FORMULATION*.

Policy formulation being a process, calls for stages of its development and methods employed. The following table shows that different stages and methods at each stage that are used during the policy making process.

Table 4: Methods to be used at the different stages of policy making

Policy making stages	Methods
Problem definition	• Literature search • Interviews with key stakeholders • Needs assessment
Evaluating policy options	• Policy feasibility analysis (e.g. political mapping force field analysis [opposes, Neutral, Favour]) • Economic analysis • Implementation Analysis.
Monitoring policy Implementation	• Before and after comparisons • Actual versus planned performance comparisons • Programme Evaluation • Quasi and true – experimental methods

Source: Blauche and Durrheim (1999, p.244).

During the analysis process of policies, Blauche and Durrheim (1999, p.245) suggest the following steps to determine whether the policy objectives or needs addressed have been met or can be met. The steps are in form of questions.

- (i) *Who initiated the policy and why?*
- (ii) *What does the policy do?*
- (iii) *What is the desired impact?*
- (iv) *What are the benefits, who will benefit and who will lose?*
- (v) *Can the policy be implemented?*
- (vi) *Who will implement the policy?*
- (vii) *Are the systems in place to implement the policy and are the skills required available?*
- (viii) *What are the costs of the policy and who will bear them?*
- (ix) *Are the costs sustainable?*

Policy analysis, informs the policy formulation process the strengths and weaknesses of policies so that loopholes are detected and eradicated (Bruce, 1994,

p.408). Policy analysis to, should strive to find conflicting areas of policy in order to harmonize them. Lack of harmony in policies is a result of successive unrelated programmes and incentives without changing the basic form of the policy. Murphy and Louis (1995, p.512) call this “*policy alignment*”.

The logic behind this analysis is that there is need to conduct a risk assessment about implementation. There is likelihood that a desired policy will not be implemented. When forces opposed to it are more powerful than those supposed to it, research may play a key role here. Thus, the need for policy research.

The perspective of policy alignment recognizes that schools cannot respond well to a series of unrelated mandates that take no account of on another, (Ibid, p.513). Such a situation exists in Uganda as seen in the legal frameworks that govern the Directorate of Education Standards (DES), the operations of Centre Coordinating Tutors (CCTs), the District Inspectorate, DES is semi-autonomous, and stops at regional level, CCTs are centrally controlled while District Inspectorates are district controlled. The three do not recognize the existence of the other legally and contradict each other in their systems of governance. The work of the three through supervision and inspection as quality control mechanisms is crucial in ensuring quality in the primary education sector (MoES, 2005).

Murphy and Louis (1999, p.512) give purpose of policy research as:

To help policy makers – legislators, governors, judges and school board members understand 3 things: how they can influence schools; how externally prescribed policies affect the operation of schools; and how schools’ internal structures and values limit what can be accomplished by policy initiatives.

A QA framework in place will definitely affect the operations of the schools and the mode in which education will be provided. Consequently in view of what Murphy and Louis say, the internal structures and arrangements of the schools and what they strive to achieve in view of the values they attach to education, will in turn affect the implementation strategies of the quality assurance framework.

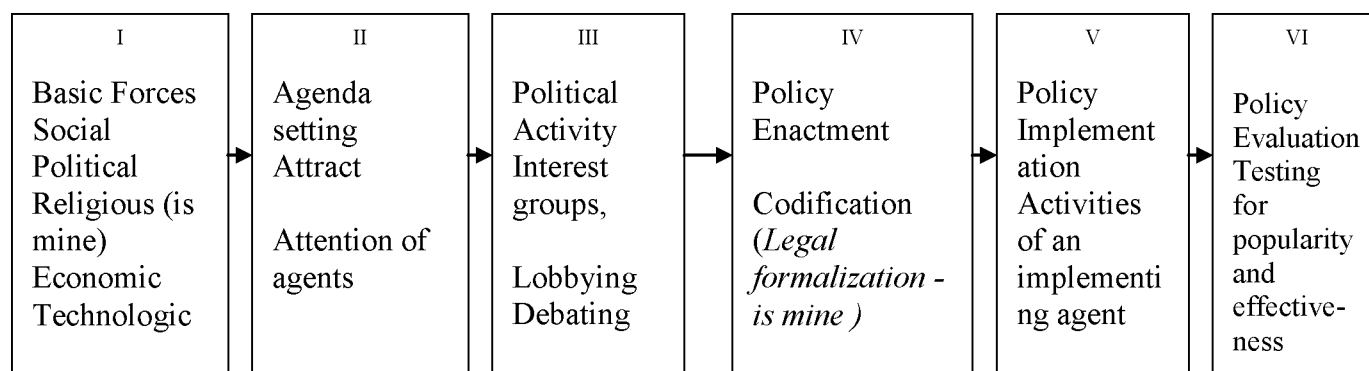
Hogwood and Gunn (in Walt, 1994 and Porter (1995) as cited by Blauche and Durrhein (1999, p.242), the process of policy formulation includes the following steps:

- (i) *Issue search and agenda setting*
- (ii) *Issue definition*
- (iii) *Setting objectives and priorities,*
- (iv) *Analysis of the policy options and selection of the best option,*
- (v) *Policy implementation, monitoring, evaluation;*
- (vi) *Policy review.*

Blauche and Durrhein further suggest the step of piloting to the above list under controlled conditions before making it applicable to the entire organization or country.

Jide (2005, p.56 -60) describes the policy making process as the figure below explains the process in brief.

Figure 7: A flow chart of the policy – making process.



It is in this effort that Murphy and Louis (1999) believe that:

The goals of policy research is to help policy makers understand the strengths and limitations of the tools they have (Mandates, regulations, and so on) so that government's aspiration with be realistic and official actions can be designed to have desired effects and avoid harmful unintended consequences (p.512).

Policy oriented research has direct application to current issues in educational policy and practice and consists of careful, systematic attempts to understand the educational process and improve its efficiency (Keeves, 1998, p.20). Policies are necessary interventions in the social transformation of society including in (sic) education. Education policies guide decentralization as a strategy to address educational issues.

Looking at Blauche and Durrhein (1999), Hogwood and Gunn (1994) and Jide (2005) steps of policy-making process, a comparative analysis show agreement of the same steps but some embedded in the other and positioning the different example, Jide and Hogwood & Gunn tend to agree on agenda setting as a step though they differ where to place it. Basic forces (Jide) and issue search (Hogwood & Gunn) which to me are the same but different wording. Jide sets it as an independent step while Hogwood and Gunn tag it with agenda setting. Blauche and Derrheim call this step problem definition as the first step yet it is the second step to Hogwood and Gunn. The general perspective of the concept of policy illustrates two defining features – one, that policy is developed to influence or shape behaviour, and two, that policies are the result or outcome of some need (Blauche and Durrheinn, 1999, pp. 239 – 240).

QA and QE are two essential elements needed in the provision of education currently the world over. The mechanisms put in place to ensure QA will influence the provision of QE. It is necessary that a policy or legal framework on QA is in place to guide the provision of QE.

Conflict avoidance within policies themselves ,and conflict avoidance at implementation level in policy formulation is critical. This is against the background that society is heterogeneous thus bringing in a diversity of ideas and values which need to be taken care of. So, there is little consensus through legitimate discussion and negotiation, the educational system should reach consensus by avoiding conflict through decentralization given the heterogeneity of societies (Gibton and Goldring, 2001, 91). The idea that legislation can change the social order is based on the assumption that the law has the capacity to dominate human behaviour (Rawls, 1971, Schiff, 1981 as cited by Gibton and Golding, 2001, pp.81 -82).

Made both inside and outside educational institutions that provide guidance in the conduct of educational activities (p.137).

Policy therefore, acts as a legal framework that supports or inhabits balanced and effective governance and healthy growth and interaction of a society is many facts.

Its effectiveness rests in proper assessment and incentives for behavioural change. Then, a policy should consist of a clear plan by some agent to do something for some purpose. (Jide, 2005, p.10).

It is in this effort that Elboim – Dror (1981, p.220) proclaimed that the guiding principle for policy formation throughout the educational system (even in other systems) is conflict.

3.3.2 Educational Policy.

Jide (2005) describes educational policies as those:

Made both inside and outside educational institutions that provide guidance in the conduct of educational activities (p.137).

This implies that some policies originate from educational institutions while others originate from non-educational institutions but affect education issues for example Welfare Policy, food policy or the health policy are not necessarily of education directly or indirectly.

If we take education, according to Jide (Ibid) as:

The social mechanism designed to bring about, in the persons submitted to it, the acquisition of certain skills, knowledge attitude and values that are judged to be useful and desirable in his society (p.137).

And, if we adopt this definition as a working definition of education then it suggests four categories of activities to be engaged in education.

- (i) Choice of who to be educated.
- (ii) Choice of what skills, knowledge, attitude and values to be acquired.
- (iii) Choice of how to go about educating.
- (iv) Choice of what resources to use.

These four activities suggest categories of educational policies that exist.

The choice of who to be educated, suggest the *Distributional Policies* how the inputs (human resource in particular) into the education system be brought on board.

The four children per family when UPE took off in Uganda in 1997 is an example or the quarter system per district at entry into public universities in Uganda is another.

The choice of what skills, knowledge, attitude and values call for policies that guide the selection of content, to deliver, (skills, values attitudes to be developed. Such policies are categorized as *Curricular Policies*. Then, choice of how to go about educating, calls for educational policies that guide the selection of appropriate ways to educate are categorized as *Pedagogic Policies*.

The policies that guide the resources to be used and how they are to be allocated are termed *Resource Policies* (Ibid, pp. 137 -143).

The four categories of policies either emanates from parliament, president and the country's Ministry of Education or individual institutions to supplement those made by the first group. So, policies are so critical in the provision of QE.

Policies made by the latter group are called System Policies. They exist to guide the general education system of the country. Then, individual institutions make Institutional Policies to maintain a unique culture. These policies exist to guide the individual institutions in their respective context in their day – to – day activities as they implement systems' policies. This implies that different institutions may not necessarily have the same policies but their focus is in line with system policies. This explains why some schools are performing better than others are. That is, they provide better quality education than others basing on the institutional policies they have put in place to guide the education process they offer. That is to say, institutional policies are nested in system policies (Ibid, pp.147 – 149).

Important to note is that, any activity carried out in education or in any educational institution is conducted on the basis of policy. This therefore implies that QA need to be maintained on the basis of policy.

Secondly, institutional policies are nested with systems' policies which are equally nested within the governments' which in many cases are nested within global policies that affect education.

3.3.3 Policy Making Theories.

These are general explanations of the ways in which one perceives issues contained in policy making and analysis. The theories in place according to Jide (2005, pp.52 – 79) are the:

- (i) *Systems Theory*
- (ii) *Process Theory*
- (iii) *Group Theory*
- (iv) *Elite Theory*
- (v) *Institutional Theory*

The *Systems Theory* – This considers public policies as outputs of the political system. That is, the political environment existing within the political system creates demands on it. Then the demands put in place tensions and at times disturbance. These demands and support later make up the inputs into the political system. The inputs are converted into public policies. The policies so established create more demands and possibly more support which can later turn into new inputs into the system. So, the theory in brief asserts that all policies are environmental inputs transformed by the political system (Ibid, pp.53 -54). Political systems need to be conscious of ensuring QE thus a need for a policy on QA.

The *Process Theory* – the focus is on the procedure of policy formulation. It bases on the notion that there are basic economic, political, social, religious and technological forces that exert needs within the environment. In response to these forces or needs, conscious movements are developed to put in place new policies. The conscious movement provokes new policies countrywide and set the agenda for political activity. In turn, interest groups emerge and express their demands/needs through a number of channels available. Like now quality education in the Ugandan primary schooling is a concern of everybody countrywide and is being addressed in every form available. Then debates are generated to analyze and synthesis the different interests

and views and evaluate policy proposals that can answer the needs/demands. Later, a policy statement is coded and adopted. Once this is done, then a policy is passed on to the implementing agents who should ensure that the policy is adhered to. Lastly, policy outputs are assessed to determine their popularity. In this theory, the focal point is the process, content of the process is not the issue (Ibid, pp.56-61). The forces at play, within the education system and globally, should continue shaping QA procedure to ensure a proper environment in providing QE.

The *Group Theory* – takes politics as the struggle among groups to influence public policy. The charge of the political system is to settle group conflicts. Policy makers therefore respond to group pressure through arbitrating, negotiating and compromising among demands of rival influential groups.

Group theorists view public policy as the equilibrium reached in the group struggle and a representative balance the worrying groups strive for (Ibid, pp.61-64). The concern from different groups of stakeholders at the moment is need for quality education as earlier mentioned. A QA policy within the education system is necessary to take care of different interest groups.

The *Elite Theory* – looks at public policy as the outcome and values of a small group of people that is so influential in a society because of their material wealth achievements, political power, military power, religious power, academic knowledge, name it. It therefore considers the majority of the people as unimaginative, disorganized or ill informed of about issues. In the values of the elites are the values of the majority. The majority, in most cases have less input in the policies, yet is at the receiving end (Ibid, pp.65-71).

The *Institutional Theory* – insists that public policies are authoritatively made, implemented and enforced by governmental/ institutions. Such policies are regarded as legal obligations and apply to all people in a social system. They have to be willingly or unwillingly accepted. That is, government can legitimately punish those who violate its

policies. This implies that government possesses coercive powers – it ensures compliance by force (Ibid, pp.71-75).

3.3.4 Justification of Policies.

After policies have been made, piloted, and decision to enforce it taken, there is need to check whether there is truth in the policies to be worth supported or the policy is good. To be contended with the fore said, then one must believe that the:

- (i) Policy demands are just;
- (ii) Purpose of actions in the policy is desirable;
- (iii) Means specified in the action for achieving the purpose is effective;
- (iv) Costs of the action in resources and the undesirable side effects of the policy are affordable (Ibid, p.198).

These four thoughts, yield to four tests that are used in justifying the rationality of policies as indicated below respectively.

- (i) *The justness test,*
- (ii) *The desirability test*
- (iii) *The effectiveness test,*
- (iv) *The affordability test (Ibid, pp.175 – 198)*

The *Justness Test* – this poses between questions of whether the means for achieving the policy purpose are just. If the policy is morally wrong, unethical or legally incorrect or contradicts higher-level policies then it is unjust. The tentative rules with which the means must accord should be seen as just if the policies are to be justifiable on grounds of justness. A policy to be justifiable must pass the tests of desirability and effectiveness (Ibid, pp.198 – 194).

The *Desirability Test* – focuses on the purpose of the policy whether it is desirable in terms of educational grounds. The desirability test poses three major questions.

- (i) Is the policy purpose under any interpretation desirable?

- (ii) If the policy is educational, is the policy having some educational purpose?
- (iii) If the policy is having some educational purposes are the purposes meant to develop some knowledge, skills, attitude and values? (Ibid, p.205).

An educational policy to be termed desirable, the purpose must be defensible on educational grounds.

The *Effectiveness Test* – its focus is the means of achieving policy purposes are likely to be effective. However, means can be effective to various levels, what matters are to pick on the most effective means. The effectiveness of means of achieving policy purposes has empirical implications. Effectiveness of a policy is vested in the results of empirical research. If the purpose of a quality assurance policy is highly desirable to address issues of provision of quality education then it is sound enough to pass the effectiveness test (Ibid, pp. 183 -189).

The *Affordability Test* – the emphasis is on whether the means of achieving the purpose of the policy are affordable and tolerable. That is, a poorly facilitated school decides to put aside US\$15,000 as a reward to the best performing candidate in public examination for purposes of motivation. But, is it affordable and tolerable each year given the poor state of the school. The policy is not justifiable unless the costs of the action in resources and its undesirable side effects are considered affordable (Ibid, pp.194-198).

This implies that a policy is a hypothesis (Magee [1973] as cited by Swann and Prah (199, p.46) or it embodies a hypothesis. This calls for empirical predictions (if A is done, then B will follow) and explanatory theories (C follows D because of ...). Implying that policy depends on 'explanatory mechanisms' as Pawson and Tilley (1997) put it (Swann and Praff, Ibid). explanatory mechanism is an account of the make-up, behaviour and interrelationships of those processes which are responsible for [a] regularity . (Pawson and Telly, 1997, p.68). To Pawson and Telly, a realist explanation is summarized as "*regularity = mechanisms + context*. To Swann and Praff (1997), then mechanism

Consists of propositions about how the interplay between structure (the stratified nature of social reality) and agency (people's choices) constitutes the regularity, and whether or not the regularity occurs depends on the context (p.46).

Thus, the policy hypothesis has to be tested against reality (structure) and corrected in the light of experience (agency).

3.3.5 Policy Making Models.

Models are simplifications of our views of reality without losing essential characteristics. In other words, it simplifies what we see, what we think and what we do. Models shape the decision making process on what best policies to adopt and implement in view of their respective assumptions.

Jide (2005, pp.85-109) identifies the following models that influence the decision making process on what policies to consider appropriate.

- a) *The Maximizing appropriate,*
- b) *The Optimizing Model,*
- c) *The Disjointed instrumentalism model,*
- d) *The satisfying model,*
- e) *The mixed scanning model,*
- f) *The organizational process model*
- g) *The political bargaining model.*

The *Maximizing Model* – takes the best policy option. The policy maker basing on a rational choice picks on the very best policy option to implement. This should be backed up by logical reasoning. The assumptions of this model are that:

- a) The policy take charge of common interests and values are the same – *commonality of values.*
- b) The policy agent has the knowledge of the desired goals, knows the available resources and is familiar with costs and benefits of policy options. He should also be knowledgeable of available alternative policies – *Explicitly Knowledge.*
- c) The best of policies that are thought to be possible are chosen – *Best Option.*
- d) The costs and benefits of the alternative policies are quantified and compared in order to take a rational decision over the policy option – *Quantification.*

- e) There exists a stable social, political and economic climate in which the best policy option will operate – *stability* (Ibid, pp. 85-87).

The *Optimizing Model* – this works on the premise that a policy agent is a rational actor and will always take the best decision on the best policies that are practically viable and that can achieve the desired outcomes, thus maximizing satisfaction. It takes note of all theoretically possible options including the wildest imaginable options but the choice is on the best option as a rational policy decision.

The model further assumes that rationality is varying degrees – thus, some options are more rational than others are. So, rationality is not based on the best theoretically possible choice, but on the benefit cost ratio. That is, what option has the greater benefit – cost ration. However, in education like in any other social sector, the measure is determined by the evaluation of norms – social, political, psychological benefits not in terms of money but the normative question counts (Ibid, pp.87-90).

The Disjointed Instrumentalism Model- assumes that policy makers continue making policy adjustments to existing policies. It does not take note of colossal changes. It concentrates on a 'fire brigade' approach to policy making with strategies of trial and error, tentativeness, probation and reversible decisions. Through making marginal changes at ago, the agent minimizes the risk of dissenting and rejecting policies. However, the difference between marginal (fire brigade) and major (colossal) changes is not clear. Though small changes are necessarily, there is need for major changes to take place from time to basing on the changing needs. For any effective institution in a changing world should respond to the changing needs in a changing world. For example, the increasing need of the use of Information Technology (IT) within the education systems does not need a marginal change but a major one calling for e-education, (Ibid, pp.92-94). Quality Assurance in our system calls for major changes to abridge the gaps existing to providing a quality education.

The *Satisfying Model* – looks for the element of goodness in a policy option that is regarded as rational. The policy agent has no specialized skills nor the time to make

the required calculation to determine the goodness in a policy option. S(he) is limited by the level of his knowledge, his perceptions and the information available to him/her. By implication, one does not need to explore all policy options even in the presence of other alternatives. When an option that satisfies ones' needs and expectations is found the search stops there and then. There are no guidelines to choosing a rational option. This model posits more of a strategy of making a decision rather than making a policy (Ibid, pp.95-99).

The *Mixed – Scanning Model* – this is a combination of the instrumentalism model and the optimizing mode. It assumes that it minimizes the narrowness of instrumentalism and the unrealistic rational expectation of the optimizing model. That is, while the incremental model explains, predicts and guides marginal policy decisions, the maximizing model is used in making major policy decisions especially policies on educational reforms, which need comprehensive outlook and analysis. Mixed scanning model then, abridges the gap between the two when used – it is a proposition for the use of two models, based on the need and situation. By implication, it is a model used for making outer (system) and inner (institutional) decisions on policies. (Ibid, pp.99 - 101).

The *Organizational Process Model* – works on the premise that decision-making within organizations or institutions are not the same as personal decision-making. This model describes how policies are made in the context of organizations or institutions. Educational institutions are organizations in which policy decisions are influenced by values, perceptions, goals of different departments or sections in each department and key leading individual's staffs. Internalizing the organizational context is essential in knowing what might have influenced the policy decision of any organization (Ibid, pp.101 -103).

The *Political Bargaining Model* – explains how government decisions are made and what determines the outcome. Decision making in government institutions is characterized by conflicts, compromises and legal agreements. In this model the

process of decision making is a game. The participants in this game are the politicians, leaders of interest groups and bureaucrats but with varying conflicting demands, interests and decisions that with exert influence or dominance in trying to meet their goals. The game is governed by laws and regulations of the political set-up. So, the strategies to these various interest groups put in place to oppose, debate negotiate and agree explain how consensus is reached and the end result is a policy formulated (Ibid, pp.103-105).

In this context, different people and interest groups may perceive Quality Assurance differently but consensus needs to be reached if quality education is to be provided.

Models should therefore form the basis of decision-making over which policy to take on. Hudbton(1970) as cited by Swann and Prah (1999, p.42) indicated that policy-makers are bound not to follow the ideal process instead 'middle through' (try and error). Simon (1960) as cited by Swann and Prah (Ibid) advocated for policies reached through a rational policy-making, process employing 'new science of management decision'. Simon was supported by Dror (1968, 1981) who recommended an economically rational model' in which rational analysis in decision-making is reached only when the benefits outweigh the cost (Swann and Prah, Ibid).

3.3.6 Policy Implementation.

Personal experience in my country (Uganda) shows that quite a number of policies/programmes intended to shape the QE have been put in place but end up not implemented to the desired levels. The outcomes are not realized thus no impact of the policies/programmes. In fact, before a policy/programme is fully implemented and outcomes realized, then another policy/programme is put in place. For example, competency-based teaching, Customized Performance Targets (CPTs), Quality Enhancement Initiatives (CIE), Swahili teaching to mention but a few. Pressuman and Wildarsky's (1973) study as cited by Swann and Prah (Ibid) called this '*policy failure*' which was an outcome of many ambitious programmes adopted which in most cases

leave the situation worse off as if nothing had been done. The onus is on the policy analysts to help public decision-makers make better choices.

The concept of policy failure depicts existence of problems, which hinder successful implementation of particular policies. This shows a distraction between the policy making process, the result of which is a policy chosen and the implementation process, the outcome of which is the success or failure of the policy (Swan and Prah, p.43). Hogwood and Gunn (1984) as cited by Swann and Prah (Ibid), drew a difference between *non-implementation* – a policy is not put into effect as intended while in *unsuccessful implementation* – a policy is carried out in full but fails to produce the intended goals. These scenarios are attributing to bad policy. It implies therefore that a policy is a set of objectives implementable provided the pre-conditions necessary for them to be achieved are in place.

Attributed to policy failure are lack of time and resources to undertake a rigorous process to generate and analyze options, human limitations and feelings and organizational constraints or challenges. Hogwood and Gunn believed that the pre-conditions for successful policy are:

- (i) That the policy is based on a valid theory of cause and effect.
- (ii) The policy to be implemented is an appropriate means of achieving the policy makers' goal. In the absence of the two, then the policy failure is eminent.

At policy implementation level, monitoring and evaluation play a key role in determining the success or failure of policy. The agencies at lower levels- call them local agencies play a major role in shaping the context especially the interpretation process and the direction of services. It is in this view that Bruce (1994) asserts that:

Monitoring examines the extent to which local agencies actually implement official policies, assessment (a component of evaluation – is mine) evaluates how much implemented policies help the recipients, and regulation provide steps, procedures, and reporting mechanisms for implementing agencies to use (p.203).

Bruce (Ibid) further feels that policy innovations require continued attention of high level leaders (legislators, government agencies). His view is that:

High-level leadership to institute a monitoring process, which would include periodic visits, collection of data, and surveillance of a policy's implementation... (monitoring is not a panacea; a monitor might emphasize compliance with specific reporting requirements while barely examining whether agency staff were providing ethic-sensitive services to members of specific ethnic groups) (p.392).

SECTION D: DECENTRALIZATION.

3.4 Introduction.

This section gives a general overview of decentralization as a concept, its definition, models and components. It further gives a brief review of the component of education. Later it gives decentralization in the context of Uganda, its brief background, the model employed and the implementation strategy as related to primary education. The chapter ends with decentralization in different countries of the world in relation to education specifically.

3.4.1 Concept of Decentralization.

Decentralization as a policy reform is underway in every region of the developing world while many regions of the developed world have embraced it. In seventy eight (78) developed and developing countries is a concern (DFID, 2008, p.1). The constant and increasing use of the term decentralization is tagged to the way of managing the public sector in both the developed and developing countries (Smoke, 2003. Community involvement has occupied an increasingly important place within the concept of decentralization (Bray, 2001, 2003 as cited by Osei and Brock, (2006, p.438). Two, its promise to empowerment and bottom up change have helped to make decentralization a mantra in texts promoting good governance (Davies et al, 2003 as cited by Osei and Brock, 2006, p.438).

Decentralization is a broad and complex concept that needs clear global understanding; it is a gradual process that calls for patience and an appropriate legal framework. The policy reform varies from country to country in form of

implementation and legislation although principles are the same (USAID, 2005, p.3) thus generating controversies.

Mills (1990) described decentralization as:

The transfer of authority to plan, make decisions or manage public functions from the national level to any organization or agency at the sub-national levels (p.89)

While DFID (2008) defines decentralization as, “the transfer of authority and responsibility from the central to intermediate and local governments “ (p.1).

The two definition emphasize the transfer of power from the central governments to lower levels. Gibton and Goldring (2001) in their paper entitled the Role of Legislation in educational decentralization use an operational definition of decentralization to mean,

A shifting away from one uniform system of education and schooling, totally controlled and financed by a single, strong central authority to a system of institutional diversity where the control, financing and rendering of education is offered through multiple avenues and agencies (pp. 82 – 83).

Still, the element of transferring authority ,from the centre to lower agencies apply.

The Government of Ghana (GoG) in its attempt to adopt decentralization in education had the following to say:

Decentralization will be the major driving force in strengthening efficiency and accountability of resources and results. Basic education will be made accountable to local level authorities with development and operational responsibilities transferred from central government to the districts. Self-regulation mechanisms through school committees at grassroots level will be introduced (GOG, 2005, p.35).

The major element was transferring responsibilities from the centre to lower authorities.

Pellini (2005, p.205) in what he called the most basic definition of decentralization said, “It is the transfer of power from the centre to the local level”. However, he was not hesitant to add that, the guiding principle is that of subsidiary, whereby,

The most effective governance of any organization occurs when authority for decision-making is located as close as possible to the site of where the action takes place” (p.206 quoting McGinn & Welch, 1999, p.94).

Rondinelli (1981) defines decentralization as:

The transfer of responsibility for planning, management and the raising of and allocation of resources from the central government and its agencies to field units of central government ministries or agencies, subordinate units or levels of government, semi-autonomous public authorities or corporations, area wide regional or functional authorities or non-governmental private or voluntary organizations (p.137).

The definition looks at decentralization as the transfer of authority on a geographical or territorial basis by any model. So, it is simply the transfer of decision-making, power or about re-organizing local government in the local offices serving small geographical areas with the increased involvement of local people.

A functional definition of decentralization as put by Conyers (1986), is:

... the transfer of authority from central to peripheral organizations at the same level, for example, from a government department to a parastatal agency or quango (p.88).

Functions include permissive and obligatory ones. The core of functional decentralization is to redistribute real division of powers for decision making, responsibilities and administrative tasks from the national centre up to local peripheral areas (Prendas & Steeves, 1984, p.246, Rhodes, 1992, p.317). According to Mark, Bray (1999) as quoted by Tadashi (2006) say:

There are various types of decentralization and centralization. Among them is the distinction between functional decentralization/decentralization, which refers to a shift in distribution of control among different geographic tiers of government. Territorial decentralization may include deconcentration, delegation and devolution as major sub-categories (p.107).

Kiyaga – Nsubuga (2006, p.7) refer to decentralization as:

“the transfer of powers over decision-making and implementation to lower administrative levels for purposes of improving efficiency and effectiveness”.

In a similar tone, the GOU, (1994) regards decentralization as a policy instrument aimed at improving local democracy, effectiveness and sustainability in the delivery of services. Thus, defines decentralization as:

...a democratic reform which seeks to transfer political, administrative, financial and planning authority from centre to local government councils. It seeks to promote popular participation, empower local people to make their own decisions and enhance accountability and responsibility. It also aims at introducing efficiency and effectiveness in the generation and management of resources and the delivery of services (Decentralization Secretariat, p.17).

Generally speaking, all definitions agree that decentralization is the transfer of powers and responsibilities from the centre to lower local levels of administration for good governance. Pellini (2005, p.206) suggests the guiding principle. Thus,

The guiding principle is that of subsidiary, whereby the most effective governance of any organization occurs when authority for decision-making is located as close as possible to the site where the action takes place (McGinn & Welch, 1999, p.94). Decentralization is claimed to promote democracy and the establishment of more democratic institutions based on principles of good governance (Manor, 1999; Swiss Agency for Development and cooperation, 2001).

3.4.1.1 Models of Decentralization.

When looking at decentralization, it is necessary to distinguish models/forms of decentralization:

i). *Deconcentration*. Within this model, resources are merely delegated and re-allocated from central governments to a lower administrative unit (e.g. districts), but the final decision-making authority remains with the central government and local staff answer to their upstream superior. By definition therefore, it is:

... the handing over of some administrative authority or responsibility to lower levels within central government ministries and agencies – i.e. a shifting of workload from centrally located officials to staff or officers outside the national capital (& Rondine Cheema, [1983, p.19 – 25] as cited by Olum 2006).

In other words, functions are transferred to lower administrative units that are highly controlled from the centre. Functions include obligatory functions that the local governments must execute in a procedure that is precisely stipulated in the law or

directives given. So, staffs of higher units closely control the implementation of deconcentrated functions.

Deconcentration calls for two broad systems or types, *prefectorial* and *functional* systems.

(a) Prefectorial – This has two sub-systems – the integrated prefectorial system and the un-integrated prefectorial system. In the former, a representative of the centre a prefect, is sent in the regions to supervise the local governments and other field officers of the centre. The prefect is embodying, is seen as the authority of all ministries as well as the government in general and is the main channel of communication between the technical field staff and the capital (Smith, 1967, p.45). so, prefects are the supervisors of field officers and examples are seen in the French Departmental Prefects and Indian collectors or District Commissioners (DCs) (Maddick, 1990). This was the case in Uganda when the governance system was centralized.

In the latter, the prefect is one of the several channels of communication with the centre. The prefect is not superior to and neither does (s)he coordinate other field officers. So, prefects only supervise local governments. Examples of this are seen in the Italian system and the District Officer in Nigeria (Smith, 1967, p.46).

However, in both integrated and un-integrated systems, deconcentration is an extended area of central government units.

(b) Functional – In the functional sub-system, field officers belong to district functional hierarchies. The administration of the many policy areas is separate with no general regional coordinator, coordination is at the centre.

ii). *Delegation*. In this type, lower units may be granted some relative discretion in managing defined responsibilities, while still reporting to the centre (semi-autonomous authorities).

Rondinelli and Cheema (1983) as quoted by Olum (2006)

...the transfer (delegation) of decision making and management authority for specific functions to organizations that are not under the direct control of central government ministries (p.20).

In delegation therefore, the responsibility to manage specifically defined functions is transferred to organizations outside the regular bureaucratic structure. Thus, a sovereign authority transfers specified functions and duties to an agent with discretion to execute. These agents could be public corporations, semi-autonomous implementing agencies, parastatal bodies, special function authorities, quangos (quasi-autonomous non-governmental organizations) and non-departmental public bodies.

iii). *Devolution.* Here political functions are transferred (devolved) to lower level and decisions are made locally with regard to staffing and budgeting allocations (relinquishing political power). Smith (1985) defines devolution as:

The exercise of political authority by lay, primarily elected, institutions within areas defined by community characteristics through the legal conferment or powers upon formally constituted local authority to discharge specified or residual functions (p.11)

In the same effort, Barkan and Chege (1989) define devolution as:

... decentralization that provides for meaningful participation by the local people in the decision making process ... it requires central officials to transfer a measure of their authority to local institutions that they do not, or only partly, control (p.433).

Thus, the devolved units are autonomous, independent and are separate levels of governments over which the central government has little or no direct control (Mutahaba, 1989, pp.69-7; Rondinelli & Cheema, 1983, p.22 as cited by Olum).

The focus for devolution is decentralization (transfer) of political authority and power to local or regional governments outside the command structure of central governments. Thus, creation of various structures within the political system (Hyden, 1983, p.85). The role of the centre is largely restricted to policy formulation, monitoring and supervision. Division of powers and responsibilities is defined by a legal framework.

Down word accountability characterizes this model of decentralization which lacks in the other two.

iv). *Privatization*. Finally, privatization. Rondinelliet al (1984) as cited by Colin,(2005, p.167), refers to it as the final stage and climax of decentralization.

It is worth noting at this point, that the models are categorized under two main divisions – *Territorial decentralization* and *Functional decentralization*. Deconcentration and devolution are under territorial decentralization while delegation is under the latter (Olum, 2006, p.3).

Decentralization is a change in the distribution and transfer of power to local governments. For this transfer to achieve its objectives, it has to allow local governments to have greater say and responsibilities in order to be accountable to their citizens for their services delivered. The citizens should also hold central governments responsible for whatever it does after the transferred powers.

3.4.1.2 Components of Decentralization.

Decentralization encompasses components of:

i). *Political decentralization* – the transfer of functions or authority from central levels of government to local institutions that are governed by local political representation.

According to Pellini (2005, p.206), political decentralization takes place when,

Citizens and their elected representatives are involved in public decision-making and contribute to the creation of spaces for participation that can enable and encourage citizensmobilization (Litvack et al, 1988 as cited by Pellini).

These spaces, according to Cornwall (2002, p.51), are “Sites in which different actors, knowledge and interest interact and in which room can be for alternatives but from which some people and ideas can also remain excluded”.

Two categories of space are identified and distinguished -Transient spaces and Institutionalized spaces (Cornwall, 2002).

Transient spaces – these lack official recognition from government but act to support schools (institutions - is mine) through self help initiatives and school associations. They are the result of pressure or initiative from bottom to participate in the development activities (Pellini, 2005, p.206)

To Cornwall, (2002) these are traditional forms of participation. In the context of Ugandan primary schooling, these are Parent – Teacher Associations (PTAs) or Old Students' Associations, which are not recognized by law but are active in the development of schools. They supplement government's effort in putting up infrastructures in the schools. These are voluntary bodies.

Institutionalized spaces – these are included in the institutional design of policies and reforms and in the case of decentralization, aim to link citizens with the local government (Ibid, p.207).

Cornwall (2002) calls these, modern forms of participation. Likewise, in the context of primary education in Uganda, these are SMCs, NGOs and CBOs which are charged with the planning, budgeting and general development of the schools. They are supposed to link the schools with communities and parents through the PTAs and also link with local governments and administrative units stated in the law (Local Government Act, 1997). These bodies are statutory bodies – they exist by law (Education Act, 2008).

ii). *Administrative decentralization* – the de-linking of local authority staff from their respective (mother) and bringing them under the control of the local authority, which includes procedures for establishing a local payroll.

iii). *Fiscal decentralization* – the transfer of functions or authority from the central levels of government to local institutions regarding local decisions making on the allocation of financial resources (financial discretionary power) and the power to levy local taxes.

iv). *Education decentralization* – this falls into two types

- a) the devolution of service delivery responsibilities from national to local or regional governments and
- b) the delegation of many service delivery decisions and functions to the level of the school (USAID, 2005, p.1).

Another form of education decentralization is *school clustering*. A cluster is normally composed of five to six schools with a core school as the centre responsible for administration of cluster activities. School clustering was first plotted in Thailand in 1950s (first wave) and then in the 1980s in Latin America and East Asia because limited human and financial resources and high population growth rates retarded improvement of educational quality. In 1990s (second wave), happened in Cambodia, Laos and Vietnam to give support to more localized decision – making (Pellini, 2005, p.207). School clustering according to Brandenburg and Dahal (2000, p.1), is defined as “a process of organizing geographically contiguous schools into a mutual support network”. It is against this background that Pellini (2005) adds:

... can be considered a delivery mechanism for quality improvement and community involvement in decision making processes. As a delivery mechanism, school clusters represent an extended arm of the provincial or district education offices that implement deconcentrated administrative tasks. As a mechanism of participation, clusters depend on the capacity of the school head-teacher, the commitment of communities, families, and institutional set-up that regulates the interaction with communities. Within the cluster there are committees and groups that can be either transient institutions to support a certain project or more institutionalized bodies that are part of its organizational fabric. These may be responsible for monitoring the progress of individual schools, collection of additional contributions from communities and supervision of teachers and school personnel (p.207).

A similar arrangement (Clustering) is seen in Uganda but with different set-up and administered differently. Schools between ten and twenty or more are clustered into Coordinating Centres (CCs) with a Coordinating Centre Tutor (CCT) in charge of each cc. The CCT is based at a Coordinating Centre School (CCS) which serves as the headquarters of the cluster within the catchment area. The major work of the CCT is to mentor teachers within the cluster and mobilize communities into involvement of education.

However, these CCSs are attached to Core Primary Teachers Colleges (CPTCs) who directly report to the central government. Much as these CCTs are based in the districts, they are not under the decentralization set up. That is, they are not answerable to local governments. They just collaborate with the local governments.

Decentralization in education has occurred with a view of improving student outcomes and the effectiveness of the school systems in both developed and developing countries as well as in Western style democracies and even in former soviet block countries '(Langlo, 1995; Rhoten, 2000; Ribot, 2002; Bray, 2001; Rozman, 2002; as cited by Osei and Brock, 2006, pp.437 – 438).

Looking at both components and forms of decentralization, decentralization is both a political and a technical process. As a political process, it involves leadership, participation, representation, decision-making, inclusion and power relation between the central and local governments and among local governments themselves. As a technical process, it involves planning, budgeting, administration, financial and human resources management and development, monitoring and evaluation, supervision, monitoring and inspection, which are activities and functions, carried out by the technocrats (Kiyaga Nsubuga, 2006, p.7).

Further, Ayres (2001) as cited by Pellini (2005, p.208) asserts that "A central element of good governance is decentralization". Shoka (2000) gives the main goals of the policy (decentralization) as to:

Promote democracy, good governance and equity of life, give ordinary people greater opportunities to determine their future and encourage greater and sustainable development, especially the delivery of basic services (as cited by Pellini, 2005, p.208)

3.4.2 Decentralization of Education.

Kandel Isaac (1933, 1954) in his post-war comparative texts of education, contrasted centralized and decentralized process of decision-making. France, at that time had a centralized system of administration and the USA and UK had decentralized

systems. In his comparison of two systems, he was in favour of decentralized administrations on the basis that they more easily embraced change and that decisions made locally would be more relevant to the day-to-day operation of individual institutions. Since that time, his dimension of centralization/decentralization has remained an important focus for comparative analysis of educational systems (Turner, 2004, p.349).

However, his belief was that systems are unlikely to be purely centralized or purely decentralized. Kandel further analyzed the education system and distinguished.

Between those aspects of the education system, which were internal to the classroom, and its operation, which he described interna, and those, which were external to the classroom process externa. Interna included such aspects of education as the curriculum and teaching methods while externa comprised aspects of the maintenance of school buildings, furniture and administration (Ibid).

In Kandels' view, the interna were subject to decisions at local level or at individual institutional level (decentralized) while the externa were appropriate to decisions made at the centre – ministry of education (centralized). It is this view that Turner (Opcit) asserted that.

Decision-making which is remote from the day-to-day operation of the system is likely to place resources where they have less than optimal effect. That is to say, centralized decision-making cannot always directly address problems as they are experienced in individual institutions.

Gibton and Goldring (2001) in their contextual meaning of decentralization, they use the term (decentralization) to mean:

A shifting away from one uniform system of education and schooling, totally controlled and financed by a single, strong central authority, to a system of institutional diversity where the control, financing and rendering of education is offered through multiple avenues and agencies (p.83)

3.4.3 Decentralization : Uganda Context.

As earlier indicated in chapter 2, subsection 2.1.2 (Policy Issues), the genesis of decentralization in Uganda is traced way back in 1942 when the Education Ordinance of 1942 stipulated that, "local governments should be in charge of primary schools in the

areas". To me, this marked the beginning of decentralization especially with primary education. This was during the colonial era – before independence. Since then, the trend has never changed.

After achieving independence (1962), the post independence government faced challenges in delivery of social services. This was due to the fact that functions of the central government became increasingly inefficient, ineffective and inflexible (Tindagarukayo, 1988 as cited by Olum, 2006, p.2). This problem emanated from the 1967 Republican Constitution that was put in place after the abrogation of the 1962 Independence Constitution. The constitution (1962) had devolved considerable powers to local authorities and granted them sufficient revenues to offer social services. A similar trend of service delivery through the military government of Idi Amin and the governments that came later, after the fall of Idi Amin, continued.

As a result of the above scenario, soon after the National Resistance Movement/National Resistance Army (NRA/NRM) usurped power on 26th January 1986, it embarked on the process of decentralization in local governance to promote and uphold democratic participation through a system of elected local councils (LCs) – LC.I through LC.5 to National Resistance Council (NRC) which served as parliament at that time until the 1995 constitution was made.

In 1993, a Decentralization secretariat (at the Ministry of Local Government [MoLG] was established to oversee and spearhead the establishment of decentralization policy in the country. Its success is seen in the inclusion of decentralization as constitutional system of governance for Uganda in the 1995 constitution, Clause 2, subsection (b) of Article 176 states;

Decentralization shall be principle applying to all levels of local government and in particular, from higher to lower local government units to ensure peoples' participation and democratic control in decision making (GOU, 1995, p.256).

Uganda chose a policy of decentralization by devolution (MoLG, 1994, p.6). this refers to the model of decentralization (see sub-section 3.4.1 above) whereby political

functions and related staff and financial resources are transferred (devolved) to levels of government below central government (Ibid p.7). According to Kiyaga-Nsubuga (2006, p.7), “devolution relies significantly on citizen participations in decision making to improve efficiency and effectiveness and therefore, citizen improvement is critical to its success”.

Further, Kiyaga – Nsubuga (Ibid) noted that:

Under devolution, lower levels are given substantial control over decision making and implementation, with the centre largely restricted to policy setting, monitoring and supervision The division of powers and responsibilities is defined in a legal framework and the units to which power has been devolved are subjected to control by the local beneficiaries.

In an effort to fulfill what Kiyaga – Nsubuga in the fore going citation, commented, the GOU (1997) enacted Local Government Act, 1997 which provided for the implementation of the decentralization strategy in the districts. The purpose of the act was:

...to amend, consolidate and streamline the existing law on local government in line with the constitution to give powers and services; and to provide for decentralization at all levels of local government to ensure good governance and democratic participation in, and control of, decision making by the people ..(GOU, 1997, p.9).

The Local Government Act, stipulated the roles and functions of the structures of the local governments. The day – to – day activities to be carried out by the local councils, and how the departments at local governments are to relate with the line ministries at the centre. Belatedly, in the context of primary education, this meant that from the district level (Local Council [LC]V) to sub-county level (LC.III) – the local government units (see the illustration below) – primary education was to be managed by elected representatives from the respective communities. Both strategies and operational plans for primary education are developed and implemented by LC.Vs with a greater percentage of funding from the centre under conditional grants in terms of; teacher salaries, Universal Primary Education (UPE) capitalization grant – which run day-to-day activities in schools; School Facilities Grant (SFG) – for construction of classrooms, toilets and provision of seats; procurement of Instructional Materials (formerly known as DIMP – Decentralized Instructional Materials Procurement but now

re-centralized under the HYBRID Procurement Guidelines); and of recent monitoring (Inspection) funds. Then, districts under their local revenue collections are expected to fund the education departments' day-to-day activities, a responsibility they have failed to fulfill.

At LC.IIIs (Sub-counties), they are equally to develop and implement both strategic and operational plans, which later feed the planning process at the district level. Some of the funding at the LC.III is from the district (disbursed to LC.III direct to tenderers) under the conditional grants. Equally, LC.IIIs are expected to fund primary education activities and functions from their local revenues.

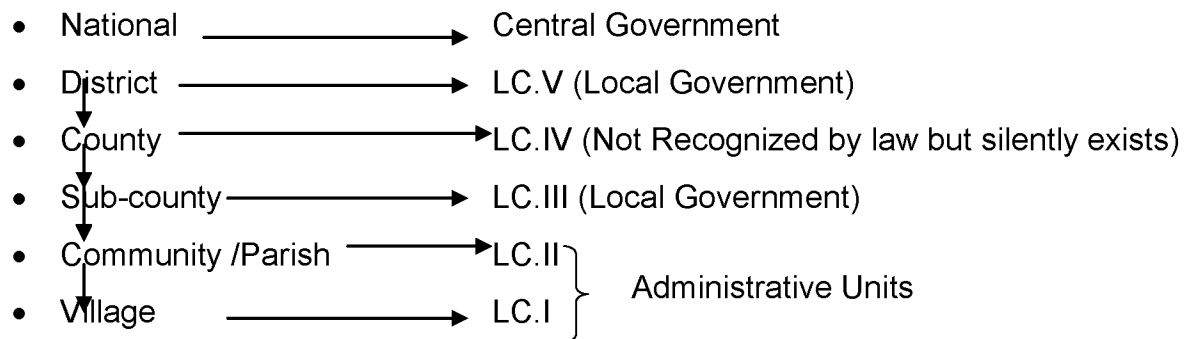
At both levels, the centre sends in Local Government Development Programme (LGDP) funds and equalization funds to assist in covering up development gaps in all sectors.

LCs take a leading role in the day-to-day management of primary education such as in teaching, use of funds, usage of instructional materials and parental participation or community involvement in education. This is mainly through their membership to the School Management Committee (SMCs) – statutory bodies to oversee the management of primary schools, discipline of both teachers and learners, to plan for school developments; budget for schools; monitor the teaching and learning process; and mobilize parents. The members of SMCs are drawn from both Local Governments (LC.V and LC.III) and Administrative Units (LCs IIs and LC.Is).

For the planning, budgeting and management of primary education, a sectoral committee for social services (i.e. Education and Health) spearheads these functions with the assistance of technocrats. This replaced the District Education Committee (DEC) under the Education Act 1970 and the 1962 and 1967 Constitutions. At LC.III, there is also a similar committee to handle the same functions.

It is at district level that primary teachers are recruited and appointed by the District Service Commission (DSC) but salaries are paid by the central government so are the retirement benefits. Thus, the payroll is controlled at the centre not at the district. The only district in Uganda that piloted a decentralized payroll was Rakai but later the

centre withdrew the payroll citing the challenges and disadvantages of the system. Mismanagement of the payroll featured prominently.



N.B. Town Councils are equivalent to sub-county (LC.III) while Municipalities are local governments divided into divisions also equivalent to sub-counties.

All LCs are composed of elected council members who oversee the service delivery assisted by the technocrats. The Local Government Act (GOU, 1997) Article 117 Clause (1) subsection (a) and (b) states that;

A person is qualified to be a member of a district or city council other than the chairperson if that person

(a) is a citizen of Uganda

(b) is a registered voter (p.79).

Both the constitution and decentralization legislations are silent about any need for educational requirements for councillors at any level of Local Governments and Administrative Units. Given the central role these councils play in primary school decision making, this presents a possible challenge for the QA of primary schooling.

3.4.4 Decentralization : Other Contexts.

This section deals with decentralization in other countries of the world and will concentrate mainly on decentralization in education. This is against the background that each country is unique in its approach to education and educational policy making, although there are themes countries have in common.

3.4.4.1 The United Kingdom.

Since 1980, the successive governments in the UK have adopted policy position similar to that of Kandel's but with one major difference that:

By decentralizing decision-making and placing responsibility for important policy matters at the level of the individual institution, decisions could be made more efficiently and in a way related to the local conditions experienced within those institutions (Turner, 2004, p.349).

The above feeling, together with a free-market model attached to consumer-protection regulations, led the government to introduce reforms that decentralized decisions concerning finance and external centralizing decisions related to curriculum and teaching methods (internal). The exact inverse of Kande's proposed pattern.

The 1988 Education Reform Act centralized curriculum decision making at the primary and secondary sectors and decentralized financial issue to schools. The 1992 Further and Higher Education Act, allowed financial autonomy to institutions in the higher education sector and established a body to manage curriculum issues at that level. The government in this context, offered schools the opportunity to "opt out" meaning becoming a "*Grant Maintained (GM) schools* – To this effect, schools gained financial and organizational autonomy and freed themselves from Municipal, local educational autonomy and control. The schools that gained GM status required government approval. Along this approval, government introduced compulsory national curriculum that impose content and methods on the autonomous schools (centralized functions).

Another significant feature of educational markets was the use of quangos to work as market regulators. Their main charge was to translate the broad government policy into detailed systems of regulation. The quangos were mainly three:

- a) One to set appropriate standards against which the operations of institutions would be assessed and evaluated.
- b) The second one, to manage the inspection of institutions and to arrive at decisions as to how institutions were performing against the standards.
- c) The last one, to publish information relating to performance, which could be used by customers in making informed customer, decisions (Turner, 2004, 9.350).

However, in some cases responsibilities were combined within the operations of a single quango. Like in the higher education sector, the Quality Assurance Agency (QAA) combines functions of standards setting and inspection.

The Office for Standards in Education (OFSTED) for example is a powerful centralized mechanism for schools inspection and grading established in 1993. Once in every four (4) years, it thoroughly inspects each school using a team of experts. With the enactment of the 1998 Standards and Framework Act (SSFA), OFSTED, has powers to place schools on “special measures” (the educational equivalent of appointing an official receiver to a liquidated company) and to the extent of replacing the head-teacher with an OFSTED appointed “Super head” for a limited time (Gibton and Goldring, 2001), p.93).

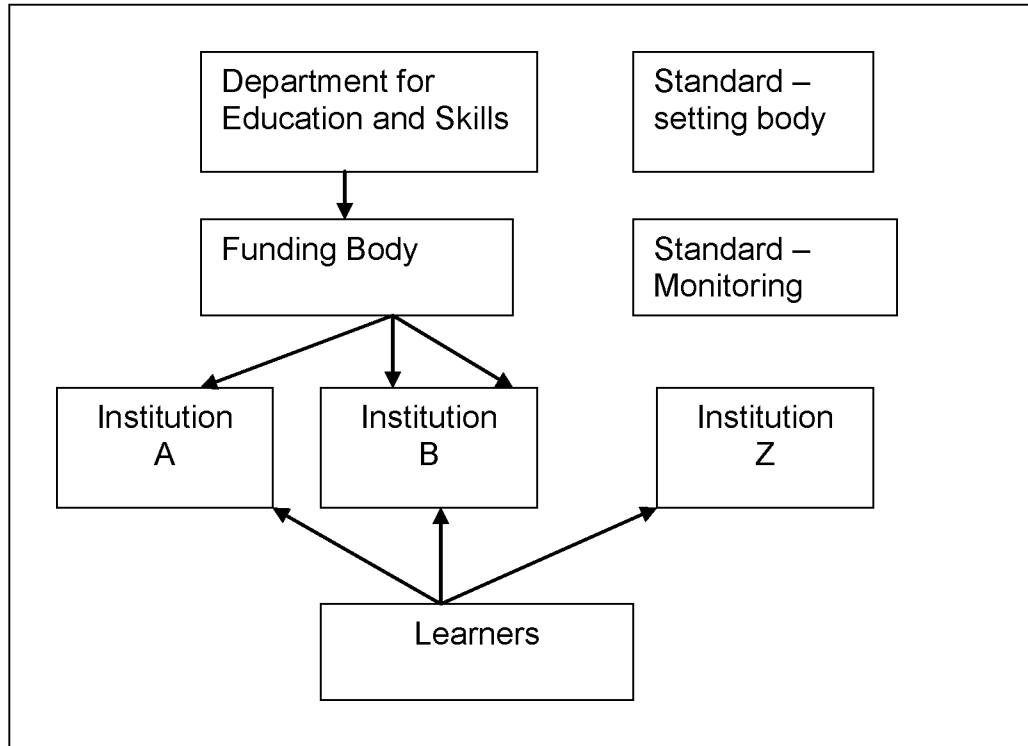
Possibly, the final policy, Innovation of Performance Management and Threshold Assessment (2000) began to handle the teacher salary scheme. This, seem to be the latest stage of educational decentralization. The policy, allows principals to allocate large sums of money to some teachers basing on partly government – based and partly school-based criteria. This policy has forced schools to establish detailed assessment procedures to monitor teachers’ work (Ibid, 94).

The resultant outcome of the reforms is the implementation of a similar pattern of education management in the UK with minor variations in the way the system works in practice at different levels and in the different home countries of Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland and England. It is in this effort that the:

The Central Government allocates resources to the education system and sets out the broad outlines of policy. It passes these resources and policy directives to an agency (quango – is mine) at the same time as creating a legal framework of responsibilities within which that agency is required to ensure that the broad demands of policy are met. This agency passes resources on to individual institutions based on the number of customers for whom educational services are being provided. At the same time, the funding agency, contracts market regulators in the forms of standard setters and inspectors to ensure that its legal responsibilities for the maintenance of quality are met (Turner, 2004, p.351).

The quotation above sums up the decentralization process of education in the UK and the figure below supplements.

Figure 8: Quasi-Market Organization of education in the United Kingdom.



Source: David Turner (2004), Privatization, Decentralization and Education in the UK.

All the reforms have been established and achieved through legislation. Britain, probably has the most legislation – based decentralization reform among English – speaking countries, if not in the world (Ford, Hughes & Ruebain, 1999 as cited by Gibton and Goldring, 2001, p.91).

3.4.4.2 Israel.

The Israel's school system experienced extensive decentralization processes in the 1980s and 1990s. thus, it has been transformed from one that was solely government owned, financed and controlled to one where a number of groups and organizations fund and run schools (Gibton and Goldring, 2001, p.84).

Originally two main government – supported streams of schooling existed – state public secular schools and state religious schools. Every township has both schools and parents choose basing on their inclinations. The stated owned schools were established by the 1953 National Education Law, which consolidated several semi-privates and politically oriented schools into a one national system (8-year primary and 4-year secondary [elitist]).

This created a national curriculum and a national teacher workforce (most of whom) employed by government. This arrangement had a life span from 1950s to 1970s (late).

Following a parliamentary committee report in 1968, junior high schools were introduced as a way of boosting secondary education and to foster school integration. This was against the background that, the Jewish immigrants grants to Israel from different countries had brought in diversity within the Jewish population. Therefore, there was need to create schools with an ethnic mix of students from high and low socio-economic backgrounds. The goals of these reforms were achieved and early 90% of Israel learners study for 13years including one year of pre-school (Ibid, p.85). this reform which required new curricula teaching methods for heterogeneous classes and teacher training was centrally managed to promote uniformity in the system and homogenizing educational inputs and outputs. These centralized arrangements characterized the education system through the 1980s and 1990s.

The centralized procedures were replaced by a decentralized process that has resulted into the present system characterized by a number of alternative schools that have emerged into a totally unplanned and unfocused manner. This is seen in the centralized Ministry of Education's lifting its powers from completely controlling the educational system. The genesis of this emanated from the time school principals were allowed to appropriate honours received from the Ministry to meet local schools' needs (Ibid, p 85-86). It is in this effort that Gibton and Goldring (2001) further elaborate.

Principal were also free to finance educational programs and equipment from the ministry's allotment of teaching hours. Other alternative schools began as government initiatives or projects within the state supported school system, which then took on a momentum of their own. For example, there is a whole network of "autonomous" or "self-managed" schools that define and declare their own goals and visions and implement their instructional programs. For instance, self-managed schools, now already 700 in number, developed in less than 6 years (Vollansky & Bar-Elli, 1995). Other alternative schools emerged as a result of demands or ideas or even struggles of specific communities and religious or ideological groups that wanted schools to meet their specific needs (p.86).

This explanation clears the understanding that different schools have different sources of funding and different institutional management system dictated upon by the founding body.

Government recognizes these schools and are all financed and supported although not entirely and not necessarily to the same extent. These schools were established, exist and prosper without any changes in the primary education legislation. This implies that, the whole process of decentralization in the country has no any legal foundation. What has prompted decentralization in Israel's school system is too way:- cultural, political and financial organizational (Ibid, p.87).

In addition, the two major reasons for the decentralization process in Israel, are:

- i) Socio political struggle between mainstream groups in the society and marginalized or excluded groups.
- ii) As Israeli society becomes more diverse and complex, many elite and mainstream groups wish to resegment the system to continue to allow for the reproduction of their own social capital and status of power (Ibid, p.88).

These two factors, have characterized the public concern and debate on issues as the separation of church and state, the growing influence of Islamism factions among the Arab-Israeli population, the call to separate co-education schools and advancement of intense religious education (Ibid, p.87). It is in this effort that Jews from Middle – Eastern origins are demanding for a more traditional and religious curriculum while left-

wing, social-justice-oriented Jews are in for a curriculum that is influenced by trends in multicultural and minority education similar to that in the USA (op cit)

The divergent views have resulted into different sources of funding education. Likewise, school finance sources are not based on any legislation other than the yearly budget laws. The sources of funding are basically from:-

i) Ministry of Education allocates funds to every child based on standard criteria – type of school and age of learners (primary, junior, high), type of education (regular or special) and a formula based on the Socio-economic Status (SES) of the learners.

ii). Ministry of Education initiated “projects” – projects such as science education, numeracy and literacy. It is often allocated through bids and contracts. This is government’s attempt to involve schools in specific organizational technological, curricular or professional reforms as initiated by the ministry. This funding has formed half of the Ministry’s surplus budget after paying per pupil money, state employed teachers’ salaries and building maintenance. The purposes of this funding are:-

- a) Concentrate efforts in the educational system on specific issues e.g. science education.
- b) To receive increased budget allocations from government moneys with a view of contributing to actual development academic excellence.
- c) To weaken the influence of the ministry’s regional headquarters because of their accumulated considerable powers in many areas of educational policy. This is because; the education system has decentralized in an unplanned and unregulated manner. Therefore, the Central Ministry of Education cleverly avoids regional headquarters by funding projects and allowing the projects to reach directly into schools.
- d) To turn the planning department of the Ministry of Education into an operational division that does actual interventions inside schools.

Alongside this funding, is specific funding to groups of like- schools, – religious, autonomous and open schools.

ii) Municipal money from local municipal taxes. By budget laws, it is not supposed to be diverted to education other than road building, sewage and public parks. But, of recent (10years back), funding education from municipal tax has yielded results in terms of soliciting votes. As teachers' salaries and buildings are financed by the central government, municipalities funding has targeted computer technology, air conditioning and reducing class size below the government standard of 40 learners. This back-door funding has introduced and operates a highly unequal public education.

iii). Money that schools raise by themselves. This is through renting out school space to companies to advertise within school buildings or in school documents or community centres or colleges renting classrooms or laboratories for use in the evenings.

iv). Money from individual parents or parents related trust funds
(Gibton & Golding, 2001, pp.88 – 90)

In conclusion, Gibton & Goldring (Ibid, p.90) assert that without legislation, the Israel decentralization process is chaotic, rough and stormy. Municipal authorities, interest groups, political parties and ministry departments themselves battle over who controls education and at the same time attempt to pass on the responsibility for the results produced by the system.

3.4.4.3 Cambodia.

In its effort to bring prosperity after damages caused by two decades of civil war and the Khmer Rouge regime, the Royal Government of Cambodia embarked on decentralization reforms with the election of commune councils in 2002. These councils have initiated a major change in the traditional hierarchical structure of society – the

chance for increased citizen participation in local decision-making processes (Pellin, 2005, p.205). The reform took distinctive forms; political decentralization where communes represented new democratically elected local government; and deconcentration, where central government functions and services were assigned to appointed officials at provincial, district and commune levels (Ayres, 2001). The Ministry of Education (MoE) was also involved in the decentralization process, probably more than any other Ministry as Losert (2004) puts it. In 1992, the Royal Government, created space for community participation in Cambodian schools through the Cluster school system strategy. However, since early 1990s a number of policies have been put in place to devolve more decision making autonomy to schools. The preparation of the;

- i) Education strategic plan 2004 – 2008,
- ii) Education Sector Support Programme 2002 – 2008;
- iii) Education for All National Plan 2003 – 2015; and
- iv) Priority Action Programme.

All have successfully provided budgets to individual schools while considering community input in the utilization of funds (Pellini, 2005, p.208).

The decentralization process of education, which commenced with the clustering of schools, was an indication that the Royal Government was aware of the need to modernize education (Ayres 2000 as cited by Pellini, 2005). This further reflected the Western democratic values and attaching importance to community participation in the local decision-making processes. The MoE defines the cluster school system as;

An organizational means of coordinating central government support, strengthening school management, managing scarce school resources, increasing capacity of local staff and enhancing teaching and learning (Ibid).

The school clustering was first piloted in a few provinces between 1992 and 1995 by Redd Barna (Save the Children Norway) and UNICEF. In 1993, a National cluster school committee was adopted as a National Policy and implemented through the provincial education offices. Similar interventions saw the creation of provincial, district and local school cluster councils, cluster libraries and resource centres. The policy implementation occurred in three phases.

Phase 1: Cautious optimism – after piloting, the policy was implemented and management by the MoE and clusters did not achieve a high degree of autonomy.

Phase 2: Rapid expansion and stalled evolution – lasting until 1998 – donors suspended general funding and opted for grants released to individual schools.

Phase 3: Project design convergence – lasting until 2001 – was characterized by alignment with the decentralization reforms through commune councils but with a tendency of providing operational budget directly to schools instead of clusters.

By 2005, 95% of primary schools were divided into 760 clusters country wide, although 43% of them received direct support from various donors. Each cluster is organized around a local cluster council composed of:

- i) A senior village leader
- ii) The commune council chief
- iii) The local school leaders

Their charges are to:

- a) Assist in the development and implementation of all the schools' plans in the cluster.
- b) Liaise with local authorities and communities to involve them with school functioning and coordinate with the district education office (Bredenberg, 2002, Losert, 2004, as cited by Pellini, 2005, pp. 208-209)

Although, school clustering has been a strategy for a number of countries to improve education delivery it has challenges and problems. In view of this, Bredenberg and Dahal (2000), basing on experiences of other South Eastern Asian countries and personal involvement for a number of years in Cambodia, have suggested the following pre-conditions that can provide successful policy implementation.

Policy commitment (will – is mine) to decentralized management of schools; a reasonable transportation and communication network; a reasonable level of population density; a previously existing culture of cooperation and/or mutual support; sufficient personnel in schools; appointments based on merit and not affiliation, and availability of locally generated resources or state support (Pellini, 2005, p.209).

However, because of implementing the reforms (school cluster and decentralization), changes in the local governance environment and creating new spaces of participation have occurred. The communities have shown a deep understanding of the importance of education although the government spending on education is increasing, communities have extended substantial material contributions to the improvement of schools. Important to note is that, although reforms brought new ideas of people's participation in decision making processes, social relationships are ruled by hierarchy (Ibid, p.214).

3.4.4.4 Indonesia and Ghana.

i). Indonesia.

Indonesia was regarded as one of the highly centralized nations in Asia. But, in the last decades of the 20th century it changed its course of governance and embarked on legislations designed to provide increased authority to sub-national levels (Machie & MacInyre, 1994; Malley, 1999 as cited by Bjork, 2004, p.246). All government sectors were affected by the move towards decentralization. The world bank labeled this move a "make or break issue" for the country (Schwarz 2009; 10,6 as cited by Bjork, 2004, p.247).

Given the highly centralized, top down set up of Indonesian government, the move to redistribute authority to local levels depicted a significant departure from the former practice. This move had far-reaching implications to the way the education had to be organized and provided in the country. The monopoly of the Ministry of Education and Culture (MEC) over the schools had to be dismantled. The local educators were given unprecedented authority over the curriculum, financial matters and school practice (Bjork, 2004, p.247). One of the reforms in focus was the Local Content Curriculum (LCC). The reform was launched at a national Scale in 1994.

The LCC required all elementary and junior secondary schools to allocate 20% of all instructions to locally developed subject matter (Bjork, 2004, p.247). This meant that, all elementary and junior secondary schools whether public or private were asked to

develop locally relevant courses that would “provide students with an understanding of their local culture, basic life skills and an introduction to income producing skills” (UNDP/UNESCO/ILO, 1994 as cited by Bjork, 2004). In this effort, the MEC urged schools in an area full of tourist attractions could decide to offer instructions in tourism, while another institution located in a rural agricultural based area, could develop a course in agriculture.

Back in Uganda, this was similar to a project that was developed in the early 1980s called “Basic Education for National Development (BEND)” to address similar objectives as the LCC was meant to provide. However, it failed and objectives were not achieved.

Important to note is that, the authority to design LCC and its implementation was at school level. By implication, this created diversity in courses and content unique to each area, which implied that national examination system had to be abandoned in this area as the case was in China during Cultural Revolution when the entire education was decentralized to lower levels (Decentralization, 2006). Classroom teachers were charged with responsibilities previously not existing in Indonesia. Individuals working at all levels of the education system stressed the value of creating close links between curriculum and local needs.

The thinking of the Indonesian government towards this move (LCC) was that the programme would convince students to stay in schools longer. Secondly, was to enhance the appeal of junior secondary education and to prevent students who in the past might have opted for vocational education from dropping out prior to junior high school graduation (Bjork, 2004, p.251).

ii). Ghana.

Like Indonesia, Ghana was too regarded as one of the most highly centralized countries in Africa (Eghant Odum, 1989; Mankoe, 1992; Akukwe, 2001; Chapman et al, 2002; Mfum – Mensah, 2004 as cited by Osei & Brock, 2006, p.437). The course changed in the last two decades of the 20th century and designed legislations intended to accord increased authority to sub-national levels.

In 1988, the Local Government Law (PNDCL 207) gave sweeping political powers and revenue collecting rights to districts and municipalities beginning 1989(Osei & Brock, 2006, p.437). The planned strategy towards decentralization was evident with the establishment of regional and divisional structures decentralized further to district levels in 1994 (Akukwe, 2001 as quoted by Osei & Brock, 2006, p.441). The form of decentralization adopted in Ghana was deconcentration as Bray (2003) put in (Ibid). Local councils have had no autonomous sources of revenue and they are generally administrative implementing bodies of policies determined at the centre (Parker & Serrano as cited by Osei & Brock, 2006, p.441).

The government is reluctant to re-distribute its functions to local councils, resulting in slow progress although there are no plans to halt the decentralization process (Chapman et al 2002; Mfum, Mensah, 2004 as cited by Osei Brock, 2006, p.441).

Within the education sector the central government has retained the control over policy formulation and budgeting with some geographical delegation of state authority in terms of recruiting, deploying and paying teachers. That is, districts took increased control over primary and secondary schooling although private schools are not mentioned within their intended responsibilities (Teltey – Enyo, 1999 as cited by Osei & Brock 2006, p.441). However, districts have been faced with resource and capacity constraints to take on responsibilities expected of them. Committees too, have viewed their responsibilities as an increased burden since the major emphasis was put on resource mobilization in view of government financial constraints (Mfum – Mensah, 2004 as cited by Osei & Brock, 2006, p.442).

3.4.4.5 Serbia and the Russian Far East.

Before the collapse of the USSR in 1991, the main goal of the Soviet Education System was to develop the human resources considered appropriate for the construction of the communist society. This was based on Marxism – Leninism

ideologies under a centralized education administration in close relation with the communist party (Tadashi, 2003, p.99)

With the economic crisis of the 1980s, it was eminent that the education in the USSR was not meeting the needs of changes in society. This was a result of uniformity and inflexibility of the education system. Consequently, this called for reforms.

In 1988, at the plenary meeting of the Central Committee of the Soviet Communist Party, Slogans that included democratization, humanization, humanitarization, and diversification, development of individual character and creation of lifelong education system were presented as fundamental components of the perestroika (reconstruction) policy on education, and determined the direction for educational reform (Ibid, pp. 99-100). The year, 1990, saw a framework of the reforms described in a revised draft of the Basic Law on Public Education. This emphasized a number of principles of education based on democracy and humanism rather than educational ideologies based on Marxism – Leninism and the regulations of communist education. The main concepts of the draft were developed in the education policy of the new Russian Federation after the collapse of USSR.

The Russian Federation discarded socialism and started building a new education system based on the goal of constructing a Western – European – Style market economy and democratic society. The reform took into account the needs of individuals and groups through decentralization, deregulation and specialization (Ibid).

During the Soviet regime, education was governed by laws and decrees which worked in a hierarchy starting with Respublik (Republic) at the top, Oblast (state), Krai (County), Gorad (city), Raion (District) and Okrug (Ward). Local Governments had to implement the education policies set at higher levels and to adhere to the standards set by the Soviet government with appropriate adaptation to local conditions. Local governments had to faithfully obey the policies so made because of their connectivity to the Soviet Communist Party.

The Russian Federation, instead, aimed at establishing local autonomy in education in the new administrative structure of the Federation. The 1992 Federal Law on Education did set up the nature of the decentralization system (Opcit pp.100-101).

The law limited the function of the federal government to guidance and coordination with the purpose of maintaining unity within the federal set up. Federal curriculum standards for primary and secondary education were simplified, local governments and schools were given more authority to determine the contents of school objects. The federal government further encouraged increase in the number of schools, which had more competence in composing curriculum on their own. These included special schools, lycees (special character schools) and gymnasiums. This move promoted differentiation of primary and secondary education to meet the needs of individuals and the society. Special schools refer to primary and secondary schools started in 1958 which offered in-depth education in specific subjects like Natural Science, Foreign language, Physical Education and Art.

The Russian Federation decentralization has been a major feature of education reforms aimed at enlarging the responsibilities of local governments and schools in the domains of finance, curriculum, school establishment and choice. Secondly, the economic disorder, led to substantial privatization of public schools through paid services and financial support from parents. Further, the reform brought improvements in the levels of general education, extension of compulsory schooling from 9 to 11 years, decentralization of control over school curricula and democratization of school management. (Tadashi, 2003 p.89).

In conclusion, decentralization moves along with legislation which should stipulate the allocation of resources and boundaries under which to operate and the M/E Framework.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0 Introduction.

This chapter begins with a brief review and understanding of the concept of paradigm and paradigms available. Then it states the paradigm in which this study was positioned and later explains the qualitative case study method used.

The research design is explained followed by the data collection methods. The population from which data was sourced is explained followed by the data analysis approach employed. Lastly, the chapter explains the ethical considerations of the study and ends up with the trends taken to ensure the research quality.

4.1 Paradigms/Traditions: Brief review and Understanding.

Research Methodology is vested in and guided by traditions or paradigms. It is the question of paradigm that is more prime than the question of method in research as Guba and Lincoln (1994, p.105) put it, “Questions of method are secondary to questions of paradigm”. There are different traditions that guide research in social sciences. However, some people refer to them differently. Some refer to them as *Research Paradigms* others *Orientations to Research* while some prefer *Perspectives on Research* and others use *Approach* or *Framework*. These terms capture the ideas, norms and practices by schools of researchers who share assumptions and values which carry on the tradition.

A paradigm therefore, embraces the philosophical assumptions about reality and knowledge, values and theories that locate inform and support the orientation and manner under which research is conducted. Looking at it from the other side of the coin, a research paradigm refers to the way of understanding and approaching research. Guba (1990) describes a paradigm as a “basic set of beliefs that guides action” (p.17) and later as a “guide to disciplined inquiry” (p.18).

Research literature generally identifies four and at other times five paradigms:-

Positivism (scientific tradition), *Interpretivism* or *Constructivism*, *Critical* paradigm (Guba and Lincoln, 1994, p.110), *Deconstructivism* and a fifth paradigm *Post Positivism*. My emphasis I concentrated on critical realism within the critical paradigm in which the study was positioned and conducted.

There is a belief that reality itself is not completely observable. There are institutional structures such as social class that have evolved through historical processes. The structures underpin observable events and are real in terms of their effects and they can only be understood by means of theory, for they are not observable. Critical researchers believe that it is necessary to account for both the subjective and objective social world.

The term critical refers to research that examines the relationship between agency and structure. Such research would therefore have an empirical, interpretive and critical dimension which involves investigating social practices – Giddens refer to them as practical consciousness and Bourdieu refer to them as habitus. It further has a theoretical dimension that explains how practices are produced and reproduced by institutional structures. Such research has the potential to reveal structural constraints on action and it is described as empowering for being free from dominance.

All paradigms are characterized against three major dimensions – *Ontology*, *Epistemology* and *Methodology*.

It is against this background that any researcher must position his/her study in a paradigm that suits the intentions of the research study. It is in view of this that Popkewitz (1984, p.38) wrote:

The idea of paradigm directs attention to science as having constellations of commitments, questions, methods and procedures that underlie and give direction to scientific work. The importance of paradigmatic elements in science is that they do not appear as such, but form the 'rules of the game' or disposition that guide everyday practices.

3.2 The Research Paradigm.

The primary goal of this study was to get to know how QA policy is understood and carried out and whether and if so how M/E is making a difference to QA at both a practical and policy level in Uganda's decentralized primary school sector.

In order to investigate both participants' understanding and experience of QA within Uganda's primary schools in decentralization structures as well as the real effect and stratified nature of these QA structures, my study was positioned within a *Critical Realist Paradigm* with a qualitative approach. This is because; the critical realist paradigm has an interest in both internal experiences of individuals and the social structures in which they operate. Thus, the critical theory as Rubins and Rubin (2005, p.25) put it, "emphasizes the importance of discovering and rectifying societal problems".

Then, what is Critical Realism (CR)? The definition of CR is not an easy task as it has a number of philosophical positions on a range of issues - ontology, causation, structure, persons, and forms of explanations (Archer et al, 2016). This therefore implies that critical realists employ positions of different scholars (particularly, Archer 1982, 1995; Bhaskar 1975, 1979; Porpora 2015; Little 2016; Steinmez 1998, 2003, 2014; Vandenberghe 2015; Gorski 2008; Elder-Vass 2010, 2013a; Lawson 1997; Sayer, 2000) to generate a definition. In their effort to define CR in view of the background given above, Archer et al (2016) define CR as:

" ... a meta-theoretical position: a reflexive philosophical stance concerned with providing a philosophically informed account of science and social science which can in turn inform our empirical investigations. We might think of this in terms of three layers: our empirical data, the theories that we draw upon to explain our empirical data, and our metatheories – the theory and the philosophy behind our theories." (p.4) .

However, much as it is a heterogeneous series of positions, the commonality that unites it as a metatheory is the commitment to formulate a properly post-positivist philosophy in terms of a normative agenda for science and social science – ontological realism, epistemic relativism, judgemental rationality, and a cautious ethical naturalism (Archer et al, 2016).

In terms of realist social theory, decentralization and QA can be understood as strategies of social transformation for causing desired changes. The theory's interest lies in the emergent generative mechanism and stratified nature of the social world (Archer, 1995, pp.68-69). The stratified nature of the social World refers to structure and agency and the interplay between the two depicts the real world. The primary epistemological purpose of critical realists in scientific inquiry is to obtain knowledge about underlying casual mechanisms (Dobson, 2002, p.20).

According to Bhaskar (as quoted by McEvoy and Richards, 2003), a casual mechanism has four main features, " (1) a generative mechanism, (2) the stratified character of the real world, (3) the dialectical interplay between social structures and human agency and (4) a critique of the prevailing social order" (p.411).

In the context of this study, the generative mechanism (decentralization) that refer to the structures, powers and relations (within local government and administrative units) explains how things work (to ensure quality) beneath a surface (the primary education sector).

To obtain an understanding of the decentralization system, I needed to understand its operations and implementation strategies within the various structures from different people/agents in Local Governments and Administrative Units. This was in the view of the critical realists' 'insistence that a researcher will never focus on a single level investigation of a society, group or individual (Dobson, 2002, p.22).

The human agency in this context, referred to the participants that were involved in the study with regard to the roles they are playing in the generative mechanism. Archer (1995) asserted that, "The central argument is that structure and agency can only be linked by examining the interplay between them overtime (p.65). Further, Dobson (2002) asserts that, "our knowledge of reality is a result of the social factors involved in the knowledge process" (p.6).Critical realists emphasize the interdependence of structure and agency. Social structures provide resources that enable individuals to act while simultaneously setting limits on individual behavior.

Policy is one such social structure Policies that guide both structures and agency. Policies put limits and shape the working behavior of the agents. However, the behavior of human agents is not exclusively determined by social structures such as policy but agents are able to transform social structures by responding creatively to the circumstances in which they find themselves (Connelly and Lewis as quoted by McEvoy and Richards, 2003, p.413).

Critical realists maintain that, the natural world functions in a multi-dimensional open system (Benton and Craibas cited by McEvoy and Richards, 2003, p.412) and that a generative mechanism may remain latent until activated in specific circumstances. There was need to look at M/E policies (the multi-dimensional open system) how they have maintained the dynamism of the primary education sector (the natural world) in a decentralized system (the generative mechanism).

The naturalistic methodological strategies employed in this research, will later be explained in this chapter, have deep roots in Critical Realism (McEvoy and Richards, 2003, p.414). Similarly, Smith and Glass (1987) explained that, “naturalistic research seeks to understand the persons involved, their behaviour and perceptions and the influence of the physical, social and psychological environment and context through first hand contact between the researcher and the participants “(p.253). It is against this background that participants were asked to give their perceptions of the system, their working behaviour and experiences.

4.3 Case Study Method.

The case study method was chosen because it allows depth of investigation into a phenomenon and thus was found necessary to rich interpretation and thorough understanding of the situation of quality assurance in a decentralized set up (Merriam, 2001, p.19). The other notion behind choice of case study was that all districts country wide are decentralized and are governed by the same policy guidelines as indicated in chapter 2. Therefore, choosing a district (Masaka) to intensively study the situation in it was a representative of the national situation. It is against this that Cohen, Manion and

Marrison (2000, p.181) defined a case study as “a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle”.

According to Adelman (1980), it is the study of “an instance in action” (p.13). Denzin and Lincoln (2000, p.435) looked at a case study as a choice of what is to be studied (method) rather than a methodological choice.

Case study is considered a method when a holistic indepth investigation is required (Zaidah, 2007). It becomes more prominent as a method on issues concerning education (Gulsecen and Kubat, 2006), sociology (Grassel and Schirmer, 2006) and community -based problems (Johnson, 2006) which this study has tried to bring together. As a method, it enables a researcher to closely scrutinize data within a specific context – identify a small geographical area (Masaka) and a very limited number of individuals(SMCs, Headteachers, Heads of Infant Section, Directors of Studies, District Education Officials and selected Ministry [centre] Officials) as respondents to the study. On the other hand as a methodology , it is “*an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence*” (Yin, 2014; Patton, 2015; Anderson, 1993 – data from interviews held, observations made, documments analysed and bacground questionnaires administered which informed the study.

At a practical level, with the experience of this study, you work within the two (method and methodology – they are interelated and inseperable) in order to achieve comprehensive results and evidence.

The researcher was also implored to using the case study method by Yin’s (2003, 2014) approach to technical definition which begins with the scope and secondly as data collection and data strategies. A case study is an empirical inquiry that,

Investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident (2003, p.13; 2014, p.20).

The case study inquiry:

- Copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points and as one result.
- Relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and another result.
- Benefits from the prior development of theoretical proportions to guide data collection and analysis (pp.13-14).

The case study enabled me to observe effects in real contexts when schools were visited and learners observed during break and lunch times to exactly see what takes place during these periods when learners were expected to be feeding. This made me appreciate and recognize that context is a powerful determinant of both cause and effect. (Cohen et al 2000, p.181).

Yin (2003) look at a case study as a research strategy (p.1) and believes that:-

The distinctive need for case studies arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomenon ...the case study method allows investigations to retain holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events – such as individual life-cycles, organizational and managerial processes, neighborhood change, international relations ... (p.2).

The case study was used to intensively and holistically describe and to analyze a single instance (Masaka District) to explain a national situation (Uganda's primary education sector), (Merriam, 1988, p.12). The case in this study therefore, was to investigate how QA is being provided and ensured in a decentralized set up with a view that M/E inform the policy formulation process to ensure its provision. It was a case because, despite the efforts (especially funding) government has put in to provide quality education have yielded no positive results.

4.3.1 Case Selection and Sample.

As earlier stated, Masaka was chosen as case study district. Reason for its choice was that in 1960s, 1970s and early 1980s Masaka was the best performing

district in the country at primary education level, but now, it is one of the worst performing districts. Again, Masaka has given birth to seven new districts; to me this is a critical case with Masaka situation and consequently its reason for selection as a case study (Seale, Gobo, Gubrium and Silverman, 2004, pp.425 – 426). The focus within the case was how SMCs, headteachers, and teachers, have ensured the provision of quality education. Equally, the focus was on how the local governments and the centre through M/E have maintained quality education and informed the policy formulation process.

During the data generation process the following categories of people were used to provide data.

At school level (teachers): two (2) teachers – the Director of studies and infant Head were supposed to attend interview sessions from the four (4) schools in each of the 20 sub-counties and one (1) municipality. Out of 168 teachers expected, 141 turned up making it 83.9%.

At school level again, (head-teachers): Each of the four participating schools in the 20 sub-counties and one (1) municipality had to send in a head-teacher, of the 84 head-teachers expected, 67 turned up forming 79.8%.

Still at school level (SMC): The four (4) participating schools in each of the twenty (20) sub-counties and one (1) municipality, 103 members turned up out of 168 expected. This was 61.3%. The chairmen and treasurers of SMCs were chosen for their central roles they play in chairing meetings that set policies at school levels and their financial support they offer to schools. These two functions are key to ensuring quality education.

At district level – the following officers were interviewed:

- CAO (01)
- DEO (01)
- DIS (01)
- Secretary for Social Services (01)

- Education officers (EO) – two (02) out of six (06)
- MEO and MIS (02) of the Municipality
- CCTs – nine (09) out of 9.

A total of seventeen (17) out of nineteen (19) officers were interviewed making it 89.5%.

At the centre (Central Government) the following were interviewed

- Permanent Secretary – Ministry of Education and Sports (01)
- Permanent Secretary – Ministry of Local Governments (01)
- Director, Local Government – Ministry of Local Governments (01)
- Director, Directorate of Education Standards – Ministry of Education and Sports (01)
 - Commissioner, Pre-primary and Primary Education – Ministry of Education & Sports (01)
 - Commissioners, Inspectorate – Ministry of Local Government (01)
 - Policy Analyst – Ministry of Local Government (Not met)
 - Policy Analyst - Ministry of Education and Sports (01)

Out of eight (08) central Government Officers expected to interview, seven (07) were met making it 85.7%.

Of the four hundred forty seven (447) interviewees expected for the whole study, a total of 335 responded to the interviews giving 74.9% of the population sample.

The selection of participants was based on their roles they play in the provision of QA Initiatives and Formulation of policies at both national and local levels based on the visits and reports they generate and receive. Patton (2002, pp 45-46) referred to this as “purposeful sampling” while Cohen, et al (2000, pp.103 -104) refer to it as “purposive sampling”.

4.4 The Research Design.

The study was carried out in three major phases which chronologically covered a period of almost six years 2009 – 2015.

The first phase initially consisted of designing interview guides to all categories of respondents (listed in the 3.3.1 above). Huberman and Miles (1984, pp.42 – 43) called it “instrumentation. This was followed by visiting the selected (sampled) primary schools, first in the district (Masaka) for data collection. After primary schools, district officials were visited for interviews, officers of both the Ministry of Education & Sports and Local Government were visited. The approach to data collection was a “bottom-top” approach with a purpose of knowing what is happening at the grass-root supplemented by the top initiatives. That is, policies governing decentralization strategy and primary schooling, which are implemented at the lower levels, are at the top (centre). Therefore, data collection was done at the implementation level to find out what is happening and later with the centre respondents to what is being done at the lower levels in view of their experiences with policies in place and M/E reports received from districts. The other element, which was involved in the approach, was triangulation. Triangulation in the sense that questions checking on the views and perceptions of each group were in a way asked to the other groups to ascertain the relevancy and validity of responses of each group.

The second phase after withdrawal from the field was that of processing, focusing, simplifying and transforming raw data into legible written field notes which formed a data collection book that accompanied this thesis. Huberman and Miles called this process or phase – data reduction (p.21). However, important to note at this phase is that as data reduction took place, data analysis was at play. Common trends of data were formed leading to themes and giving the display of data that led to conclusion drawing (Huberman and Miles, pp.21-23).

The third phase was data analysis, presentation, interpretation, drawing conclusions and final writing of the thesis completed in 2015.

My experience during this process was that, especially starting with data collection, trends of data begins forming as you go through the process giving you the insight of themes into which to group the data. This gave me the impression that, data

analysis begins from the field. Sitting down to put data in the formal way is a question of synchronizing the images of data analysis formed while in the field.

4.4.1 Data Collection.

This section explains the methods used to collect and generate data and how data was generated.

A number of techniques were used- interviews – group interviews, one – to – one interviews, observation, and document analysis. These gave me chance to watch, listen and ask what was happening (experiences) in schools and classrooms in the context of quality (Taylor and Bigdan, 1998, p.65, Bassey, 1998, p.81).

The use of a range of techniques was necessary for triangulation purposes especially when I wanted to cross check data given, the activities and strategy of the parties involved in the provision of QE in schools.

4.4.1.1 Interviews.

Interviews formed the primary method of obtaining data for this research. Critical realists use them to explore underlying generative mechanisms in social research (McEvoy Richards, 2003, p.414). A combination of individual (one-to-one) and focus group face-to-face interviews were used (Cohen et al, 2000, p.270).

Dexter (1970), as cited by Lincoln and Guba (1985 p.268), define an interview as “ a conversation with a purpose. He goes on to state the purposes of an interview as

“obtaining here-and-now constructions of persons, events, activities, organization feelings, motivations, claims, concerns and other entities, reconstructions of such entities as experienced in the past, projections of such entities expected in the future; verification, emendation and extension of information(constructions, reconstructions or projections) obtained from other sources, human or non human triangulation and verification, emendation and extension of constructions developed by the inquires”.

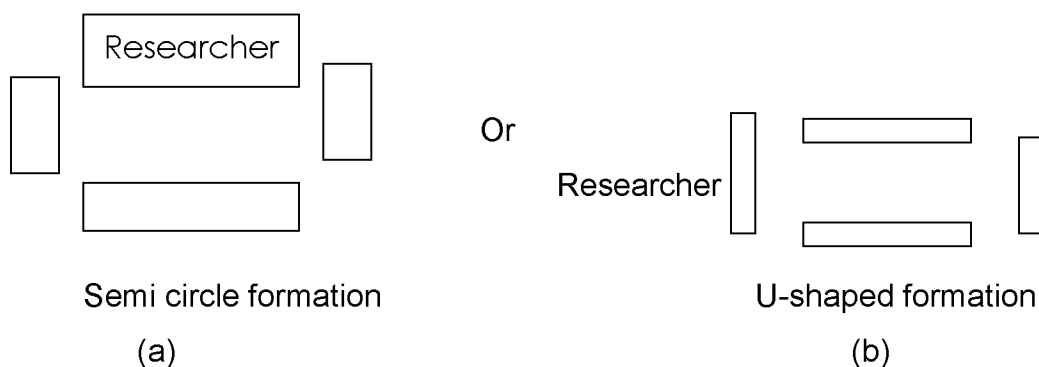
All these entities as expressed above were at play during the interview sessions conducted to the three different categories of interviewees each day. These nourished the data collection process. It is against this background that stake (1995, p.64), described interview as “the main road to multiple realities”. In the sense that during

interview sessions you observe the non-verbals accompanying the verbals to get the hidden meaning of what is being said. Secondly, the exchange of ideas and issues expressed deepen the understanding and bring to the surface a number of realities.

Nueman (2000) says that field interviewing, “involves asking questions, listening, expressing interest and recording what was said”, (p.370). He goes on to say that the field interview is a joint production of a researcher and a member. Members were active participants whose insights, feelings and cooperation were an essential part of a discussion process that revealed subjective meanings. People’s experience and participation formed the core of data collected from them and their responses formed the basis of data generated (Maykurt & Morehouse, 1994, p.46).

In the process, semi-structured interviews were conducted guided by an interview guide (Patton, 2002, pp.347) developed (see appendix A). This was in line with Ezzy’s (2002, p.45) belief that, they (interviews) enable one to “gain access to people’s ideas and thoughts, their perceptions of change and their fears and concerns in their own words rather than in the words of the researcher”.

This was further facilitated by the closer approach used with the interviewees. That is, seating arrangements made with the respondents made them feel that I was so close to them thus part of them. The sitting arrangements (a and b) below as indicated by diagrams paved the way to this feeling.



Another strategy employed was that of summarizing points made by interviewees and playing back the summaries to them of what they said at the end of each topic. This

was done when there seemed to be termination or not with a purpose of gaining closure to both interviewees and information given (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.271).

The strategy of self-disclosure (revealing information in order to get information from another) based on personal experience also assisted so much to dig up information and made in-depth interviews. This was against the background that I was at one time a classroom teacher, a deputy head-teacher in-charge of academics, a head-teacher and now an Inspector of schools who has had interactions with all categories of education stakeholders. Further, I have had interactions with colleagues from other districts and have made visits to other districts where I learnt lessons of interacting with people. All these experiences helped my self-disclosure strategy to enrich my data collection, elicit information from them and saw me as part of them.

The strategies listed above, brought in a closure talking relationship with respondents. This further kept the respondents motivated, interested and answered questions (Oppenheim, 1992, p.89 -90).

Rubin and Rubin (2005) believes that

Qualitative interviews are conversations in which a researcher gently guides a conversational partner in an extended discussion. The researcher elicits depth and detail about the research topic by following up on answers given by the interviewee during the discussion (p.4).

Following up respondents' answers as a strategy, helped in making the interviews deep and detailed and elicited further discussion on issues raised thus widening knowledge of others. This was because different schools had different experiences and interviewees were learning from one another in focus groups. Some respondents could come to me at the end of the sessions and say, "we have learnt something and we are going to change our way of doing things i.e. not signing blank cheques, monitoring learning and attendance". So, to me interviews were a learning situation especially in group interviews where exchange of ideas from different people took place.

In a similar tone, Miswer (1986, p.82) as quoted by Nueman (2000, p.370) said that,

The interviewer's presence and form of involvement – how she or he listens, attends, encourages, interrupts, disguises, initiates topics and terminate responses is integral to the respondents accounts.

In conclusion, to achieve elicit depth, details vividness, nuance and richness, mix of three kinds of questions – main, follow up and probes were used.

The main question initiated and encouraged the respondents or conversational partners to talk about the research topic and its key areas. Follow up questions were specific to comments that respondents made to grasp and explore the meanings of themes, concepts and ideas they introduced.

Probes were techniques used to keep discussions going on while providing clarification. Probes kept the interviewees talking about the matter at hand, complete the ideas, fill in missing ideas or clarify ideas said. (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, pp.134; Maykut and Morehouse, 1994, pp.95-96).

4.4.1.2 Focus group Interviews.

Group interview helped me gather information on the groups' thinking. Each day, I was interacting with groups of three categories of schools' stakeholders; teachers – who provided experiences on the teaching and learning process in the classrooms and schools in general; SMC – the mandated bodies to oversee the running of the schools and head-teachers who are the managers of the schools and providers of guidance to both teachers and SMCs (see data files 1-22 for A, B and C columns). My acceptance of group interviews was influenced by Maykut and Morehouse's (1994, p.104) notion of a group interview as “ a group conversation with a purpose” and it was an opportunity for the categories of stakeholders to listen to each others' contributions, which sparked off new insights and helped them develop their ideas more clearly. This was against the background that they were coming from different contexts (schools) although within the same sub-county. In the end, this became a learning situation to the groups and turned into group discussions. Each group interview lasted for 60-90 minutes and the size of each group ranged between 4 to 8 respondents

In all my visits, I was at the venues by 8.00a.m; this gave credit to my visits especially to SMC members whom I was meeting at 10.00a.m. They were happy with my timely arrivals unlike the other engagements where they could come and wait for hours before the arrival of people to talk to them. They expressively commended this and it gave me chance to have free interactions with them. They could ask me for pieces of advice on some educational issues and experiences in my district.

Prior notice was made to schools notifying them of the date, venue and categories of respondents to be involved in the interviews from each school. Venue head-teachers' cell phone numbers were secured to coordinate the visits (see letter written by DEO/Masaka – Appendix B).

Individual (one-to-one) Interviews. Individual interviews were conducted to officers of the top management at both district and the ministry levels. The rationale for individual interviews was that officers at top management are normally singles in offices. I was also induced by Ezzy's (2002, p.45) belief that they made one to "gain access to people's ideas and thoughts, their perceptions of change and their fears and concerns in their own words rather than them in the words of the researcher".

Each interview lasted for at most 30 minutes with each officer. This was in consideration of the bulk of work and engagements they had. Some could tell you right from the beginning that they are offering less than 30minutes.

Interviewees declined my use of a tape recorder to have interviews recorded for security reasons. That is why; I solely depended on field notes as a main recording system.

4.4.1.3 Observation.

At the initial stage, I thought observation would not be a method of collecting data. However, when I reached the field I found out that observation was inevitable especially when teachers, head-teachers and SMC members mentioned absence of lunch provision. Since I was at the schools, during break and lunch times, I found myself

moving around the school compounds during these times to observe what learners were doing and eating. Respondents had talked of children bringing in “entanda” (packed meals) and others that schools were providing lunch. To ascertain what they were saying, I had to physically see what was happening.

This was done in the view of Stake (1995, p.60) that, “observations make the researcher work towards greater understanding of the case”.

At the times of observation, schools were in their natural settings in which I observed the situations as Maykurt and Morehouse (1994, p.69) put it or in a natural, open ended way (Punch, 1998, p.186) . Notes of what was observed were made.

4.4.1.4 Document Analysis.

Guba and Lincoln (1985) emphasize the needs to consult documents and records,

They are almost always available on a low cost or free basis; they are a stable source of information both in the sense that they may accurately reflect situations that occurred at sometime in the past and that they can be analyzed and re-analyzed without undergoing changes in the interim; they are a rich source of information, contextually relevant and grounded in the contexts they represent. They are often legally unassailable especially in the case of records, formal statements that satisfy some accountability requirement and finally, they are, unlike human respondents, non-reactive (pp.277-278).

Holder (cited in Patton, 2002, p.293) asserts that, “records, documents, artifacts and archives – what has traditionally been called ‘material culture’ in anthropology – constitute a particularly rich source of information about many organizations and programmes’. Holder (1998, p.4) says that, “Material culture is thus of importance for qualitative researchers who wish to explore multiple and conflicting voices and differing and interacting interpretations”.

Meriam (2001) categorized documents into public records (on-going, continuing records of a society), personal documents (any first person narrative that describes an individual’s actions, experiences and beliefs) and physical materials (physical objects found within the study setting – artifacts (pp.113-118). These were the kinds of

documents analyzed. The purposive sampling technique was used to target evidence of inspection reports both internal (school based) and external (district and centre); disbursement of funds by the centre and frequency of inspection visits to schools by the district and the centre.

It was against this background that financial records at school level were analyzed in respect of the amounts of money government has been releasing to schools and the times it was released. This was after all respondents during interviews were saying that government was releasing inadequate funding which was not constant. Secondly the funds were brought in late.

Another document of interest was the visitors' book to ascertain the times both district and central government officers visited the school, the purpose for their visit and nature of comments made during their visits. This was against the understanding that a visitors' book is a self-reporting inventory in a school set up which reveals officers' visits and frequency towards school inspections or monitoring of school programmes and activities.

The other documents of interest were head-teachers supervision files and records of work covered. The supervision files had to reveal the frequency the head-teachers, deputy head-teachers or any other person assigned the duties of supervising teachers at school level and the nature of assistance they provide teachers with for betterment of their performance (support supervision). In itself, is a quality control measure. The records of work covered by teachers were another avenue to analyze the work covered by each teacher per week.

Documents analysed were of years from 2006 to 2014.

4.5 Data Analysis, Processing and Interpretation.

Data collected was transcribed, coded, categorized and thematized which formed the basis of analysis.

Coding, as Taylor and Bigdan (1998, p.150) put it, “is a way of developing and refining interpretations of data”. Each response was coded under each group of interviewees based on the aspects of the study. Quality Assurance (QA), Decentralization (DN), Monitoring and Evaluation (ME), and Policy Formulation (PF). The responses in each aspect in every group were coded QA1 – QA_n, DN1, - DN_n; ME₁, - ME_n and PF1 - PF_n. That is, from the first (1) to the last (n). That is, RQA1- RQA30 or RME1- RME25.

Against each response (RQA15 or RME20) is a word or phrase that categorizes the message each response describes, this was ‘highlighting finding’ as Wolcott (1994, p.29) put it or as Ferguson calls it ‘Clunking it out (Wolcott, 1994, p.30).

Then, each word or phrase explains the category under which it follows. This was a result of words/phrases repeatedly occurring as ideas forming categories. Then, the categories explained the larger/major themes on which the study was constructed.

The data was in turn displayed using tables with frequencies indicated based on the occurrences of the sub-themes explaining the major themes. Wolcott (1994, p.31) called this “Display your findings” which Miles and Hubermans (1984 and 1994 [2nd Edition) referred to it as “think display “(Wolcott, 1994, p.31)

Data was analyzed basing on the three levels of reality as Critical Realists believe. Basing on Bhaskar’s (1975) Philosophical Ontology, the three levels are: the real, the actual, and the empirical (Benton and Craib, 2001, pp.124-125, Sayer, 2000, p.11 -12; Archer, Bhaskar, Collier, Lanoson and Norne, 1998, pp.41-42) Clegg, 2005, p.420).

- a) the ‘real’ level World of Mechanism, powers and tendencies,
- b) the ‘actual’ level of flows or sequences of events,
- c) the ‘empirical’ level of observed events.

By coding responses and categorizing them, was to generate, social powers, mechanisms and tendencies existing in the social structures and its agencies. The

social purpose is to “attempt to understand the casual mechanisms that can be isolated in experimentation and are the basis for an understanding of the open, non-regular, messy world of the child” (Clegg, 2005, p.420).

Categorizing responses into sub-themes was the actual level of flows or sequences of experience - able events to show the casual mechanisms and powers within the structure and agency (Archer, 1995, pp. 65 – 66).

Finally, coming out with major themes explainable by sub-themes with frequencies of observed events was the ‘empirical’ level. Which, Del Casino et al (2000) called descriptive statistics (Mc Evoy and Richard, 2002, 9.412). The three levels were in line with what critical realists call ‘depth realism’ in a scientific investigation that tries to penetrate behind or below the surface appearance of things to uncover their generative causes (Benton and Craib, 2001, p.125).

With data interpretation, the study undertook the critical realists’ interpretive approach, which advocates for explanations that allow to understand the structures, powers, generative mechanisms and tendencies which conceptualize the underlying processes that produce the empirical (Clegg, 2005, pp.420-421). According to McEvoy and Richards (2003, p.42), generative mechanisms refer to the structures, powers and relations that explain how things work beneath a surface (observable) appearance (Decentralization and primary schooling). Sayer (2000, p.3) called it, interpretive understanding of meaning in Social life’

A reflection of the theory driven point of view was taken to describe the inter play between social structures and human agency (Archer, 1995, p.65), in order to develop a transferable theory. That is, a theoretical point of views were related to findings to reflect what was happening at the ground. This was in line with the realist synthesis, which considers the evidence from a theory driven point of view with an objective of developing a transferable theory (McEvoy and Richards, 2003, p.414).

As I described data, a connection with personal experience was taken care of with purposes of personalizing interpretation and making the interpretation personal (Wolcott, 1994, p.44). This is when Critical Realists distinguish between the world (real) and our experiences of it (Sayer, 2000, p.11). Experience plays a key role in describing the world.

Critical or key events/issues (Wolcott, pp.94, p.19) were highlighted to show the intensity and impact of the events/issues raised or discovered.

3.6 Ethical Consideration.

Permission to conduct the research in schools was obtained from the District Education Officer(DEO) with a backing of the letter of introduction from the Dean of Education, Phodes University (see appendices C and D).

Apart from the letter of introduction by the DEO I informed participants the aim and purpose of the study. I mentioned to them that, anonymity, privacy and confidentiality are key issues and top priorities during the data collection, processing and interpretation (Nueman, 2000, pp.98-100 Seale et al 2004 pp.231-233).

Revealing the aim and objective of the study to interviewees and absence of recording voices, (because they declined my use of a tape recorder) assisted me to have a free and fair interaction with them. They freely disclosed the information and felt free with me. Lincoln (1995), aligns validity "with the researcher's relationship with research participants and considers validity to be an ethical question" (p.45). The more the researcher disclosed himself(let participant know hidden information about me) to the participants, the more they felt free and secure and disclosed data relevant to the research.

Merriam and Associates (2002) believe that, "validity and reliability of a study depend upon the ethics of the researcher "(p.29). This was true mainly when it came to interpretation of the data.

4.7 Research Quality.

4.7.1 Triangulation.

Besides the ethical issues discussed above, to ensure the quality, validity and reliability of my study, I employed triangulation in data collection. Patton (2002) observed that,

Multiple sources of information are sought and used because no single source of information can be trusted to provide a comprehensive perspective on the programme. By using a combination of observations, interviewing and document analysis, the field worker is able to use different data sources to validate and crosscheck findings (p.30).

Triangulation in this context, was used at three levels – use of multiple data sources (*space Triangulation*), use of multiple data collection methods (*methodological Triangulation*) (Coleman & Biggs, 2002 p.58) and in asking questions to different categories of participants but focusing on the same issues (*Respondent Triangulation*), (Ibid). This enabled me to compare what participants said with what they did to bring out quality in a decentralized set up. I allowed a high ratio of participants' voice to mine which enhanced the trustworthiness of my study. Coleman and Biggs (2002), believe that reliability, validity and triangulation are the different ways in which the authenticity and quality of research may be assessed (pp.59-70).

Save the above, triangulation was used in a broader perspective of deepening and widening one's understanding – producing innovation in conceptual framing, leading to multi-perspective meta-interpretations and mapping out and explaining more fully the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint (Cohen et al 2000). This is therefore achieved through the use of triangulation as a multiple use of methods and data sources in qualitative research to develop a comprehensive understanding of phenomena (Patton 2002, 2015).

4.7.2 Peer Review.

At this level, I attended workshops related to my study where I met critical friends whom I debriefed of my findings and shared their views which echoed my findings. I

also debriefed some of the participants at district headquarters and in schools of the district of study and they consented with what I found out. One of the participants said, *In fact, you are going to document the reality we already know and what is on the ground*".

Again, during meetings with fellow District Inspectors of Schools, I debriefed them to get the national perspective of what happened in the district of the case study. I did receive similar voices of the findings. These efforts ensured "Peer de-briefing" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p.247) to enhance the credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability of the data and findings of the study. This further acted as a strategy to enhance the trustworthiness of the study. The issue of whether the findings of the study were dependable and consistent or not, are linked to the notion of triangulation and peer-review (Merriam, 2002, p.30).

4.7.3 Audit Trail.

An "audit trail (Bassey, 1999, p.77; Merriam et al, 2002, p.31), includes cross-referencing to the source where substantive evidence can be found in the data files and case record to authenticate the findings of the study. Whenever, appropriate in this thesis, I have cross-referenced to the source of the raw data stored in the data files that I created for my study.

4.7.4 Case Audit.

In view of Lincoln & Guba's (1985, p.379) recommendations the choice of the auditor was based on the possession of the characteristics below:-

- *Integrity* – as senior member of the Rhodes University team with an un-doubtable integrity.
- *Personal disinterest* – a person without prior knowledge connection or involvement and with minimal knowledge of the subject matter of the study.
- *Skilled Researcher* – a person with a high level of research methods and track record in research supervision and examining.

The audit process was done at the end of writing the thesis. It involved reading the case report and sampling parts of the case records and files to confirm.

- The presence of various documents referred to in the thesis.
- Accuracy of references and ethical appropriateness in which they were used.

The audit report has been put at the front of this thesis.

4.7.5 Case Archive and Case Records.

During the process of data compilation a number of data files coded (Huberman & Miles, 1984, pp. 54-55) as:

- (i) MSK for Masaka District Local Governments indicating each sub-county (schools and teachers) and district officers interviewed;
- ii) MOES for Ministry of Education and Sports officers interviewed;
- iii) MOLG for Ministry of Local Government Officers interviewed. The files were catalogued and indexed chronologically as the research process progressed for easy access in a data collection report that translated into the thesis which Bassey (1999) called a case report (p.80). This emanated from the rough notes and jottings made during the interviews – the archives (Ibid, pp.79-80).

In each file you find responses or field notes (Huberman and Miles 1984, p.80) or case records – interview transcripts (Bassey, 1999, p.80) coded as:-

- i) RQA_{1-n} - Responses on Quality Assurance from the first (1) response to the last (n).
- ii) RME_{n-1} - Responses on Monitoring and Evaluation from the first (1) response to the last (n)
- iii) RPF_{1-n} - Responses on Policy Formulation from the first (1) response to the last (n).
- iv) RDN_{1-n} - Responses on Decentralization from the first (1) response to the last (n).

The codes to responses are the same to all respondents to the interviews held. Category A – teachers, category B-SMC members and Category C – Head-teachers, District officials and officers of the Ministry of Education and Sports and Ministry of Local Government.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION, DISCUSSION AND INTERPRETATION

5.0 Introduction

In this chapter, I provide an integrated presentation, interpretation and discussion of my data. I have organized my data into four core aspects on which the study was based. They are: QA, M/E, Policy Formulation and Decentralization. In each aspect, I have identified themes and categories as the following mind map provides a visual portrayal of the contents of my data presentation and discussion. The matrix portrays themes across the core aspects. Under each theme across the aspects are categories that specifically explain the content in the context of the aspects.

	THEMES AND THEIR CATEGORIES										
ASPECT	CIE	CAP	FAM	HRM	IDM	LPP	MSL	MOT	PAN	POL	SSP
QUALITY ASSURANCE		- Self reliance - Dimensions - Academic performance - Process - Teacher qualification - Community involvement in Education - Curriculum issues - Unprofessional	- Debts - Misappropriation of funds		- Structural Development - Inadequate infrastructure		- Collaboration - Private schools factor - Conflict resolution - National programmes - Guidance & counseling - Teamwork - Mobilization &	- Role models - Recognition/appreciation	- Home background - Learners' discipline - Lunch issue	- Collaboration with politicians - Deployment of qualified teachers - Training - Staff Development programmes	- Invitation to functions - Outreach services - Public Assessment - Language Barrier

	THEMES AND THEIR CATEGORIES										
ASPECT	CIE	CAP	FAM	HRM	IDM	LPP	MSL	MOT	PAN	POL	SSP
		- obligations - Crowded classes - Demonstrations					- sensitization - Monitoring learners' attendance - Meetings - Managerial skills - Laying strategies - Absenteeism - Executive obligations - Working relationship - Learner's discipline				
MONITORING & EVALUATION		- Inspection - Selective promotion - CCT interventions - SMC illiteracy - Non professionalism - Commercialized tests - Supervision of teaching/teachers - Team	- Monitoring funds	- Mis-position of Human Resource			- Monitoring learning - Checking learners' work - Monitoring teachers' attendance - Monitoring learners' attendance - Written/verbal reports				- Foundation Bodies Inspection

	THEMES AND THEIR CATEGORIES										
ASPECT	CIE	CAP	FAM	HRM	IDM	LPP	MSL	MOT	PAN	POL	SSP
		supervision/ inspection - Learner assessment									
POLICY FORMULATION						- Policy restrictions - UPE factor - Conflictin g/ confusing guideline s. - Misinterp retation of policy - Segregati ve guideline s - Absence of QA policy - Policy observan ce - Policy impleme	- Implementing minimum standards. - Resource allocation process - Line ministry role			- Political influence	- Women emancipati on

	THEMES AND THEIR CATEGORIES										
ASPECT	CIE	CAP	FAM	HRM	IDM	LPP	MSL	MOT	PAN	POL	SSP
						ntation failure - Policy gap - Policy formulati on process					
DECENTRALIZA TION		Textbooks	-Delay of salaries -Failure to sponsor activities -Inadequate funding -Diversion of funds	-Inter- district transfers -Delayed confirmati on - Motivation of HR -Conflict of roles - Uncoordin ated transfers -Over stay of teachers -staff ceiling limits	- Classroom/to ilet construction -Provision of furniture		-Decision making -Resource allocation			-Political affiliation -Bad politicking	-Building ownership -Service delivery -Employment opportunities -Religious factor -Segregation

	THEMES AND THEIR CATEGORIES										
ASPECT	CIE	CAP	FAM	HRM	IDM	LPP	MSL	MOT	PAN	POL	SSP
				-Mis- position of HR							

KEY TO THEMES

CIE	-	Community Investment in Education	CAP	-	Curriculum and Professionalism
FAM	-	Finance Administration and Management	HRM	-	Human Resource Management
IDM	-	Infrastructure Development and Management	LPP	-	Legislative Process and Policies
MSL	-	Management System and Leadership	MOT	-	Motivation
PAN	-	Parenting and Nutrition	POL	-	Politics
SSP	-	Social Structures and Patterns			

As I explained in my methodology chapter (4.5), I identified my items and categories by common trends observed in the feedback I received from the respondents. Examples of my data and the process by which I arrived at the themes and categories are found in Appendix A.

5.1 Quality Assurance (QA).

5.1.1 Quality Education (QE).

QA in the context of the study was looked at in terms of what constitutes QE .At schools level, (teachers and SMC) and district with ministry (Education officers) define QE significantly in terms of CAP, MSL and IDM.

CAP asserts that QE should stress self reliance (36.7% [114]). “Learners need to be given education that promotes self sustainability and promotes a happy livelihood”, one officer commented. Skills that enable learners manipulate the environment for survival even if they drop out of school be provided. The 4th pillar of education according to EFA goals (UNESCO, 2004, p.30) advocates for, “learning to be, emphasize the skills needed for individuals to develop themselves, their families and their communities.”

By implication, curriculum considers content that provides skills to enable learners create their own jobs leading to functional education and better livelihoods in society.

Collaboration (14.5% [45]) is seen as a significant necessity among the different stakeholders in the institutions if objectives of QA are to be achieved. There should “ exist cooperation and a cordial relationship between parents and teachers, teachers themselves, teachers and learners, teachers and parents and school bodies to allow coordinated effort towards achieving QE” SMC and teachers noted. In this context, institutions need to have an in-built collaboration strategy within their systems that should inform each stakeholder of the responsibilities/roles and achievements reached.

School environment (16.1% [50]) is considered crucial towards the provision of QE thus achieving QA. The environment should be, “conducive to learning”, one

headteacher noted. That is, well built classrooms (meeting SFG standards and Health Acts) and furnished with furniture, maintaining good sanitation, libraries and laboratories in existence, a well structured talking school compound, and planted with flowers and trees. Schools too, should have teachers' accommodation to avoid long distances to schools. The explanation behind this is that such an environment will enable learning take place within the classrooms and outside them. Consequently it is a teaching-learning avenue to the community within which the schools are located. Thus, the schools exert their influence in the community and enhance the collaboration components. This is seen in UNICEF (June, 2000) where it advocated for key factors [ii] where it emphasized for "environments that are healthy, safe, and protective and gender sensitive and provide adequate resources and facilities."

At both district and ministry levels, QE is looked at in terms of CAP and IDM. Another category in addition to self-reliant is dimensional. Dimensional (11.3% [35]) in the sense that there are building blocks of QE. Dimensions listed are morals; values; cognitive; psychomotor and affective domains; skills and attitudes be part of QE. The view is that if these are included within QE, "a learner is wholly educated-intellectually, spiritually, morally and physically for societal fitness", one officer commented. Thus, the learners achieve the necessary social requirements for a positive living. According to UNESCO (2004, p.30) the 4th pillar as stated earlier, emphasis is on "skills needed for individuals to develop themselves, their families and their communities". Again, UNICEF (June,2000) the 5th factor emphasizes, "the outcomes of the education system that encompasses knowledge, skills and attitudes that are linked to national goals for education and positive participation in society". Equally, the critical traditionlists advocate for "a curriculum and teaching methods that encourage critical analysis of social power relations and of way in which formal knowledge is produced and transmitted", (UNESCO,2005).

The lesson derived from this was that for a learner to be socially fit and have a positive living QE should be based on the dimensions indicated. Secondly, the curriculum so designed should reflect these building blocks to achieve QA objectives.

Another category was academic performance (11.3% [35]). This is seen in the standards attained at the end of each class or at the end of the primary cycle. Achievements are equated to academic excellence.“ Achievement and performances are used as yardsticks to measure academic standards”, a senior headteacher asserted. At the end of each class and the primary cycle, there are examinations to evaluate achievements and performance. Academic achievements were seen by some respondents in terms of reading, writing and numeracy. “Learner`s failure to read and write letters at primary seven was seen as academic failure”, one teacher noted. So is,“ a school without first grades at PLE”, another teacher added. Thus, schools in these categories were seen as failures and providing low quality education. Low reading levels still prevail up to primary six, EGRA Report (2010,pp.5-6) and UWEZO Report- Are our children learning? (2010,pp.12-13) revealed that NAPE (UNEB) Reports still indicate that “proficiency in literacy (reading) in the sampled classes of primary 3 and primary 6 still stands below 50% .” The Netherlands Report, (2008, p.17) asserts that, “whereas Uganda is successful in improving access in education, quality remains low”.

The process (45.8%) is another aspect considered significant. Agreement on QE as a process was on what learners have gone through. The indicators identified to reflect the process are; content(12.5%); teacher planning; effective delivery (teaching-learning process and methodology[15.5%]); learner interests and discipline(8.7%); institutional management(1.3%), supervision procedure ; assessment procedure of both teachers and learners; time, funds; space; materials and training components of teachers (qualifications[2.9%]).These individual aspects within the process put together will impact on quality either positively (producing good end results with enhanced achievement) or negatively (producing low standards with stunted achievement).The process in this context emphasizes interventions/initiatives/policies put in place to offer QE(in-put oriented). On the other hand, process takes note of the expected outcomes of in-puts as laid down in the Monitoring and Evaluation Framework (2001).The process, therefore calls for indicators against which quality is evaluated as the framework indicates (2001,pp.14-15).

Conclusively, the expectations of the process [in-put oriented] need to be clearly stated in terms of indicators with minimum standards to achieve.

Under PAN, the home environment (4.2%) in the context of home background and its physical environment had a role to play. This was envisaged in the Social-Economic-Status (SES) of the homes. At a personal experience level, the richer the home environment is, the more the child is exposed to experiences that promote education. This provides a firm foundation for children's education. The opposite happens if the SES is poor. The Early Grading Reading Assessment (EGRA) report (2010) backs this view. In its findings "the poverty levels were influencing the oral reading fluency with averages of 6.7 words per minute (wpm) in English, 8.7wpm in Luganda and 12wpm in Lango and the implication was that, most Ugandan schools are struggling to overcome the home factors that make it difficult to children to achieve well".

Other aspects of QE mentioned are stakeholders' involvement in education (4.8%) and teacher qualification discussed above under collaboration and process respectively. Lunch provision to learners as a component of QE is discussed under challenges of quality achievement.

5.1.2 Provision of QA.

This section, gives a description of experiences towards the provision of QE. Experiences were based on efforts to provide QE.

5.1.2.1 SMC's Effort.

There is agreement that SMC's contributed to structural development of new classrooms, teachers' houses, latrines and renovation of classrooms. This is through "mobilizing parents to develop the infrastructures by funding projects /programs .and fundraisings", one SMC chairman asserted. This too, included paying for extra teaching (outside official hours) and employing extra teachers to supplement and abridge gaps created by staff ceilings and meet operational costs.

The main mode of approach is through mobilization and sensitization (57.3% [59]) of parents by SMC`s .The reason for this effort was that, under UPE policy where parents are not allowed to pay for anything and yet the UPE capitation grant to schools is inadequate ,schools are finding it difficult to operate normally.

Another effort is seen in SMCs endeavors to solve problems and resolve conflicts (25.2% [26]) among teachers themselves; between teachers and head teachers; teachers and parents and head teachers and parents. “At times, amongst SMC members”, a SMC member noted. The view in favour of this was that, conflicts deter progress which is key to QE. The interventions into conflicts were intended to create harmony and good working relationship among the different stakeholders to enhance collaboration.

Under MSL, guidance and counseling services (25.5% [26]) are provided by SMCs .The rationale behind this, is to develop good practices while executing duties. “Parents, teachers and learners need to work together to promote quality through SMCs’ guidance”, one SMC chairman said. Teachers are guided whenever they have social problems, challenges and professional indiscipline issues .The essence of this is to have positive change towards work and provide quality services towards education.

Teamwork (14.6% [15]) is another category. The view behind teamwork was to ensure that, “there existed a cordial working relationship and harmony among teachers if they (teachers) were to work towards a common vision and goal of the schools”, a SMC member commented. In arguing teachers to have teamwork, “the SMCs want to ensure existence of teacher - to –teacher working relationship” another member asserted. Teamwork is essential to QE if it`s goals are to be achieved .What each teacher does, contributes either positively or negatively towards QE thus scoring towards a common goal. Fayol’s fourteenth principle of management is on ‘spirit de corps’ promoting team spirit which builds harmony and unity within the organization [Robbins and Coulter, 1996,p.44].

Meetings (44.7% [46]) are SMC`s key effort through which they ensure that QE prevails in schools .This is where we “ discuss issues , or problems affecting school and seek solutions to them” one SMC chairman noted. These meetings are in form of SMC`s meetings, general parents` meetings, SMC/PTA meetings and class meetings to address specific academic problems /issues affecting particular classes. SMC/staff meetings to solve staff based problems. Most of these meetings are action-oriented, directed to seek consensus on specific challenges, problems or issues affecting schools to enhance QE.

Monitoring learner attendance(16.7% [17]) is another category. The rationale behind this venture is that between schools and home, learners miss out, some do not reach schools, and others escape from schools and miss lessons. Consequently, content covered is less and when examinations are done, these learners do not competently answer the questions. Parents, “ are urged to follow-up their children to attend regularly and look through their exercise books to follow the work done on a daily basis” a SMC member noted .Parents are,“asked to send to schools documents along their children who miss school to certify their absence”, another member added. Some SMC have selected specific parents to follow-up children`s` attendance.

Learner discipline (15.5% [16]) is a necessary undertaking to ensure that learners behave to the expected norms of the society .Another feeling in this context is that discipline, “ is a pre-requisite to learning if children are to grasp and understand what teachers teach them”, one SMC member noted. This is built against the premise that, “a disciplined learner is ever attentive, listens and ready to learn” a headteacher asserted. The learner is obedient to teachers and follows teacher`s guidance. “Such a learner is not a social out-cast”, a parent noted.

Lunch provision (27.7% [28]) had contradicting views. Some parents are providing lunch centrally organized at school, others are providing lunch in form of “*entanda (packed lunch)*” and others are opposed to providing lunch under the pretext that UPE policy does not allow them to pay for anything. However, the general

consensus on the rationale to provide lunch is that, “ it is necessary for children`s proper growth”. If learners are not fed, they feel sleepy during class and learning cannot take place. For children who bring “*entanda*” normally: “eat it on the way; throw it away because of the nature of food they bring compared to what other children bring –they feel ashamed of it; some children do not eat at home, others eat one meal and end up stealing other children`s food brought; by the time children eat this food, is cold and has gone bad; and others *pack stones* to pretend they have brought food because there is no food at home and because of the pressure at school to bring food,” teachers in unison revealed the habits.

5.1.2.2 Technocrats` perception of SMCs Effort.

In this subsection, I look at technocrats` (Education Managers) perception of SMCs` experience towards their effort to provide QE.

Although district staff, head teachers and teachers believe that SMCs contribute a lot in the provision of QE, they do not conduct supervision of teachers .This is on the premise that ,“they do not know what to do and where to begin from [ignorance] despite trainings they have had”, headteachers noted. This is due to ;

- (a) Their services being voluntary as per Kajubi Report (1999)
- (b) Illiteracy of the members; and
- (c) Not having time to do so

This explains why SMC members stop in the head teachers` office when they visit schools and fail to reach classes to see what teachers do and how the children learn. This further explains their window supervision some do.

There is also consensus on conflict resolution(39.6% [89]). SMCs play a role in resolving conflicts between teachers and head teachers, among teachers themselves; between SMC members and staff and at times between schools and communities in which schools are located. Through meetings, SMCs have done so. Solving conflicts is done against the background that they determine progress of the schools and

performance of staff. Where conflicts exist, there is no harmony; staff cannot advance towards achieving organizational goals.

5.1.2.3 Teacher`s experiences of providing QE at classroom level.

The core function of teachers at classroom level is the provision of QE. Teachers have professional obligations [CAP] to fulfill in providing QE. In achieving professional obligations (98.6% [205]), we have to “plan lessons daily to cater for the changing abilities and achievements of learners; writing schemes of work to guide our daily teaching and logical sequencing of content; ensure that learners’ exercise books are marked and to follow-up their progress and guide them through the common deficiencies detected and employ motivational strategies in our teaching to induce learners to achieve and grasp concepts”, teachers noted. Teachers have to teach from simple to complex and from known to unknown to utilize the learner’s experiences in teaching and learning as principles of teaching dictate. “Regular attendance is necessary in covering the syllabus and to avoid loss of contact hours with learners”, one teacher noted. Teachers have to ensure regular attendance of learners to avoid missing lessons. This, leads learners to getting less contact hours with teachers and consequently fail to cover content as expected. The end result of this is seen in poor performance in examinations. Relatedly, headteachers at classroom level have to provide support supervision to teachers to ensure that the teaching–learning process is fully implemented. Head teachers too, “provide instructional materials to teachers to enable them teach the content and bring out the desired educational goals”. Head teachers do monitor daily attendance of both teachers and learners to ensure that lessons are taught and attended to regularly respectively and that content is covered as set in the syllabus. “Maintaining a clean and conducive environment for learning at classroom level is another element which is key to teachers in achieving QE”, a teacher noted.

. Guidance and counseling (26.9% [56]) to learners is provided. Both head-teachers and teachers provide these services to learners to promote discipline, which is necessary in acquiring knowledge. This enables them live harmoniously in society and

to guide skills and talents learners possess in achieving their educational goals .Thus promoting social goals and social development.

Executive obligations (20.2% [42]) is another category found necessary to both head teachers and teachers in providing QE. While the head teachers have a role to convene and chair class meetings, teachers had a role to attend and deliberate on issues on the agenda .Generally, “we have to discuss strategies (strategic management) for better performance for each class”, teachers noted. Time management is another executive role to observe for timely implementation of policies at classroom level, “ especially implementing time tables, conducting lessons as stated in the syllabus and monitoring attendance” teachers further noted. Head teachers together with teachers develop work plans to guide day-to-day activities (operational management) of classes to guide achievement of goals towards QE.

5.1.2.4Teacher`s experiences of providing QE at school level.

Both head teachers and teachers agree on both professional (57.2% [119]) and executive (26.0% [54]) obligations to fulfill as stated in sub-section 5.1.2.3 but with a group effort approach. That is,

- (a) Scheming is done in groups (21.1% [44]) of teachers for respective subjects -this is true with some schools while others do it at individual levels.
- (b) Developing workplans for classes and schools as a team (11.5% [24]) and agreeing on schedules of implementing different activities (operational management).
- (c) Developing timetables
- (d) Attending meetings (22.1% [46]) and reach consensus on strategies to develop schools' performance and development (strategic management).
- (e) Developing a support system (52.9% [119]) unique to each school to supplement and support the core activities of schools. This is seen in the different clubs, projects and innovations schools conceive and put in place.

Teamwork is seen in the nature of oneness at school level in doing things to achieve institutional goals and achievements. Where team spirit exists, at a personal

experience, schools are performing better and schools have a different approach to doing things and the general outlook of these schools is different with a rich environment that supports the teaching – learning process. This is in favour of Fayol's fourteenth principle of management (Robbins & Coulter, 1996. p.44).

5.1.2.5 Teachers' experiences of providing QE at Community level.

There is consensus on inviting communities surrounding schools to functions (76.6% [158]) like meetings, exhibitions, speech days, class visits, sports days, music days, and education weeks, among others. Activities are “based on entertaining performances” a teacher noted. These functions, “are built on themes intended to mobilize, sensitize and educate parents/communities (70.7% [147]) on their roles and obligations towards education of their children” another teacher noted. The rationale behind this is to increase their awareness and levels of involvement and participation in education. Community involvement in education at a personal experience has a positive social achievement of knowing and owning what is going on in schools. Thus societal norms, culture and interests are promoted and maintained towards social development. As a result some parents/communities have contributed to the teaching -learning process. Equally, this is promoted through the outreach services the schools provide to the communities. Outreach services (13.0% [27]) noted are roads maintenance, wells/springs cleaning, sanitation, helping the elderly, visiting the sick and learners' homes, attending village meetings to address key issues in communities e.g. sanitation, education, environment, health etc. This is intended to cement the school/community relationship (14.9% [31]) which is necessary in bringing hands together in achieving QE objectives. To enhance this working relationship, schools have provided jobs(1.9% [4]), (cooks, compound men, markets for eats) to communities to earn a living thus promoting their SES – reducing poverty levels which is a challenge to QE. Thus communities seeing schools as part and partial of them and strengthen ownership and security of schools. This leads communities to support schools achieve their QE goals and objectives. CCTs as mentors (6.3% [13]) within their catchment areas have played a key role in getting communities'/parents' involvement and participation in education.

Where meetings and interventions mentioned above have taken place, with the involvement and collaboration of politicians, politicians have owned decisions and supported education activities. “Less or no political interference or bad politicking is taking place in such schools”, chairmen SMCs and headteachers commented.

5.1.2.6 Experiences of Education Managers (District and Ministries) in provision of QE.

Experiences with education managers is seen in their efforts to deploy (16.7% [4]) qualified teachers (HRM) to schools to ably handle learners, implement policies and execute the teaching – learning process with trained skills. This is in view of the Education Act, 2008 (sections 11 – 13, pp. 17 -18).

Related to deployment, managers have organized in-service trainings and staff development (70.8% [17]) programmes (refresher courses, short courses, workshops, orientations, mentoring, Continuous Professional Development [CPD]) with a view of polishing teachers’ methods of teaching and keep informed of new developments and innovations in education to match with the changing trends and needs in society.

However, at the beginning, managers have provided the recruitment criteria (8.3% [2]) for teachers at entry point to commence training and at entry point into service after qualifying/training to maintain their quality in service. That is, if quality teachers are recruited into teacher training colleges, there are chances of producing quality teachers. Again, if quality teachers are recruited in service with criteria to follow, QE is provided.

At a strategic management level, the managers develop and provide procedures and strategies (25% [6]) to the system to guide education quality. The recruitment procedure of teachers above is an example. Some strategies are intended to improve education quality like the Masaka strategy of ‘Operation Improve Primary Education’ intended to restore the glory of education to Masaka where a bye-law was passed by the district council with major components of expectations of teachers, head-teachers,

education officers, parents and other stakeholders. The expectations were geared towards improving QE. Other strategies include the model school strategy where each sub-county has two model schools. These two schools are given support, material, finance and human and mobilization/sensitization of stakeholders is high to serve the rest of the schools in the sub-county as an example. “The other schools are meant to learn from them and implement the good practices and experiences observed”, one officer added. Team inspection is another strategy meant to draw the expertise among officers into the teams and provide intensive inspections to schools and support supervision.

At ministry level, the strategies laid include “Customized Performance Targets (CPT) “now merged into” Performance Agreements” where head-teachers are signing annual agreements then give quarterly reports and annual reports on achievement levels reached over targets agreed on against performance/quality indicators. Media programmes to educate the various stakeholders on their roles and responsibilities in provision of QE is another strategy. At times this is done in partnership with NGOs involved in developing education.

“More meetings with head-teachers and less with teachers, is another avenue where we have interacted with them to discuss policy issues affecting QE in particular and the education system in general”, one officer noted. Findings of monitoring visits made and studies carried out either at district or national levels are disseminated to the teachers with their implications to QE. In such meetings, “we have condemned absenteeism among head-teachers, teachers and learners which is a challenge to QE”, another officer added. “Visits to district headquarters in uncoordinated manner have also been condemned”, one officer concluded. A lot of time is being wasted in such visits by teachers instead of concentrating on teaching and other school activities.

CCTs in their catchment areas, have concentrated on curriculum issues. Their effort is to ensure that content is covered through checking schemes of work, providing support supervision, monitoring teaching, community sensitization and choosing and

then develop centres of excellence in each coordinating centre for other schools to learn from. This rhymes with the model school strategy explained above. CCTs have too, provided demonstration lessons to schools. The major role of CCTs is to mentor teachers. Provision of demonstration lessons is geared towards sharpening teachers' skills and improving competencies in pedagogy.

5.1.3 Self Assessment.

In this sub-section, I present the self-assessment analysis of teachers, head-teachers and district officials based on their day-to-day experiences towards provision of QE.

Significant among teachers is failure to plan (91.5% [129]) lessons daily and prepare schemes of work on a termly basis thus contravening the Basic Requirements and Minimum Standards (BRMS) of Uganda (2010). This promotes teaching in uncoordinated way and failure to complete content and taking care of the changing needs of children and society.

Teachers accepted absenteeism (76.6% [108]) from schools which hindered their performance and failure to complete the syllabus. Their absence leads to learners' absence. Related to absenteeism was late coming (47.5% [67]) and early departure (7.1% [10]). They attributed this to staying far from schools which make them arrive late and leave early and at times completely fail to report for duty. This shortens time of contact with learners. Absence of teachers' houses at schools is the cause to this. However, there is a concern and challenge that, where houses have been constructed, teachers are refusing to stay in them.

Teacher indiscipline (19.1% [27]) in terms of serialized drunkardness, smoking, indecent dressing, in some cases sexual harassment of learners and use of abusive language (unprofessionalism in general). These, "make us not to fulfill our obligations as expected", one teacher commented. Further to unprofessionalism, they agree that, "they have not regularly assessed learners as expected and lack assessment records (9.2% [13])". This is due to crowded classes which make assessment difficult. Others, "stubbornly refuse to assess learners and give false results without marking learners'

work” one teacher commented. Then another added, “ where work is correct at times is marked wrongly and vice – versa”, a teacher asserted. Transfer of anger (2.8% [4]) to learners was another indiscipline element. Because of domestic problems (5.7% [8]), annoyance, misunderstandings with learners’ parents and headteachers or fellow teachers, “learners get the wrath of these causes which create a poor relationship between teachers and learners (transfer of anger 2.8%)”, one teacher commented. Learners consequently hate teachers and their subjects which lead to poor performance. Failure to follow the timetable (2.8% [4]) for organized teaching is another vice among teachers. At times a subject is covered in three periods going for doubles or triples without minding about the attention span of learners. This, on the other hand is used to dodge lessons (failure to teach, 49.6% [70]) or concentrating on a topic for along time and at the end little is covered. There is, “ a tendency of teachers resorting much of their effort on examinable subjects (5.75% [8]) at the expense of non-examinable subjects”, one teacher asserted. This leads non-examinable subjects to lag behind or never to be taught at all, thus injuring holistic development of a child and making curriculum incomplete. This is attributed to teachers’ lack of methods to teach (EGRA Report, 2010). Uncooperativeness (2.8% [4]), is another element of unprofessionalism. Teachers are not cooperative to one another especially when one is away others do not want to take care of the teachers’ lessons. In other cases, they do not want to put efforts together to achieve organizational goals. They are interested in accomplishing activities as individuals. These tendencies have contributed to teachers’ incompetency.

Public assessment (5.7% [8]) - the public judge us teachers,” as people of low class, poor and when we commit a crime we are condemned as social outcasts unlike people of other sectors/professions” a teacher noted. Due to poverty levels(5.7%) among teachers, they feel they are ”not taking their children to good schools as children of the people whose children they teach and are not constructing good houses,” another teacher added. So, they are demotivated and consequently neglect work.

Teachers have language barrier (5.7% [8]) – they do not understand English nor Luganda (Local languages) as mediums of instruction to learners. UN Children's Charter advocates for children learning in their mother tongue in the first three years of learning. This explains their incompetency, impersonation and forgery of documents as they narrated. I also noticed this during the interview sessions. Some teachers could not express themselves in either languages and I had on many occasions to elaborate a lot in order to achieve what I wanted.

Headteachers believed they lack managerial skills (40.3% [27]) to handle both teachers and learners. As a result of this, headteachers, have exhibited inefficiency and incompetency thus resorting to threatening teachers and cause unnecessary and frequent transfers of teachers", one headteacher asserted. Sources of lack of managerial skills are attributed to corruption and nepotism in appointing: " incompetent headteachers; newly qualified teachers without experience; and secondary school teachers (misappropriation of human resource) who do not know the system to head primary schools" headteachers asserted. Cited among other causes is failure to delegate duties to their subordinates, absence of transparency in revealing UPE funds disbursed to schools and failure to use school finance committees to plan for the schools and impersonation. These have led to schools to be mismanaged with scant development, poor performance academically and in some cases leading enrolment to go down an indicator of parents losing interest and trust in the schools.

Headteachers attribute their absenteeism (92.5% [62]), late coming and early departure from schools to owning private schools and give more time and effort to their own schools and less to their stations of work. " Imprompt meetings (6.0% [4]) organized by the district, fear of debts we incur as individuals or as headteachers on behalf of schools in absence of early release of UPE funds, failure to reside at schools (3.0% [2]) where teachers' houses are cause our absenteeism", headteachers noted. This scenario has resulted into headteachers' failure to: supervise or to provide inadequate supervision to teachers and school activities; fully implement programmes and policies; and attend meetings thus creating information vacuum to schools which lead to non-compliance to policies or demands made by DEO's office or MOES.

Headteachers assert that, “their negative attitude towards work (3.0% [2]) with a matter –of – fact attitude is government’s failure to increase their salaries (6.0% [4]) yet that of teachers has been increased several times. Interference by politicians in schools’ decisions has hindered performance and progress of schools. This is a demotivator to them.

Headteachers believe that there is misappropriation of UPE funds and other funds paid in by parents through diversion, bribing SMC and district officers, lending it to SMCs and at times using it for their personal ends (absence of transparency 19.4% [13]). Misappropriation reduces the purchasing and utility levels and failure to accomplish activities geared to achieving QE. Consequently, headteachers have become greedy – do not want to allocate the little funds/resources available to teachers thus lowering teachers’ morale towards work.

Headteachers are not acting as role models (70.1% [47]) to teachers as a motivating factor. They, “come late, leave early, are ever absent and do not have classes to teach to serve as examples”, headteachers noted. They also, “do not recognize teachers’ efforts even a word of thanks is not said thus demotivating teachers to put in extra effort in what they do”, another headteacher concluded.

District officials in their self-assessment assert that they have not fulfilled their obligations. That is, “we have failed to write reports”, one officer noted. Implying that, officers do not inspect schools thus the district authority not being informed of what is happening in the field. Secondly, “failure to prepare workplans as government policy requires”, another officer added. Meaning that, day-to-day education activities were not guided by workplans. Thirdly, “failure to report in time”, another officer concluded. This, shorten the time of active work and accomplishing less assignment. Consequently, this in general leads to failure to meet targets and timeframes in which to accomplish tasks. The Daily Monitor of Thursday, November 18, 2010, under the article, ‘schools directed to step up inspection’ while at the 17th Annual Education Review Workshop, participants

identified “low retention and recruitment of unskilled teachers in some districts, shortage of teachers, absenteeism, inadequate and outdated instructional materials, ineffective inspection and poor teaching methodologies as factors affecting quality of education in the country” (p.6).

“Working relationship (5.9%) among district education staff is poor. This is due to, “social status, education levels and ego interests”, one officer noted. The, “majority of officers are secondary school teachers who feel superior to their counterparts with primary teacher education background”, another added. Each group minimizes the other thus creating a poor relationship which is detrimental to achieving QE goals.

5.1.4. Challenges faced in the provision of QE.

In this subsection I focus on the challenges the different stakeholders interviewed faced in their effort to provide QE.

Absenteeism, late coming and early departure of headteachers (25.9% [87]), teachers (57.6% [197]) and learners (70.7% [237]) are major challenges. “Headteachers’ absence from schools leads teachers to absent themselves and consequently learners disappear from schools or do not attend schools at all”, respondents noted with concern. As a result, lessons are not taught neither attended to which lowers performance and enrolment in schools. In the New vision of Monday, September 1, 2008 under the article “Uganda top in teacher absenteeism”, it was noted that ‘Uganda has the highest rate of teacher absenteeism in Africa. ... a recent survey showed that in a school of 10 teachers, at least four were absent at any given time’ (p.7). ‘Such absenteeism was one of the causes of poor academic standards’ (Ibid). The New vision of Tuesday June 8, 2010 under the article, “Mixed fortunes for Uganda’ education sector”, cited “Absenteeism as one of its challenges. Contact time between teachers and students, is one of the key factors that can ensure quality in education, but teacher absenteeism rates continue to soar” (p.22).

Apart from headteachers’ and teachers’ absence as cause to learners’ absence, market days, domestic chores/labour (2.4% [8]), economic activities in the respective sub-

counties are cited as other causes to this vice. Under this situation, “it is difficult for learners missing lessons to catch up with those attending daily”, one teacher concluded. Thus, learners miss a lot of content and fail to finish the syllabus and cannot adequately answer the examinations.

Private schools (17.6% [59]) are a challenge to QE as some are owned by headteachers and teachers who resort much of their time and effort on their personal schools and less if not none to schools where they earn a salary. These teachers, “drain government UPE schools of their bright children under the disguise of sponsorship”, a SMC member noted. The textbooks meant to be used in government schools, “are found in these private schools thus disadvantaging government schools of the necessary IM”, another member asserted. Primary seven candidates from these private schools are registered under the schools where the headteachers and teachers operate to give a false impression that the schools are performing well.

Ignorance/illiteracy of parents and SMCs (35.5% [120]). Because of ignorance and illiteracy levels among parents, “they are not following what is happening in the schools”, headteachers noted. They are, “not monitoring their children’s attendance and learning, they are not providing learners with school requirements and they are easily influenced by politicians thus diverting them from decisions reached in school meetings”, SMCs asserted. Parents are not role models to learners at home and the environment at home is not conducive to support learners’ learning. SMC members on the other hand, because of illiteracy levels, are ignorant of what is going on in schools. They, “do not know what to look for in classes”, teachers and headteachers commented. This explains why there is no supervision of teachers, monitoring of learners’ attendance and learning and why SMC members stop at the headteachers’ office (15.8% [53]) and then go away. It is against this background that headteachers have exerted influence (3.3% [11]) to SMC to the extent of SMC signing open cheques for headteachers to withdraw funds from banks at their convenience and teachers looking down upon them and similarly under rate them.

There are uncoordinated transfers of learners (12.5% [42]) from school at any time of each term. Some learners,” have transferred themselves from school to school without the knowledge of their parents”, headteachers reported or parents have transferred them. Unfortunately, “headteachers have accepted them”, parents responded. This destabilizes learners’ learning and teachers cannot get to know learners’ abilities and inabilities. Follow up of learners’ performance becomes difficult and leads to poor performance. Relatedly, in the New vision of 18/02/2008 under the article “changing schools, why you need to weigh the options”, it was indicated that “adjusting to new instructions can be daunting for even the most resilient child” (p.19) among other factors

National impromptu programmes (12.5% [42]) where teachers, “are involved like census and voting that are done during school time divert teachers’ attention and abandon teaching for sometime”, headteachers and SMCs complained. Learners loose contact hours with teachers. Timetables get mixed up and time wasted thus failure to complete the syllabus in time.

Presence of crowded classes (49.6% [166]) thus raising high pupil-teacher ratios is a challenge too. “Over populated classes ranging from 50 – 200 learners especially in lower classes (P.1 –.P3) with limited staff ceilings have hindered us from marking learners’ work”, teachers reported. “We give very little work covering a limited scope and fail to provide individualized teaching and assistance”, teachers further noted. Because of this, children sit on the floor due to inadequate furniture thus killing the sitting postures which affect the writing skills. The Dairy Monitor of Tuesday, June 8, 2010 under the title ‘Mixed fortunes for Uganda’s education sector’ asserted that, “Uganda has invested hugely in its education sector. But, this investment has not translated into real gains. While more children are attending school today, the quality remains weak” (p.22). It further suggested that, “the government needs to focus on infrastructure development and motivating the teachers” (Ibid). In a similar tone, the Observer of November 23, 25, 2009, under the title ‘UPE a victim of its success’ noted

that, “the increasing enrolment continues to mount, inspection and poor teaching methodologies as factors affecting quality of education in the country” (p.6).

Unprofessionalism (26.3% [88]) as indicated in subsection 5.1.3 above is also a challenge which has down played QE. Unprofessionalism has caused drop-out rates to rise in schools thus lowering enrolments. Due to trends of unprofessionalism identified (subsection 5.1.3), a class of p.1 with 125 learners end up with only 30 – 45 learners in P.7, learners continue dropping out in P.2 to P.7. Statistics show that the national completion rate fell from 60% in 2004 to 48% in 2006 and continue to show the same trend (The New Vision of Monday, September 29, 2008). This is attributed to “absence of teachers and unprofessionalism among teachers” (Ibid).

Other causes to drop out rates are parents’ attitude (12.7% [43]) towards education as a result of their ignorance/illiteracy levels and poverty among parents which fail them to provide learners with school requirements and eventually drop out of schools. The New vision of Monday, September 29, 2008 attributed dropout rates to “parents ‘ attitude towards education – failure to provide school requirements” (p.9). In a similar tone, the Dairy Monitor of Monday, May 2008, under the article “one million children out of school Ministry”, drop out was attributed to “poverty as the major challenge keeping most children out of school and children from poor household usually drop out of school to help parents to fund the families or due to failure by parents to provide them with scholastic materials like books and pens (p.3).

UPE factor (65.7% [22]). UPE Policy in itself is a road block to quality in that it has contradicting/segregative guidelines for municipal/city schools and rural schools. Urban schools are allowed to levy Ushs. 10,400/= per child per term for operational costs and Ushs. 10,000= or Ushs. 5,000/= for solid or liquid foods respectively whereas rural schools are not allowed. Obligations of each stakeholder to fulfill are stated (MOES, UPE Hand book, 1998) but when it comes to implementation, learners are not allowed to be sent home for parents to fulfill their obligations. The same policy allows communities to contribute towards school developments, when meetings are convened

to see the way forward, the policy bars them from doing so, Education Act 2008 (Part III, section 9). UPE capitation grant itself is inadequate and is released late and at different rates leaving schools to operate without funds and incur debts. For example document analysis revealed that on 15/09/2006 a school received Ushs. 567,953= and in two months later 17/11/2006 the same school received Ushs. 312,499= against the same enrolment. Another school on 03/10/2006 received Ushs. 243,000= and two months later it received Ushs. 221,000= for the same enrolment. The Observer of November 23 – 25, 2009 noted “UPE a victim of its success” (p.6).

Automatic Promotion Policy (12.5 % [42]) is a challenge to quality in that, “it has hindered learners from attending classes with a hope of going to another class automatically”, respondents reported. It has “persuaded learners not to take studies seriously”, one headteacher noted. This has resulted into learners not mastering numeracy and reading skills which lead to poor performance. This is seen in learners’ failure to master reading, writing and numeracy below 50% as NAPE reports have indicated. This emanates from teachers’ lack of methods to teach (EGRA Report, 2010). The concern of both parents and teachers is that, “after PLE as learners enter post primary institutions for USE (Universal Secondary Education) the pass limit is 28 aggregates, then why automatic promotion from P1 to P6 and not automatic promotion at p.7 into senior one?” they asked.

Political influence (70.7% [237]) among politicians based on “misinterpretation of policies and looking for popularity as a way of soliciting for votes has deterred progress, development of schools and provision of QE”, respondents stressed. Due to bad politicking, everything is being politicized thus influencing parents not to participate in the education of their Children. To the politicians, everything under UPE is ‘free’.

Lunch provision to learners. Very few learners have had lunch at schools, the majority go without lunch. Packed meals (entanda) are not brought as indicated in section 5.1.2. “Less attention to lunch provision is attributed to the UPE Policy where everything at school including lunch is claimed to be free and where parents are not

supposed to pay for anything”, a chairman of SMC pointed out. “This is coupled with political interference”, a headteacher added. As a result, learners are: starved, get sleepy during lessons and fail to follow what is being taught; influenced to steal people’s fruits from gardens surrounding the schools and fellow learners’ food of those who bring in packed meals. In totality, “learners do not grasp what teachers teach them due to hunger”, teachers and headteachers noted with concern. Hopefully, guidelines provided on provision of lunch (MOES, 2012) will yield good results. However, respondents’ voices are that, “children should be fed while at school”. This is in line with the School Health Policy of Uganda Section 5, Sub – section 5-4 (2003, pp. 6-7) part 5.4.1 which states, “ The MOES/MOH shall provide and ensure that all educational institutions success and adhere to dietary guidelines”. Part 5.4.2, further indicates that, “ Parents , educational institutions and other stakeholders shall provide all day pupils/students with at least a hot meal each day while at school”. This is further envisaged in the Uganda Food and Nutrition Policy (2003), Sub-section 2.3 – Guiding Principles of the Policy part 2.3.1 states, “ Adequate food and nutrition is a human right”.

Accommodation to teachers within school compounds is limited to a very few schools. Teachers are residing far from schools which make them come late to schools, leave early before the end of the day (5.00pm) and in most cases fail to come to schools which tantamount to absenteeism. The end result is failure to complete the syllabus, loosing contact hours with the learners and failure to guide the learners.

Cross-cutting issues (60.0% [204]) – women emancipation, gender and HIV/AIDS. It is a common trend in attendance of school meetings where, “the majority (90%) are women standing in for their husbands or they are family heads” SMC chairmen and headteachers noted. When decisions are taken, “men back at home dishonour the decisions which consequently affect their implementation at schools”, the same respondents concluded. Similarly, “ learners’ brothers or sisters represent parents in meetings but when decisions are taken, fathers at home defer decisions reached which fail their implementation”, a member of SMC interjected. Attending school meetings is no longer a men’s obligation.

Gender imbalance in schools is another snag. In three schools, it was observed that out of (a) 10 teachers, 8 were females and 2 males.

(b) 17 teachers, 11 were females and 6 males

(c) 22 teachers, 13 were female and 9 were males. “ This implies that if for example 2 – 3 female teachers (if not all) get pregnant and later go for maternity leave for 60 days each, the school will have a gap in staffing “, a headteacher commented. Consequently, teaching will not take place. Learners will lose lessons and syllabus will not be completed leading to poor performance.

HIV/AIDS scourge is another issue affecting standards in schools. Some teachers are positive, implying that at one time or the other are bed ridden or occasionally weak and have to get medical visits to doctors. This calls for being absent from schools occasionally causing the same repercussions to learning as gender imbalance.

Inadequate infrastructure (31.9% [107]) -classrooms, furniture, toilets are inadequate, there are no laboratories and there is shortage of water in schools. Learners receive lessons under trees and some are seated on the ground. “Where classrooms are available, in some cases there is no furniture and learners seat on the floor”, a SMC asserted. Teachers and learners are sharing the (2 or 3) toilet stances available. There are “no laboratories to use in the teaching of science subjects”, teachers commented. “Shutters to windows and doors are missing which renders it impossible to teachers to put up teaching – learning aids in classes”, headteachers added. This scenario, leads to un-conducive environment in classrooms and schools in general thus affecting the teaching – learning process. In the Dairy Monitor of Monday, September 29, 2009 under the article “Development Goals: Uganda on course but challenges remain”, noted in Arua district, “at Eudin primary school, only pupils in the top classes sit on desks. The rest, are condemned to the often cold dusty floors” (p.3). The article continued to assert that, “such challenges have consistently dogged many schools under the UPE. UPE has increased enrolment in primary schools from 3.1million in 1996 to 8.2million today, but failure by government to provide sufficient facilities threaten its success”, (Ibid). In a similar tune, Bukedde (Newspaper) of June 18, 2008 under the article “Gavumenti Etumbule omutindo ku UPE (Government should

improve quality of UPE), a school in Nakasongola district, was cited with “learners sitting on the floor except those with mats, had no blackboard, even books in which to write” (p.10). The Observer of November 23 – 25, 2009 under the title, UPE a victim of its own success’ it was indicated that “investment in primary education has not yet turned into real gains, it is strong on enrolment figures but weak on quality. Gross enrolment chunked by 132% from 3.1million in 1997 to 7.5million pupils in 2007 /2008 and latest estimates by MoES is 8.2million” (p.13).

5.2 Monitoring and Evaluation (M/E).

In this section, I present, interpret and discuss data on M/E at school level, by district education office and by the centre.

5.2.1 M/E at School level.

Supervision of teaching/teachers (56.7% [186]) existed. Head-teachers, deputies heads of departments, SMCs, CCTs and of recent Senior Education Assistants are conducting the supervision of both the teaching process and the teachers. This is done daily, weekly or twice a month and others at no given time (imprompt supervision). This is done to provide support supervision with a view of improving teacher performance. After teachers are seen in classes teaching, conferencing follows as clinical supervision requires (Cogan [1973, p.9], Goldhammer et al [1993, p.4]). During conferencing, discussions are based on observations made during the teaching – learning process and a report is given to both the teacher supervised and the head-teacher as an overall supervisor of the school. At a personal experience level, where constant supervision is done, improvement in performance of both teachers and learners has been noted. Performance at PLE go up to 90+% first grades and children are able to read and write with confidence.

Team supervision (13.4% [44]) at sub-county level and district is used as a mode of inspection. Head-teachers reported that, “at sub-county level together with area education officers (at times), team up and visit individual schools who subsequently reports to the district”. At district level, “we have in most cases paired up or in threes

move around schools for inspection and generate reports”, officers reported. The advantage of this is that, different skills are put together to look at different areas with expertise and speeds up the exercise at a single school with a comprehensive approach.

However, there is across-section of teachers who assert that, “there is no supervision (7.3% [24]) taking place in schools”. This assertion is backed by document analysis made that indicated that there are no records of supervision reports (2.4% [8]) in schools. Relatedly, 9.1% (30) reported that, “ verbal reports exist”. Findings too, reveal nepotism in supervision (2.4% [8]). “Head-teachers supervise teachers basing on the relationship that exist between the head-teachers and teachers”, one teacher noted. Teachers, “that have good working relationship with head-teachers are not supervised yet, those with poor-working relationship with the head-teachers are supervised and are the ones to be presented to the inspectors on arrival in schools”, another teacher concluded. This scenario has created camps in staffs where at times non-performing teachers are protected by head-teachers which is detrimental to achieving QE goals.

Findings on learner assessment indicate that assessment was done on a daily basis. Every after each lesson taught daily, we give exercises in each subject to assess the impact and understanding of the content taught”, teachers revealed. This made teachers change their methods of teaching or techniques of teaching, use of instructional materials if they were not used and given remedial work where necessary. In some schools, monthly tests or mid-term tests are conducted basing on the resources available and finally end of term tests. Best performers in each category of testing are recognized and rewarded as principles dictate. .

However, teachers accepted that, “learner assessment has been characterized by commercialized tests bought from secretarial bureaus/shops”. In most cases these tests are not prepared by experts neither set basing on the content covered. In this sense, both teachers and learners are at a disadvantage. Teachers are not given chance to set tests basing on the content covered neither set tests basing on the understanding of their learners. Thus, teachers miss capacity building in test practices

and are raped of their professionalism. Learners on the other hand, do tests on content not yet covered or outside the scope and context of content they are meant to cover. Relatedly, the tests are above the language levels the learners are familiar with and are consequently rated non-performers. Testing is proceeded by assessment meetings (3.4% [11]) by staff to analyze and evaluate performance of learners and consequently take decisions on individual learners and teachers teaching the various subjects. Evaluation meetings were characterized by selective promotions (1.2% [4]) especially at the end of the year contrary to automatic promotion policy in place for quality control purposes. Schools are setting criteria for promotions of at least 50% marks in every subject and a learner to have mastered reading, numeracy and writing skills, the aspects MoES considers key to QA (2005, p.54).

Monitoring learning (25.9% [85]) is another category noted. SMC and head-teachers revealed that, “they monitor learning as a way to follow up both teachers and learners’ work”. Head-teachers check teachers’ schemes of work and lesson preparation to ascertain the trend of teaching – learning process and the frequency of planning. Learners’ exercise books are too, checked to ascertain, teachers’ frequency of marking the exercises given, the accuracy and consistency in marking and to relate exercises done to schemes of work and lesson planning. Findings show, “some exercise books are marked while others are not marked; some work is skipped and wastage of space in exercise books; some correct work is marked wrong and some wrong work is marked correct”, SMC members and headteachers revealed. The findings are reported to headteachers for necessary action. However, this is true with some SMC members who are educated and those who were once teachers especially in urban areas and a few in rural set up. This confirms the self assessment teachers made in sub-section 5.1.3 above. At a personal experience, as an inspector of schools, as I check learners’ exercise books, I have noted these anomalies. Secondly I have noted absence of daily planning of lessons and failure to complete or total failure of writing schemes of work or using schemes of work of past years. This has facilitated unplanned teaching and made assessment of teaching difficult leading to failure to complete syllabus.

Some SMC members accept “visiting schools on invitation and stop in the head-teachers’ offices”. This implies that there is no monitoring by SMCs. This is further attributed to “illiteracy and non-professionalism among us (SMC) members”. UPE funds have equally been monitored (3.7% [11]) by SMCs to ensure value for money though illiteracy and non-professionalism have equally affected this, to the extent of SMC members concerned, signing blank cheques, giving head-teachers a rue -way to mismanage the funds

Equally, both learner (8.2% [27]) and teacher (4.9% [16]) attendance is monitored though at a low rate. We (parents) “have monitored our children’s attendance by visiting schools though occasionally”. At home, “we ask for work done if s(he), attended school”, another rural parent commented. However, learner absenteeism nationally has remained at 25% (MoES 2010) daily. With teachers,”SMCs monitor them through visiting schools regularly “, one Father-in-charge (Catholic Priest) of education said. We make sure through these visits that headteachers and they deputies stay at schools and supervise work and ensure that teachers have taught children”, he added. Foundation bodies(where Catholic Priests belong), have played a leading role in monitoring attendance thus dispelling out the rape of roles foundation bodies noted and re-affirms circular No.5/05 of January 10th, 2005 – supervisory Roles of Foundation Bodies (MoES, 2008, PR. 52 – 53).

A cross section of teachers (11.0% [36]) revealed that, “during inspection visits, written reports were given to both teachers and schools, indicating their strengths and weaknesses with recommendations on the way forward”. This leads to a follow up system in the subsequent inspection visits. Another section of teachers (9.1% [30]) assert that, “they are given verbal reports thus making the follow up system (1.5% [6]) difficult”. The latter scenario was backed by document analysis made which revealed absence of records of inspection made thus refuting the former scenario. However, while head-teachers note that they use written reports to appraise teachers, report to the district(s) in case of disciplinary action or other decisions, making decisions or for planning purposes and formulating school based policies, absence of written reports

defeated the essence of these important functions to management of schools and failure to regulate trends of QE.

5.2.2 M/E by District Education Office.

Monitoring/Inspection of schools/teaching by district officials had a mixed feeling and perception by respondents. While 51.5% (169) believed “there is no inspection”, 25.9% (85) assert that, “there is inspection though inadequate”. Others 5.8% (19), say “inspection is on invitation by head-teachers, targeting teachers on parallel terms with head-teachers”. The common view is that it is rarely done and on the occasions it is done, inspectors sample a few schools especially those on the main roads. Schools far from the main roads, rural schools especially and mainly in hard- to- reach areas do not receive inspection visits.

This is contrary to DES’ inspection policy of each school being inspected once in a term. District officials opt to inviting head-teachers to district/county meetings to bring information required instead of officials visiting schools to generate data. This has created a communication gap between district officials and teachers. Teachers are not up-dated with new policies and developments as head-teachers tend to conceal information. District officials accept inadequate inspection ascribing it to inadequate facilitation. “We do not effectively see all schools and classes; we sample schools and classes we go to; we refer to schemes of work, lesson plans and records of work”, one district official asserted. This, affirms the assertions that one; inspectors stop in the head-teachers office thus baptizing them “head-teachers’ visitors”. Secondly, inspectors are secondary school teachers who do not know anything about primary education neither supervision (unlike teacher educators who should primarily be inspectors) thus not knowing what to do as one inspector (a secondary school teacher) confessed to head-teachers in a meeting that “me, I don’t know what to do in primary schools you should guide me through”. It is against this background that one SMC member indicated that, “no inspection is done, it is done from the windows later s(he) sends the teacher to tell the head-teacher to organize for his/her transport, a condition officials put across when coming for inspection”. However, one district education manager later

asserted that “supervision has been done of late and I think they are going there” due to quarterly releases of inspection funds.

CCT interventions at 14.6% are seen supervising teachers while teaching and giving support where necessary. This is the category referred to above in giving written reports to teachers. By appointments, CCTs are mentors to teachers in their respective catchment areas within the coordinating centres. Like district officials they have also been involved in mobilization and sensitization of parents for their involvement and participation in education related activities for improving QE. This is mainly on invitation and after identifying gaps in the parents’ involvement in education during monitoring visits.

5.2.3 M/E by the Centre.

This refers to M/E done by the mother ministry – Local Governments and line ministry -Education and Sports and its agency for standards – DES.

The general consent is that, there is absence of supervision at 90.2% (296) by the centre. The little supervision done, is of monitoring specific activities, programmes and projects at 8.2% (27) specifically in urban schools and schools within reach especially on main roads. This has made supervision by the centre inadequate and segregative in nature to only urban schools and schools on the main roads. At times, “they organize district meetings for head-teachers through district officials and get the information they want or inform them (head-teachers) their agenda”, one headteacher revealed. On the rare occasions (0.8%) the officers from the centre have visited schools, “they have stopped in the head-teachers’ offices as district officials do”, another headteacher commented. This scenario has created a communication gap and absence of touch between the centre and teachers. Likewise, some head-teachers are reluctant to disseminate data to teachers. In this context, teachers feel neglected by the centre and their views, challenges and problems they come across in the day-to-day experiences in education are not heard and feel they are not part of the system thus have nothing to contribute to the system and QE. These visits to schools by the centre

could have given the teachers the opportunity to contribute to the education system to which they are part.

However, there is a belief that the M/E process aids the collection of data which leads to the generation of reports. The reports and data collected leads to recommendations that inform both the decision making and policy formulation processes for improvement of QE. The M/E process at the ministry is guided by M/E Framework (2001) designed by the ministry with QA indicators to guide its achievements.

5.3 Policy Formulation.

In this section, I present, interpret and discuss data on the impact of policy formulation over QA in a decentralized set up in education.

Dilemma is expressed in the automatic promotion policy at 39.3% (129) as a source of poor performance and absenteeism in schools. It is MOES' policy under UPE programme not to retain learners in any class regardless of achievement levels reached due to monetary implications. By implication a learner has to be promoted to another class whether s(he) attended classes or not. This has under mined quality in the sense that, " learners are relaxed because they are protected by the policy and consequently teachers are demoralized to produce quality results because weak children just go through the system", a SMC member noted. It is against this background that teachers on their own initiative introduced selective promotion discussed in M/E (section 5.2). This means that, there is absence of policy observation due to its negative impact on performance and attendance of learners. On the other hand, absence of policy observation in terms of failure to prepare lessons daily and writing schemes of work for a full term before it commences contrary to BRMS (MoES, 2010) has negatively impacted the performance of both teachers and learners. The teaching-learning process is not guided by planning; it is incidental in most cases.

Under UPE Policy(27.4% [90]), stakeholders feel everything at schools is free and being provided for by government. This implication is tagged to misinterpretation of policy (8.2%[31]) and political influence (4.0% [13]) where bad politicking and earning cheap popularity play a role to suit personal interests. Under this policy, “there is a restriction to the management of institutions not to send away learners for anything”, headteachers asserted. With this restriction, the same policy stipulates obligations to each stakeholder. Parents as stakeholders, “ are obliged to provide school necessities – exercise books, pens, pencils, lunch etc. (UPE Guidelines, 1998)”, headteachers further noted. Where parents have failed to provide them, teachers are barred from sending away learners. How then, should learners get these requirements to facilitate the teaching – learning process? The policy also presents limitations to individual parents’ involvement in education and transfers it to community participation even if some parents in the community do not have children in that particular school.

In a related development to UPE factor, is the policy guidelines to contradict the policy (22.3% [73]) and segregate schools (6.4% [21]) -rural versus urban. Urban schools, especially municipal and city schools are allowed to levy each learner Ushs. 10,400= for operational costs and Ushs. 10,000= or Ushs. 5,000= for solid food or liquid food respectively per term. A case that do not apply to rural schools (UPE Guidelines, 1998). Does this imply that rural schools do not incur operational costs? Or, children in rural schools are not entitled to feeding! Headteachers and SMC members wondered. This partly explains the existing imbalance in performance at PLE in urban and rural schools (UNEB, 2010). Secondly, this creates policy gaps (2.7% [9]) in such a social policy, thus creating gaps in society and management structures as the case is with CCTs and districts. Thirdly, this leads to policy implementation failure (2.7% [9]) since guidelines are conflicting/confusing and contradicting (15.5% [51]) or due to total refusal by head-teachers to implement strategies put in place.

There is consensus and from a personal experience, that due to women emancipation school meetings have been dominated by women parents. When decisions in such meetings are taken, they over -whelmingly support them for the good

of their children. However, when it comes to decision making at home, the husbands turn down the decisions taken at school meetings which they never attended. This is due to social imbalance husbands exert on women at home – men take the lions share in decision making.

Although there are codes of conduct for teachers and inspectors (14.3%) to guide the teachers through the profession and inspectors in the inspection of schools respectively, the consensus is that there is absence of a QA policy in place (23.1%) that directs the provision of QE in schools. The teachers' code of conduct concentrated on the profession, the child and teacher as a person. While the inspectors code of conduct , (Handbook for school inspectors, DES) focuses on the inspector as a person, and skills expected of him/her. Both codes are silent about the feeding of learners, the process (inputs), product (output); performance and qualifications as building blocks of QA. The BRMS deals mainly with the process without attaching the expected benchmarks (standards indicators) although the monitoring and evaluation framework inadequately stipulates a few against inputs and outputs on access, equity, relevancy and quality.

At a personal experience, these aspects are inadequately stipulated and scantily exist in some documents.

As a result of M/E findings there is a policy formulation process in the MoES which begins with a M/E working group composed by officials at departmental level with donors that analyze the findings. Then, the analyzed M/E results are sent to sector policy and management working group composed of Director of Education as Chairperson, Commissioners, Assistant Commissioners, Secretary of M/E working group, and semi –autonomous bodies (see chapter 2). After this stage, the outcomes are sent to Education Sector Consultative Committee whose composition is the PS/MOES as Chairperson; semi-autonomous bodies. Funding Agencies, civil society, representatives of teachers' associations – primary and secondary education; UN, Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development; Gender and Public Service (cooperating Ministries). After this stage, it is sent to top-management of MOES

(Ministers, Permanent Secretary, Directors, Commissioners and Autonomous bodies) for consultation and approval. If deemed necessary by top management then it is sent to implementers. If it needs further consultation, it is passed on to Annual Education Sector Review for consensus building and review of performance. After this stage, it is passed on to cabinet if there are legal implications to draw the attention of the Attorney General and possibly to Parliament if it fits to come out as a law. If there are no legal implications then it is communicated to implementers.

This reaffirms the concept that M/E process has an input into the policy formulation process that shapes the provision of QE. Secondly, that it is the role of the line MoES to provide policies and standards that govern the education sector in the local governments. This is in line with Local Government Act (1997) sections 97-98.

In a related process, the MOES has a resource allocation procedure spearheaded by a Budget Sector Working Group. This group deals with vote holders – MOES (departments), Universities, donors, finance and semi-autonomous bodies who agree on priorities and allocations made. After the allocations, Annual Planning and Budget Workshops – nation wide every March are conducted for consultation and consent which translates into a national sector (education) budget.

5.4 Decentralization.

In this last section, I deal with decentralization focusing on areas of excellence and threatening the implementation of the decentralization strategy in the primary education sector in regard to QA.

5.4.1 Areas of excellence under Decentralization.

Service delivery at 49.0%(164) features as a significant achievement in the implementation of decentralization. The assertion by respondents is that, “ services were brought nearer to the people”. “It takes less time and less costs to travel to district headquarters to be served than when someone had to travel long distances to move to the capital – Kampala to have issues solved unless the situation warrants so”, teachers

in particular commented. However, some people still travel long distances to district headquarters although the distances are un-comparable to that of Kampala. Districts have also disciplined and promoted teachers through the DSC. In the event of service delivery, employment opportunities to people within and outside the district have been created. Although at a negative side, it has yielded to nepotism and overstaying of teachers (workers) at work stations. Discretion to decision making without any external influence in the provision of services has been made. Basing on community and individual school needs/concerns that give inputs in the budgeting process. Again discretion to resource allocation in order to solve problems exercised. This implies that both district and sub-county councils make decisions that determine their fate – failure or success to whatever destiny they want to go. Thus, the nature of QE in any district rests in the hands of the district governments and that resources allocated to QE are necessary if objectives of quality education are to be achieved.

At a strategic planning level, building ownership among people and workers of the district is enhanced. People of the district plan for their own development – setting targets to be accomplished and they desire to see, thus owning the planning process. This leads to conceiving development oriented programmes.

In nutshell, everything is done at the district headquarters. The assumption of decentralization was that decision making, close supervision of services/activities, parents' participation and 'SMCs' full participation in educational activities be realized. This is true with the constitutional expectations in devolution of powers to local governments under decentralization (Uganda Constitution, 1995, p.16). The Local Government Act, 1997, p.9).

In terms of IDM, construction of classrooms/toilets (54.6% [183]) and furniture provision (22.7% [76]) is another significant development. Under SFG and LGDP programmes these structures and other assets have been extended to schools basing on evaluation of the situations in schools and decisions are made at the district. However, these structures have no sustainability strategies left behind for schools to maintain them. Given the UPE guidelines where schools are not supposed to levy

learners and are not allowed operational costs especially to rural schools, how then are these schools maintained to the standard they were constructed?

Procurement of textbooks (56.7% [190]) under DIMP programmes, districts had chance to procure textbooks basing on the choices of schools under approved book lists by MoES (DIMP Guidelines, 2002 – 2007). Learners had books to read and borrow from schools (placing textbooks in the hands of children – circular No. INS/212/290/01 of 26/01/2003 – MoES, 2008). This brought the book – pupil ratio to almost 1:3 although this was characterized by alteration of orders (3.3% [11]). However, in 2008, the DIMP programme shifted to a hybrid procurement process (MoES, 2009) which is partly decentralized in terms of selection and documentation and partly centralized in terms of tendering and payment. However, the textbooks procured have been overtaken by change of curriculum leading to a fresh need of textbook consignments relevant to the new curriculum.

5.4.2 Areas Threatening QA under Decentralization.

In this sub-section, I present areas that have threatened the decentralization strategy in education.

While service delivery is nearer to people than ever before, corruption at 66.0% (221) has abused it. In order to: “be transferred from one school to another; be promoted; be recruited into service; have your identity card signed; become a head-teacher or deputy head-teacher; you “cough big” in the range of Ushs 0.6m to Ushs 1m to DSC; have your pay-slip released; and have your loan forms signed, you have to bribe your way – almost all services at district headquarters are paid for”, respondents retorted. “Auditors auditing books of accounts in schools demand money from head-teachers and later give good reports”, SMCs added. Shoddy work among contractors – “latrines fall in, classrooms have cracks because tenderers bribe their way and in turn have to regain their money due to big commissions they offer to different people in the tendering process”, one politician commented. Consequently low quality of work is produced. It is because of corruption that many secondary school teachers are heading primary schools and are in key positions in the district education office because they can afford to “cough big”.

Nepotism at 60% (201) is running down districts. The work force at districts is recruited basing on “technical know who” – whom do you know at the district. “Unless one has a relation to one of the district leaders, you cannot get employed”, one member of SMC asserted. Positions of responsibility are given according to political affiliation (4.8% [16]), religion (3.0% [10]) or relationship with district leaders in disregard to merit. One ministry official said, “I have participated in the district interviews as a technical person, but members of the panel and chairman (DSC) have interests in various candidates who are incompetent and leave out competent candidates, saying leave the rest to us”.

Nepotism has too, impacted on the allocation of resources. Schools and workers are segregated based on either religious factor or political affiliation. Some schools as observation revealed, have more desks and extra classrooms not in use while other schools are lacking them. A teacher of the Catholic faith is not accepted in a Muslim founded school or an Anglican teacher is not accepted in a Catholic founded school. Religion is a criteria rather than performance. Nepotism has also created a class of “untouchable teachers” – especially ladies who do not respect head-teachers and are difficult to be disciplined because they report direct to officers at districts because of the relations existing.

As a repercussion of nepotism and corruption elements, DSCs have been rendered incompetent (3.0% [10]). Due to recruitment of incompetent officers and teachers (7.5% [25]) and acceptance of forged documents (12.2% [41]) and impersonators (14.9% [50]) plus ghost workers. Poor workmanship in construction is also attributed to these two elements (nepotism and corruption). This implies that service delivery is not executed by professionals with the necessary skills thus imparting uncalled for knowledge. On the other hand, the teachers to do the work are not there due to ghost workers. Consequently, content is not covered as expected and the end result is poor performance, failure to read and write thus leading to poor QE.

Decentralization does not favour inter-district transfers (43.3% [143]). One has to work within the same district until s(he) retires or dies. If inter-district transfers are to

happen, one has to lose his/her identity (position) and years of service and be subjected to fresh interviews in the new district and gain new identity as a new entrant into service and put on probation unless special arrangements for inter-district transfers are made. This is true to only a few individuals. This limits both vertical and horizontal mobility in service. As a result of this, transfers within districts have yielded to:

- a) Overstay of teachers/workers (14.9% [50]) within a school for a period of 10 – 15+ years. Such teachers are either born or married in the communities where schools are located and go native. These are teachers who have turned out to be problematic to head-teachers to the extent of telling them “wansangawo ojja kundekawo” (literary meaning, “you found me in this school and you will leave me here”). These are teachers “who have caused chaos, misunderstandings and bled conflicts in schools in connivance with SMCs and parents”, headteachers narrated. They too, “come late to schools and leave early thus not adequately performing to their expectations”, a member of SMC commented. They have “given hard times to head-teachers and their deputies”, another member added. Because of nepotism they are big headed and will say anything against their leaders to the level of “Yankwana negaana kyava ampalana (he befriended me and I refused. That’s why he is against me)”, one officer concluded. Consequently, “head-teachers/deputies are transferred but not teachers and leave under disgrace”, one headteacher lamented. This is attributed to “thigh power” especially with female teachers.
- b) Uncoordinated transfers (11.0% [37]) in the context that staffing is not demand driven. Schools’ needs are not considered important in the process. A school in need of a mathematic teacher is given an English teacher. Or, a school in need of 3 teachers is given one. Implying that Mathematics lessons are not taught causing poor performance. Relatedly, some classes lack teachers and those available are rationalized to cater for other classes leading to overload and some classes missing some lessons at particular times – this is too, attributed to presence of ghost teachers. The staff ceiling limits (2.7% [9]) also complicates the situation as teachers are distributed according to enrollment existing in the school (teacher – pupil ratio). This renders marking learners’ work and giving

individualized teaching difficult thus underplaying QA. At times, “transfers are used as punishments to both teachers and head-teachers which is demotivating”, one SMC member noted. “One is transferred from a nearby school to a school in a hard-to-reach area without considering other alternative punishments”, a headteacher added. In some cases, a teacher is posted to three different schools and the choice where to go is his/hers.

Gender imbalance (1.5% [5]) in staffing is also common. More female teachers are posted to especially within to reach schools than male teachers. During data collection period, observation indicated schools especially on main roads with one male head-teacher against 14 females. Another school had 3 male teachers against 12 females. Given the background that, female teachers have more domestic callings (husband and children’s sickness) and are bound to go for maternity leaves of 60 days each at ago, classes are abandoned and learners go without classes. This leads to loss of lessons and consequently poor performance.

Uncoordinated transfers are a result of conflict of roles (24.5% [82]) between the DEO’s office and the personnel’s office. Personnel’s office transfer teachers without the knowledge of the DEO’s office and not done according to schools’ needs. Collision in transfers is also common. Two or three teachers are sent to one school to occupy a vacant post available or a teacher receiving two or three contradicting transfer letters to two or three schools as explained above. This destabilizes the smooth running of schools and learners are bound to lose lessons hence low coverage of content. Conflict of roles is also seen in the context of DEOs versus the inspectorate (DIS’) on who should recommend teachers to go to which school. Also, the nature of orientation – most DEOs are secondary school teachers while DIS’ are teacher educators although some are equally secondary school teachers. Therefore the issue of who is more knowledgeable about teacher issues and primary education crops up. These,” internal administrative conflicts to an extent have deterred the smooth running of district education offices and consequently the QE services offered to schools”, one MoES official concluded.

Teachers are more districtic in thinking rather than being nationalistic in thinking, exposure and scope. Teachers have been exposed and limited to district experiences and boundaries thus losing touch with the external world beyond the district. According to personal experience, exposure plays a key role in the teaching – learning process as one draws examples from a wide scope to explain concepts and issues for clarity.

Funding (23.0%) under decentralization is another threat. It is being characterized by:

- a) Delay of salary (14.0% [47]). Teachers' salary at the time of collecting data was being delayed by districts to be credited to their accounts. Central government used to credit district accounts and in turn districts credit teachers' accounts. There was a tendency of mismanaging funds meant for teachers' salaries hence the delay which was very demoralizing and demotivating to teachers. Consequently leading to poor performance of teachers. Now, the central government through the EFT System send teachers' salaries direct to their accounts through districts' approval. Where there is a delay, then the delay is with the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development and the same effects of delay apply to teachers.

However, the EFT System has had its effects on teachers' performance. Banks now have 100% access and control of teachers' (workers') salaries and can easily target and attract teachers to salary loans and recovery is easy. So, teachers access loans easily from banks and other micro finance institutions as they too target salary earners. Teachers, on accession of loans, have resorted less time to teaching and more time on trade to realize profits out of loans secured. The essence is that, they get less money as salary at the end of each month forgetting that the salary was paid in advance as loans. Relatedly, multiple loans have kept teachers at tension consequently less time at schools. Generally, this has led teachers to devote less time teaching, cover less content and in turn both teachers and learners performing poorly. Secondly, because teachers are getting

their salaries direct to their accounts, some have abandoned teaching while others have attended to duty with a matter-of-fact attitude characterized with absenteeism. Teachers do all these under the pretext that no one has control over his/her salary and stopping salary takes a bit of time. A part from this affecting the teaching – learning process, it has also undermined the administration and management of institutions especially where weak leaders exist.

- b) Failure to fund educational activities (1.1% [4]). Activities like games, sports, music, athletics and examinations have not been financed regularly by districts. Local revenue has not been used by local governments to fund the activities. In some cases such activities have not been budgeted for. When budgeted for, funds have not been remitted to education departments or are inadequately budgeted for. This partly explains the neglect of CAPE I, CAPE 2 and CAPE 3, the new curriculum experiences thus underplaying the quality of education being offered to learners.
- c) Inadequate funding (3.9% [13]). At both levels, district and centre, there is consensus that funding of primary educational activities is inadequate despite the almost 40% funding of the national budget. According to personal experience, funding education at the district is almost 99% funded by the centre through conditional grants, 1% from local revenue. The inadequacy of funds cannot allow accomplishment of activities as expected. The reality is, all primary education activities are at the district and funds sent to the districts is inadequate to accomplish them.
- d) Diversion of funds (3.9% [13]). In districts, education tends to have the biggest budget and all funds are conditional. However, due to financial decisions making and planning powers, districts divert funds on this basis. For example, in the financial year 2006/2007, Ushs 1b/= was lost out of UPE capitation funds to districts because of FDS (Fiscal Decentralization Strategy – 10% Flexibility) to other none education sectors – Inter departmental (MoES, 2008). In some cases funds are diverted under the pretext of borrowing from SFG or UPE funds with the intention of refunding later, which at times fail. Teachers' salary used to delay

as earlier on mentioned under similar reasons. It is now SFG to suffer the fate since UPE go to schools' accounts direct under EFT system. Diversion of funds does not allow schools to get funds they are supposed to get thus failing to carry out planned activities thus failing to achieve QE objectives.

In summary, the section has discussed QA of primary education in a decentralized strategy and how both M/E and policy formulation have from time to time shaped it.

CHAPTER SIX

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0. Introduction.

This chapter presents major findings of the study as a result of data analysis and later draws major conclusions as depicted by the major findings. Lastly, it presents recommendations bearing in mind the major findings and conclusions as a way forward.

6.1 Findings.

6.1.1 Quality Assurance.

QA was mainly affected by the major themes of Management System and Leadership; Infrastructure Development and Management; Curriculum and Professionalism; Parenting and Nutrition; Finance Administration and Management; Community Involvement in Education; Human Resource Management; Legislative Process and Policies; Social Structures and Patterns; Politics; and Academic Performance and Processes.

6.1.1.1 Concept of QE.

The perception of QE was found in

- i) Management System and Leadership and the major components were collaboration, support system, goal objective oriented and external efficiency.
- ii) Infrastructure Development and Management with major components of infrastructure and school environment,
- iii) Curriculum and professionalism and major among the components under this context were school requirements, self reliance, dimensions,
- iv) Academic performance and process,
- v) Parenting and Nutrition, major components under this aspect were, lunch provision, discipline and morals.
- vi) Community involvement in Education and the outstanding component was parent's involvement in education.

However, it was found out that the MOES had no definition for QE

6.1.1.2 Efforts to provide QE.

6.1.1.2.1 Effort by SMC.

According to SMC members' submissions their major efforts were found in:

- i) Management System and leadership with emphasis on problem solving / conflict resolution, meetings / class meetings, guidance and counseling, mobilization and sensitization and monitoring teaching / school activities
- ii) Finance Administration and Management with particular emphasis on payment for extra teaching and funding project / programmes where payments of operational cost and maintenance costs featured prominently.
- iii) Infrastructure development and Management with a major contribution in structural development.

Head teachers, teachers and district officials concurred on management system leadership and Finance Administration and management as major aspects of SMCs effort in the provision of quality education.

6.1.1.2.2 Efforts at Classroom level.

The major findings were in the aspects of

- i) Management System and leadership with emphasis on guidance and counseling, support system, executive roles and class meetings / days.
- ii) Curriculum and Professionalism with focus on efforts in professional obligation / role (at 98.6%) extra teaching and selective promotion.

6.1.1.2.3 Efforts at School level.

Findings on efforts at school were found in

- i) Curriculum and Professionalism with outstanding efforts in professional obligations / Roles (57.2%) and team scheming.

- ii) Management system and Leadership which was characterized by support, meeting / class days, guidance and counseling team work spirit, and staff development programmes.

6.1.1.2.4 Effort at Community Level.

Findings on effort at community level were in aspects of

- i) Social Structures and Patterns which was in areas of invitation to functions (at 76.2%) and outreach services.
- ii) Management System and Leadership – this was characterized by mobilizing (at 70.7 %), meetings / class meetings / class visits.
- iii) Community involvement in education with efforts in school community meetings / LC's meetings.
- iv) Finance Administration and Management with efforts in funds mobilization / funding school activities.

6.1.1.2.5 Efforts by District and Ministries officials.

Effort in this context were found in

- i) Management system and leadership with emphasis in meetings and team inspection / supervision
- ii) Curriculum and Professionalism with focus on curriculum issues and demonstration.
- iii) Human Resource Management with emphasis on staff development programmes.

6.1.1.2.6 Challenges at the levels of Classroom, School and community.

Challenges that affected the provision of quality education at levels of classroom, school and community were found in

- i) Management System and leadership with major challenges in Teacher absenteeism (at 57.6%); Learner absenteeism (at 70.4%), parents' ignorance / illiteracy, learner; late coming and head teacher absenteeism.

- ii) Curriculum and Professionalism with major challenges found in crowded classes (at 49.6%); absence of school requirements (at 70.4%); unprofessionalism, Teacher incompetence and Teacher late coming.
- iii) Parenting and Nutrition with key challenges in lunch issue (at 77.0%) and Parent / learner discipline.
- iv) Legislative process and policies with challenges of UPE factor (at 65.7)
- v) Social structures and patterns with major challenges in cross-cutting issues (at 60.9%), negative attitude of officers (27.5%) depending syndrome, and parents / community indiscipline (34.0%)
- vi) Human Resource Management. Challenges were found in limited mobility / overstay of teachers, staff ceiling limits / overload and transport.
- vii) Infrastructure Development and Management with challenges in inadequate infrastructure and sustainability strategy.
- viii) Politics with major challenges in political influence (at 70.7%) and Musevenism syndrome.
- ix) Finance Administration and Management with key challenges in mode of payment / salary loans and ineffective finance committees.
- x) Community involvement in education with challenges of limited parent / community involvement and community – school relationship.

6.1.1.3 Self Assessment towards provision of quality.

Findings on self – assessment revealed that

A: Teachers

Curriculum and professionalism: Failed to plan and write schemes of work (91.5%), they were ever absent from duty (76.6%); teachers were incompetent (71.6%), teachers had negative attitude towards duty (47.2%) and dodging work (49.6%)

B: Head teachers

- i) Curriculum and Professionalism under this aspect head teachers accepted that they were ever absent (92.5%) and were not role models to teachers (70.1%).

- ii) Management System and Leadership with acceptance in lacking managerial skills (40.3%) and failure to supervise teachers and other activities at school (37.3%).

C: District officials.

In management system and leadership they indicated their acceptance in failure to write reports and absence of work plans to guide their day - to - day activities.

6.1.2 Monitoring and Evaluation.

The major themes affecting M/E were Management System and Leadership and Curriculum and Professionalism.

6.1.2.1 At School Level.

M/E at school level was characterized by

- i) Management system and leaderships with major emphasis on team supervision, monitoring learning, both verbal and written reports although documents analysis showed they were not in records. Thus confirming verbal reports.
The supervision frequency of every week by head teachers and once a term per school by inspectors..
- ii) Curriculum and professionalism with major emphasis on supervision of teaching / teachers; learner assessment but characterized by commercialized tests bought from secretarial bureaus.

6.1.2.2 By District.

Major findings on monitoring and evaluation by district officials were in the aspects of:-

- i) Management System and leadership which was characterized by absence of inspection, inadequate inspection and head teachers office as a place of visit during inspection visit which confirmed both absence and inadequate inspection.

- ii) Curriculum and professionalism with major focus on CCT interventions of monitoring teachers and inspection of teaching. However document analysis indicated visits of CCT in the visitors book but no written reports were available so was on inspection of teaching.

6.1.2.3 By MOES / DES.

M/E by MOES was in the aspect of management system and leadership only and was characterized by absence of supervision and document analysis did not indicate any written report left behind in schools. Specific activity monitoring dominated monitoring and evaluation by MOES and the visit were indicated in the visitors books analyzed.

It was found out that monitoring and evaluation visits generated reports that were guided by the monitoring and evaluation framework. Reports bore data that aided recommendations and policy process.

6.1.3 Policy Formulation.

The three major themes that affected policy formulation were Legislative Process and Policies and Management System and Leadership.

6.1.3.1 Policy Interpretation.

The major findings under policy interpretation were under legislative process and policies with emphasis on the automotive promotion which brought up dilemma consequently non compliance to it, policy restrictions, UPE Factor in which UPE policy itself was found to be a factor undermining quality. Conflicting / confusing guidelines and contradicting guidelines as cause of roadblocks to quality. Also noted was absence of a quality assurance policy in place.

6.1.3.2 Policy Formulation at Ministry Level.

The major findings were in two aspects:

- i) Management system and Leadership. At a strategic management level it was found out that local government uses policies set by the time ministry in the

education sector which is Ministry of Education and Sports, this is by local government Act, 1997. Sections 97 – 99.

A participatory approach is used in the policy formation process with consultation as a key element.

- ii) Legislative process and policies: The focus in this area was on the policy formation process the ministry of Education and Sports followed and it was found out that there was no quality assurance policy to the Ministry of education and Sports.

6.1.4 Decentralization.

The major themes of Infrastructure Development and Management; Human Resource Management; Curriculum and Professionalism; Social Structures and Patterns; Finance Administration and Management; Management System and Leadership; Politics; and Motivation affected decentralization.

6.1.4.1 Areas of Excellency.

The major themes found affecting areas of Excellency under a decentralized set up were:-

- i) Infrastructure Development and Management with focus on construction of classrooms and toilets, and provision of furniture to schools.
- ii) Human Resource Management with strength in recruitment procedure of manpower.
- iii) Curriculum and professionalism focus on procurement of textbooks.
- iv) Social structures and Patterns. Service delivery nearer to the people was hailed most.

6.1.4.2 Areas Threatening Decentralization.

Threats were found to be more than areas of excellence. These were found in aspects of

- i) Human Resource Management with more threats in the areas of delayed confirmation of teachers, inter district transfers being impossible, payroll

- management teachers taking long to access payroll; misposition of human resource, conflict of roles, uncoordinated transfers and overstay of teachers caused by limited mobility.
- ii) Social structures and patterns with threats in the areas of corruption at 66% and Nepotism at 60%.
 - iii) Curriculum and professionalism with threats found in impersonation and forgery leading to teacher incompetence and demotivation.
 - iv) Finance Administration and Management with a threat in delay of teachers' salaries leading to low motivation.
 - v) Management system and leadership with a threat in delayed action over cases forward to districts to handle.
 - vi) Politics with a threat of political influence as a result of bad politicking among politicians and Musevenism syndrome among parents.

6.2 Conclusions.

The study was greatly affected by

- i) Management System and Leadership at 34.8%,
- ii) Curriculum and Professionalism at 20.0%,
- iii) Social structures and patterns at 9.7%,
- iv) Legislative process and policies at 6.8%, and
- v) Human Resource Management at 6.4%.

6.2.1 Quality Assurance.

6.2.1.1 Concept of QE.

The Ministry of Education and Sports has no laid down definition of quality education. From the findings, the major components affecting quality education from which a definition can be drawn are;

- i) Management system and leadership (collaboration, support system, goal / objective oriented and external efficiency).
- ii) Infrastructure development and Management (structure and school environment)

- iii) Curriculum and professionalism (school requirements, dimensions, context, qualified teachers, process, academic performance and self-reliance.
- iv) Parenting and Nutrition (Lunch provisions, discipline, and morals)
- v) Community Involvement in Education (Parents' involvement and participation).

6.2.1.2 Effort in Provision of QE.

Conclusions were drawn basing on the efforts provided by all categories of respondents at the levels of classroom, school and community. The major conclusions were;

- i) Management system and Leadership interpreted them as expected.
The support system was established to supplement the teaching – learning process.
There was innovation of class meetings / days to address quality issues at class level.
Meetings were held by all categories of respondents.
Team inspection as indicated had no evidence of reports given at school level apart from indicating their presence in visitors' books.
It was difficult to confirm provisions of guidance and counselling as there was no evidence of records of services provided.
- ii) Curriculum and professionalism.
Both headteachers and teachers had their efforts in professional obligations / roles which they adequately interpreted and they know what to do towards the provision of quality education.
Team scheming as an innovation answers the problem of curriculum interpretation at scheming level.
Selective promotion was opted for which indicated non-compliance to automatic promotion policy.
Extra teaching was used as a solution to time lost and to earn a living (extra pay) to teachers not as a remedial solution to learners.

Demonstrations were used as a method to mentor teachers by CCTs but records of what exactly was done were not in place.

6.2.1.3 Challenges Faced in Provision of QE.

Conclusions were drawn on the challenges faced by all respondents at all levels

- i) **Management System and Leadership.** Absenteeism and late coming in general (of teachers, head teachers and learners) have down played quality provision in the sub-sector (primary education). Equally, the illiteracy /ignorance of parents has incapacitated the provision of school requirements and support to education thus down playing quality.
- ii) **Curriculum and professionalism.** Crowded classes hindered provision of individualized teaching, marking of learners' work thus affecting the teaching - learning process. Equally, absence of school requirements affected the provision of quality as learners had no materials to use during activity sessions. Unprofessionalism, incompetence, and late coming among teachers affected the contact hours to learners as enough content was not provided thus affecting the teaching learning process.
- iii) **Parenting and Nutrition,** Lunch was not provided to learners as the claim of providing lunch was. This caused learners to starve, fall asleep during lessons due to hunger and consequently poor performance.
- iv) **Legislative Process and Policies.** UPE policy itself is a factor that has negatively affected the provision of quality.
- v) **Social structures and patterns.** Cross cutting issues affected the decision making process, the teaching – learning process, and the development of schools in general.
- vi) **Human Resource Management.** Limited mobility within districts caused overstay of teachers within one school and was a source of conflicts and misunderstandings in schools which stalled performance of teachers and learners. Staff ceiling limits caused overload and consequently the teaching learning process.

- Transfers were uncoordinated and not demand driven which caused schools to lack teachers for some subjects thus causing learners to miss lessons or teachers to be overloaded as they tried to cover the gaps.
- vii) Infrastructure Development and Management. Classrooms, toilets and furniture were not enough which caused learners to study under trees and sitting down on the floor. In schools where they had classrooms, toilets, and furniture in access, they had no sustainability strategy to maintain the structures.
 - viii) Politics. Political influence and Musevenism syndrome, affected the decision making process in schools and the provision of scholastic materials thus downplaying quality provision and schools development.
 - ix) Finance Administration and Management. Mode of payment and salary loans caused constant absenteeism among teachers as they engaged themselves in trade. Finance committees in schools were not functional as head teachers took on all finance decisions to schools.
 - x) Community Involvement in Education. Parents were not involved in education as there was no evidence to show this. If it was there, it was in just a few schools thus confirming the limited involvement.

6.2.1.4 Self Assessment towards Provision of QE.

A: Teachers

Due to teachers' absenteeism, failure to plan and write schemes of work, incompetence, dodging work and negative attitude towards work, there is no teaching and learning going on in schools since this was a self revelation by teachers. Therefore quality is in danger.

B: Headmasters

Given, as revealed by head teachers themselves, that they are ever absent. They, themselves are not role models – giving examples to teachers to impact their mode of work; they lacked managerial skills; and they were not supervising teachers and other school activities. It is a further confirmation to that of teachers that there

is no teaching and learning in schools. Quality is in danger.

C: District Officials.

Out of self confession, district officials failed to write reports as witnessed by document analysis in schools and absence of work plans to guide their day – to – day activities, district officials are making casual visits to schools. Thus, no inspection / supervision of schools.

6.2.2 Monitoring and Evaluation.

6.2.2.1 At. School Level.

i) Management System and leadership.

Basing on document analysis there was no supervision neither monitoring learning as there were no reports for evidence.

Visits of inspectors and CCTS were recorded in visitors books with purpose of visit indicated but not backed up by reports.

This rendered it difficult to determine the frequency of supervision.

ii) Curriculum and Professionalism.

Apart from CCTs indicating their presence in visitors books and purpose of visit, there were no reports as evidence of mentoring teachers.

6.2.2.2 By MOES / DES.

6.2.2.2.1 Management System and Leadership.

Absence of supervision was confirmed by absence of reports as document analysis indicated monitoring specific activities was done as was indicated by visitors books, possibly reports were not supposed to be left at schools.

6.2.3 Policy Formulation.

6.2.3.1 Policy Interpretation.

Legislative Process and Policies

a) There was non – compliance to automatic promotion due to its impact

- on attendance and performance of learners.
- b) UPE policy itself was a factor undermining quality education due to its conflicting/confusing and contradicting guidelines; and its inadequate funding. It created dependency syndrome among parents.
- c) There was no quality assurance policy to guide the provision of quality education in the education system. This left each institution to gamble with the provision of quality education.

6.2.3.2 Policy Formation at Ministry level.

- i) Management System and Leadership. Ministry of local governments does not set policies for the education sector. Policies are provided by the line ministry (MOES) as provided by the law (Local Government Act, 1997, Section 97 - 99).
- iii) Legislative Process and Policies. MOES has no policy on the provision and maintenance of QA. There is a policy formulation process the MOES follows informed by data gathered from the M/E reports which is guided by the M/E framework.

6.2.4 Decentralization.

6.2.4.1 Areas of Excellency.

Decentralization has a strong contribution to QA in the aspects of:-

- i) Infrastructure Development and Management in the construction of classrooms and toilets and provision of furniture to schools.
- ii) Human Resource Management in the recruitment of human resource at district level thus answering needs immediately.
- iii) Curriculum and Professionalism on procurement of textbooks that put the book – pupil ratio at 1:3.
- iv) Social structures and patterns in the service delivery – services were put nearer to the people (teachers) and are not travelling to the MOES headquarters in Kampala to have their problems solved.

6.2.4.2 Areas Threatening Decentralization.

Decentralization had threats which are bound to kill and dismantle the decentralization strategy of governance.

- i) Human Resource Management has the most threats and were demotivational in nature – delayed confirmation; pay roll management – delay to its access; misposition of human resource - secondary school teachers slowly eating up the primary education sector; inter-district transfers – teachers (civil servants) restricted in one district without external exposure country wide (limited mobility). Conflict of roles among offices – one usurping the roles of the other especially between DEOs' and personnel's' offices; uncoordinated transfers as a result of conflict of roles and overstay of teachers for 10-21 years in a school due to limited mobility.
- ii) Social structures and Patterns had threats of corruption at 66% - that is, every service you receive at districts you have to pay for it. Nepotism at 60% - implication- if you do not have a relative or an officer you know at the districts you cannot be assisted unless you opt for corruption.
- iii) Curriculum and Professionalism – threats of forgery and impersonation among teachers has led to teacher incompetence which affected delivery of service at school level. Corruption and integrity of DSC are at play among impersonators and forgery – how are they being recruited and posted to schools?
- iv) Finance Administration and Management - with delay of teachers' salary. But with EFT in place now, the delay is with banks crediting teachers' salaries on their accounts.
- v) Management system and Leadership – districts delayed actions on cases forwarded to them. This promoted indiscipline among teachers and demoralized headteachers and SMC members.
- vi) Politics. Political influence emanated from bad politicking and Musevenism syndrome which politicized every decision taken at schools and influenced their implementation negatively thus down playing quality education.

6.2.5 General Conclusion.

Basing on the findings of the study the general conclusions are that

- i) Monitoring and Evaluation plays a key leading role in generating data that inform and aid policy formulation decisions that regulate quality assurance and decentralization itself in a decentralized set up.
- ii) Decentralization has been adopted in different contexts by different countries to address specific delivery problems as conceived by each nation.
In other words, decentralization is designed in the context of specific problems with a view of addressing
deficiency in service delivery at a particular administrative structure.
- iii) In general, the study was found to be affected by eleven major themes in which factors affecting it were described.

CODE	THEME	%
7	Management System and Leadership	34.8
2	Curriculum and Professionalism	20.0
11	Social Structures and Patterns	9.7
6	Legislative Process and Policies	6.8
4	Human Resource Management	6.4
3	Finance Administration and Management	6.0
1	Community Involvement in Education	4.0
5	Infrastructure Development and Management	3.6
9	Parenting and Nutrition	3.2
10	Politics	2.8
8	Motivation	2.6

- iv) Basing on documentation analysis results, records management is a problem in schools. It is difficult to trace evidence and to ascertain planning data.

- v) Quality Assurance in primary schools in a decentralization set up is in danger as there was no adequate monitoring and evaluation and no policy in place to guide provision of quality education given the threats / challenges surrounding it.

The study in its context has contributed to the thinking that much as decentralization was introduced as a mode of governance to bring services nearer to the people; the challenges associated to it as the study has put it (corruption, nepotism, overstay at a station, intrigue, populism mixed with politicking, among others) have down played the provision of QA in a decentralized set up. The study has further indicated that decentralization itself is a factor down playing provision of QA. Another original contribution is that, what people have heard, seen and known in schools/districts has been documented as one respondent put it. From the theoretical perspective, the study has indicated that a number of theories are at play but their main focus is on positive desirable changes but need-oriented to making education better and achieve institutional goals. Methodologically, the study has come up with a model of inspection which is demand driven. The study has indicated that M/E should frequently inform the policy formulation process which should consequently form policies that will regulate the QA framework and system in a decentralized set up. Lastly, the study has come up with a thematic approach of factors affecting QA in a decentralized set up.

6.3 Recommendations.

Recommendations were given basing on the eleven major themes that affected the study.

i). Management System and Leadership (7).

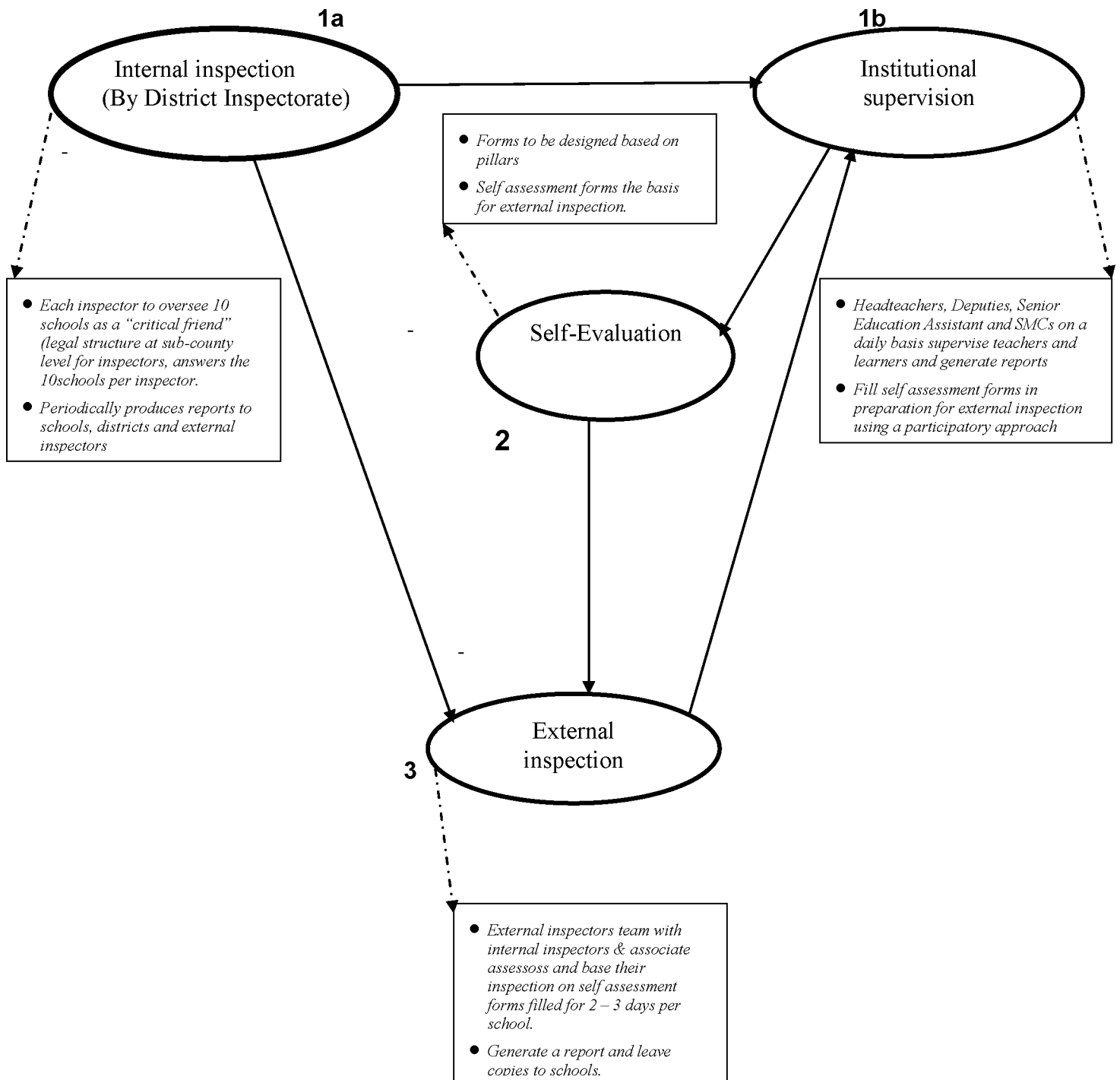
- a) At sub-county level, unlike other district departments, education lacked an administrative structure for education officers to oversee education provision at that level. The legal framework for local governments need to create an administrative structure for education officers at sub-county levels. Counties are a big area. The structure will narrow the gap existing.
- b) Each primary school, be given a substantive deputy headteacher regardless of its grade. This will avoid looking down upon

assistants hand picked by headteachers.

iii) Curriculum and Professionalism (2).

a). I suggest the following inspection model to ensure a quality teaching-learning process.

Figure 9: Model for Providing Quality Assurance in a Monitoring & Evaluation System(Mutaaya's Model).



b). To solve problems of absenteeism, late coming, failure to plan and scheme and all cases of unprofessionalism among teachers, decentralization

to school level and giving powers to school committees with academic qualifications to SMC members attached is recommended. Teachers will now see SMCs as their boss and taking decisions there and then.

iii) Social structures and patterns (9).

- a) Government should establish quangos in each district to assist SMCs if decentralized up to school level to recruit teachers and assist with financial matters, and strategic planning at school level.
- b) SMC handbook should be translated into the respective languages in the country to enable SMCs understand their roles.

iv) Legislative Process and Patterns (6).

- a) UPE policy need to be re-addressed especially on conflicting / confusing and contradicting guidelines to enable full participation and involvement of parents in their children's education.
- b) There is need to decentralize up to school level. The school management committees should employ the teachers on behalf of the government if performance and absenteeism are to be improved.
- c) A quality assurance policy be put in place to guide schools in the provision of quality education detailing teacher's profile, inspector's profile, education officer's profile, schools each inspector should oversee not more than 10 to enable them visit schools frequently, and supervision requirement at school level.
- d) There should be enactment of bye- laws at lower local governments and ordinances at district level to ensure equal provision of quality education by virtue of legislative powers local governments have.

v) Human Resource Management (4).

- a) Membership to SMCs should be restricted by establishing a Minimum qualification of senior six, if we are to decentralize up to School level and the aspirations of quality education are to be achieved.

b). A mechanism be worked out to allow teachers transfer from one district to another without losing his/her entity and being subjected to another interview.

vi) Finance Administration and Management (3).

- a) Government to allocate a block grant to each school to enable it employ teachers and manage its day-to-day operational costs and capital development. The quangos at each district will assist schools' financial management and recruitment of teachers.
- b) UPE Funds to each school need to be revised to meet the demands of the schools and to take care of the changing enrolments and the escalating market economies.

vii) Community Involvement in Education (1).

- a) Conflicting / Confusing and contradicting guidelines need to be revised to allow full participation and involvement of communities in education.
- b) Need for intensified mobilization and sensitization of communities to have a feeling of ownership of schools, know their roles and work towards development of schools.

viii) Infrastructure Development and Management (5).

- a) More classrooms, toilets and furniture are a necessity to schools without these facilities. However, if decentralize up to school level, along the block grant to each school funds for capital development be sent. This will reduce the imbalance in allocation of resources and secondly, will answer the question of sustainability strategy (maintenance costs)
- b) To cater for sustainability strategy schools in rural districts be allowed to levy parents as the case is with urban schools. This will call for revisiting UPE policy as suggested earlier.

ix) Parenting and Nutrition (11).

Provision of lunch to learners should be a must to all school going children. Lunch issue should not be politicized as noted, if government cannot provide lunch to all primary school children, parents must pay for their children's lunch.

x) Politics (10).

- a) To avoid the problem of political influence, a participatory approach to decision making be adopted. SMCs together with the political leaders in that school location, opinion leaders and staff meet together and take a collective decision on matters concerning the schools.
- b) Politicians should use the policies to guide people to improve their livelihood and education in general but not to achieve their personal ends by misinterpreting policies.

xi) Motivation (8).

- a) Teachers' houses at schools, be constructed to enable them stay within the school compound without traveling long distances to school.
This will answer the question of late coming and so is the block grant.
- b) Political leaders, stakeholders in education and educational managers to think of appreciating strategies to teachers other than blaming them.

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APPENDIX A

TABLES TO CHAPTER FIVE

1.1. Quality Assurance.

Table 1: Aspects of QE (implementers).

Theme Code	Categories	A: Teachers		B: SMC		C: Head-teachers		Total	%
		F	%	f	%	f	%		
7	Collaboration	8	5.7	37	35.9	-	-	45	14.5
2	Life skills	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	8	2.6
5	Environment	8	5.7	39	37.9	3	4.5	50	16.1
2	Problems solving	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	8	2.6
2	Learner needs	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	8	2.6
9	Morals	7	5.0	6	5.8	-	-	13	4.2
7	External Efficiency	7	5.0	-	-	4	6.0	11	3.5
2	Illiteracy Eradication	4	2.8	-	-	-	-	4	1.3
7	Support System	4	2.8	7	6.8	6	9.0	17	5.5
9	Lunch Issue	-	-	9	8.7	-	-	9	2.9
7	Management System	-	-	4	3.9	-	-	4	1.3
10	Political Skills	-	-	5	4.9	-	-	5	1.6
9	Discipline	-	-	23	22.3	4	6.0	27	8.7
1	Parent involvement in Education	-	-	15	4.9	-	-	15	4.8
4	Human Resource	-	-	5	4.9	-	-	5	1.6
7	Teacher Attendance	-	-	5	4.9	-	-	5	1.6
2	School Requirement	-	-	16	4.9	-	-	5	1.6
2	Professionalism	-	-	9	15.5	-	-	9	2.9
7	Enrolment Rate	-	-	7	8.7	-	-	7	2.3
1	Attitude of Parents	-	-	5	4.9	-	-	5	1.6
2	Self Reliant	81	57.4	6	5.8	27	40.3	114	36.7
4	Teacher Qualification	1	0.7	7	6.8	1	1.5	9	2.9
7	Team Work	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	6	1.9
2	Academic Performance	13	19.4	12	11.7	10	14.9	35	11.3
5	Water Source	-	-	3	2.9	-	-	3	1.0
2	Dimensional	8	5.6	3	2.9	14	20.9	25	8.0

Table 2: Aspects of QE (Education Managers).

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	DISTRICT		MINISTRIES		TOTAL	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
2	Self-reliant	12	90.6	-	-	12	50
2	Dimensional	12	90.6	-	-	12	50
2	Academic Performance	12	70.6	-	-	12	50
7	Goal/objective oriented	2	11.8	-	-	2	8.3
5	Infrastructure/school environment	4	23.5	1	14.3	5	16.7
1	Stakeholders' involvement in Education	2	11.7			2	8.3
2	Process	10	58.8	1	14.3	11	45.8
2	Content	3	17.6			3	12.5
2	Teacher Qualifications	1	5.9	1	14.3	2	8.3
9	Lunch provision	1	5.9			1	4.2
9	Home Environment	1	5.9	-	-	1	4.2
7	Number Accessing Education	1	5.9	-	-	1	4.2

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	DISTRICT		MINISTRIES		TOTAL	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
7	Teacher – pupil Ratio	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2
3	Salaries	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2
7	Input oriented	-	-	3	42.9	3	12.5
7	Output oriented	-	-	3	42.9	3	12.5
11	Human Attitude	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2

Table 3: Efforts by SMC.

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	f	%
5	Structural Development	28	27.2
3	Payment for extra teaching	10	9.7
7	Follow-up of teachers	4	3.9
11	Working Relationship/Collaboration	12	11.7
7	Coordination	7	6.8
7	Problem solving/Conflict Resolution	27	28.2
7	Time Management	7	6.8
7	Timely reactions	7	6.8
7	Uniformity	7	6.8
1	Monitoring learning	11	10.7
9	Lunch issue /Lunch Provision	28	27.2
7	Referring cases	7	6.8
3	Value for Money	7	6.8
3	Provision of utilities	5	4.9
7	Meetings/class meetings	46	44.7
7	Strategic Planning	7	6.8
7	Lobbying	2	1.9
9	Learner Discipline	16	15.5
3	Funding projects/programmes	7	6.8
11	Closure of Social gap	7	6.8
7	Teamwork – spirit	15	14.6
8	Appreciation of Efforts/Rewarding System	14	13.6
2	Homework Activities	5	4.9
7	Guidance and Counselling	26	25.2
1	Monitoring Learner Attendance	17	16.5
7	Child – to – child Monitoring	8	7.8
10	Collaboration with Politicians	13	12.6
1	Parent Involvement in Education	7	6.8
7	Technical Support	5	4.9
3	Employing Extra Teachers	7	6.8
7	Monitoring Teaching/School Activities	11	10.7
7	Head-teachers' office – point of visit	6	5.8
8	Appreciation of Efforts	7	6.8
2	Extra Teaching	2	1.9
7	Staff Discipline	7	6.8
7	Mobilization & sensitization	59	57.3
4	Staffing Requests	5	4.9
3	Fundraising	5	4.9

Table 4: SMC Efforts in provision of Quality Education.

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teachers		B: Headteachers		C: District		Total	
		f	%	f	%	F	%		
7	Absence of supervision	52	36.9	18	26.9	-	-	70	31.1
7	Conflict Resolution/ Problem solving	48	340	27	40.3	14	82.4	89	39.6
7	Headteachers office- point of visit	31	22.0	3	4.5	-	-	34	15.1
2	SMC Ignorance	29	20.6	16	23.9	1	5.9	46	20.4
2	SMC Illiteracy	25	17.7	35	52.2	4	23.5	64	28.4
7	Monitoring/supervision Teaching	24	17.0	4	6.0	-	-	28	12.4
7	Mobilization and sensitization	23	16.3	-	-	2	11.7	25	11.1
7	Guidance and counseling	22	15.6	8	11.9	-	-	30	13.3
8	School Publicity	10	7.1	-	-	-	-	10	4.4
7	Inferiority Complex	9	6.4	4	6.0	-	-	13	5.8
7	Window supervision	12	8.5	-	-	-	-	12	5.3
7	Situation Assessment	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	8	3.6
11	Conflict creation	8	5.7	8	11.9	-	-	16	7.1
7	Failure to visit Schools	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	8	3.6
11	Parent Discipline	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	8	3.6
7	Monitoring School Activities	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	8	3.6
8	Funds Incentive	8	5.7	8	11.9	-	-	16	7.1
7	Monitoring Attendance	7	5.0	-	-	-	-	7	3.1
7	School Development Planning	7	5.0	-	-	-	-	7	3.1
2	Learners Assessing Teachers	7	5.0	-	-	-	-	7	3.1
7	Monitoring Learning	7	5.0	4	6.0	10	58.8	21	9.3
6	Hatrage of UPE	6	4.2	-	-	-	-	6	2.7
9	Monitoring Lunch Provision	4	2.8	-	-	-	-	4	1.8
3	Absence of Allowances	4	2.8	8	11.9	-	-	12	5.3
3	Supplement Funding	-	-	10	7.1	15	88.2	25	11.1
7.	Delayed Actions	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	4	1.8
7.	Dialogue with Teachers	-	-	3	4.5	-	-	3	1.3
6	Policy Implementation	-	-	2	3.0	-	-	2	0.9
7	Signing Documents	-	-	2	3.0	-	-	2	0.9
7	Reporting Findings	-	-	1	1.5	-	-	1	0.4
3	Borrowing School Funds	-	-	1	1.5	-	-	1	0.4
3	Payment of Maintenance Costs	-	-	-	-	2	11.7	2	0.9
5	Structural Development	-	-	-	-	3	17.6	3	1.3
7	Monitoring Attendance	-	-	-	-	9	52.9	9	4

Table 5: SMC Efforts in provision of QE.

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teachers		B: Headteachers		C: District		Total	
		f	%	f	%	F	%		
7	Absence of supervision	52	36.9	18	26.9	-	-	70	31.1
7	Conflict Resolution/ Problem solving	48	340	27	40.3	14	82.4	89	39.6
7	Headteachers office-	31	22.0	3	4.5	-	-	34	15.1

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teachers		B: Headteachers		C: District		Total	%
		f	%	f	%	F	%		
	point of visit								
2	SMC Ignorance	29	20.6	16	23.9	1	5.9	46	20.4
2	SMC Illiteracy	25	17.7	35	52.2	4	23.5	64	28.4
7	Monitoring/supervision Teaching	24	17.0	4	6.0	-	-	28	12.4
7	Mobilization and sensitization	23	16.3	-	-	2	11.7	25	11.1
7	Guidance and counseling	22	15.6	8	11.9	-	-	30	13.3
8	School Publicity	10	7.1	-	-	-	-	10	4.4
7	Inferiority Complex	9	6.4	4	6.0	-	-	13	5.8
7	Window supervision	12	8.5	-	-	-	-	12	5.3
7	Situation Assessment	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	8	3.6
11	Conflict creation	8	5.7	8	11.9	-	-	16	7.1
7	Failure to visit Schools	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	8	3.6
11	Parent Discipline	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	8	3.6
7	Monitoring School Activities	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	8	3.6
8	Funds Incentive	8	5.7	8	11.9	-	-	16	7.1
7	Monitoring Attendance	7	5.0	-	-	-	-	7	3.1
7	School Development Planning	7	5.0	-	-	-	-	7	3.1
2	Learners Assessing Teachers	7	5.0	-	-	-	-	7	3.1
7	Monitoring Learning	7	5.0	4	6.0	10	58.8	21	9.3
6	Hatrage of UPE	6	4.2	-	-	-	-	6	2.7
9	Monitoring Lunch Provision	4	2.8	-	-	-	-	4	1.8
3	Absence of Allowances	4	2.8	8	11.9	-	-	12	5.3
3	Supplement Funding	-	-	10	7.1	15	88.2	25	11.1
7	Delayed Actions	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	4	1.8
7	Dialogue with Teachers	-	-	3	4.5	-	-	3	1.3
6	Policy Implementation	-	-	2	3.0	-	-	2	0.9
7	Signing Documents	-	-	2	3.0	-	-	2	0.9
7	Reporting Findings	-	-	1	1.5	-	-	1	0.4
3	Borrowing School Funds	-	-	1	1.5	-	-	1	0.4
3	Payment of Maintenance Costs	-	-	-	-	2	11.7	2	0.9
5	Structural Development	-	-	-	-	3	17.6	3	1.3
7	Monitoring Attendance	-	-	-	-	9	52.9	9	4

Table 6: Headteachers' Efforts in provision of QE.

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teachers		B: Headteachers		Total	%
		f	%	f	%		
2	Professional Obligation/Role	141	100	64	95.5	205	98.6
7	Guidance and counseling	40	28.4	16	23.9	56	26.9
7	Support system	29	20.6	-	-	29	13.9
7	Extra teaching	15	10.6	4	6.0	19	9.1
2	Selective promotion	10	7.1	-	-	10	4.8
8	Motivation	8	5.7	-	-	8	3.8
8	Resource persons	4	2.8	-	-	4	1.9
7	Executive Role	-	-	42	57.7	42	20.2
8	Headteacher Role Model	-	-	8	11.9	8	3.8
2	Learners assessing teachers	-	-	4	6.0	4	1.9
2	Books in hands of teachers	-	-	4	6.0	4	1.9

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teachers		B: Headteachers		Total	
		f	%	f	%		
7	Sanitation Maintenance	-	-	4	6.0	4	1.9
2	Homework Activities	-	-	4	6.0	4	1.9

Table 7: Efforts by Teachers and Head-teachers at School Level.

THEME CODE		A: Teachers		B: Headteachers		Total	
		f	%	f	%		
2	Professional Obligation/Role	77	54.6	42	57.7	119	57.2
7	Support system	74	53.5	36	53.7	110	52.9
2	Team scheming	40	28.4	4	6.0	44	21.1
7	Meeting/Departmental meetings	38	22.0	8	11.9	46	22.1
2	PIASCY activities	27	19.1	-	-	27	13.0
7	Class Meetings/Class Days	36	25.5	4	6.0	42	20.2
7	Guidance and Counselling	26	18.4	4	6.0	30	14.4
7	Teamwork spirit	24	17.0	-	-	24	11.5
7	Consultation	20	14.2	-	-	20	9.6
8	Resource Persons	18	12.8	-	-	18	8.7
2	Books in hands of learners	12	8.5	-	-	12	5.8
2	Staff Development Programmes	30	21.3	-	-	30	10.1
2	Homework Activities	12	8.5	5	7.5	17	8.2
9	Parenting	9	6.4	-	-	9	4.3
1	Inviting Parents/Parent's visits	8	5.7	2	3.0	10	4.8
2	Extra teaching	8	5.7	4	6.0	12	5.8
7	Mission statement	7	5.0	-	-	7	3.4
7	School Workplans	7	5.0	-	-	7	3.4
7	Mobilization & sensitization	6	4.2	-	-	6	2.9
7	Monitoring Attendance	4	2.8	-	-	4	1.9
7	Prefect-ship	4	2.8	-	-	4	1.9
9	Behavioural Change	4	2.8	-	-	4	1.9
11	Assistance to Orphans	4	2.8	-	-	4	1.9
7	Executive Role	-	-	54	80.6	54	260
7	Inter school Visits	-	-	8	11.9	8	3.8
2	Learner Assessment/Assessment meetings	-	-	9	13.4	9	4.3
1	Home visitation	-	-	4	6.0	4	1.9

Table 8: Efforts at Community level by teachers and head-teachers.

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teachers		B: Headteachers		Total	
		f	%	f	%		
11	Invitation to functions	100	70.9	58	86.6	158	76.0
7	Mobilization and sensitization	147	70.7	52	77.6	147	70.7
7	Meetings/class meetings /class visits	63	44.7	31	46.2	94	45.2
1	School Community Relationship	31	22.0	-	-	31	14.9
11	Outreach services	11	7.8	16	23.9	27	13.0
1	Attending Community Meetings /LLCs meetings	10	7.1	4	6.0	14	6.7
11	Parent – teacher relationship	8	5.7	-	-	8	3.8
3	Funds mobilization/funding school activities	14	10.0	7	10.4	21	10.1
9	Lunch provision/activities	5	3.5	4	6.0	9	4.3
7	CCT Interventions/Resource Persons	5	3.5	8	11.9	13	6.3
7	Problem solving	4	2.8	-	-	4	1.9

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teachers		B: Headteachers		Total	
		f	%	f	%		
11	Job creation	4	2.8	-	-	4	1.9
1	Parent involvement in Education	-	-	13	19.4	13	6.3
10	Collaboration with politicians	-	-	4	6.0	4	1.9

Table 9: Efforts by District and Ministries.

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	District		Ministries		Total	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
4	Deployment of qualified teachers	4	23.5	-	-	4	16.7
7	Mobilization and sensitization	4	23.5	-	-	7	16.7
7	Strategy: Operation improve primary education	6	35.2	-	-	6	25
1	Stakeholders involvement in Education	2	11.7	-	-	2	8.3
4	Training SMC	3	17.6	-	-	3	12.5
4	Training head-teachers	2	11.7	-	-	2	8.3
7	Meetings	16	94.1	-	-	16	66.7
2	Curriculum issues	9	52.1	-	-	9	37.5
7	Model school strategy	2	11.7	-	-	2	8.3
2	Demonstrations	9	52.9	-	-	9	37.5
7	Team inspection/supervision	3	17.6	-	-	3	12.5
4	Staff development programmes	15	88.5	2	28.6	17	70.8
6	Creation of power centres	2	11.7	-	-	2	8.3
11	Functions	2	11.7	-	-	2	8.3
8	Rewarding system	3	17.6	-	-	3	12.5
7	Discouraging visit to District	1	5.9	-	-	1	4.2
7	Discouraging absenteeism	1	5.9	-	-	1	4.2
7	Disciplinary measures	1	5.9	-	-	1	4.2
2	Supervision	1	5.9	-	-	1	4.2
3	Monitoring UPE funds	1	5.9	-	-	1	4.2
7	Collaboration	1	5.9	-	-	1	4.2
7	Involving Sub-county staff	1	5.9	-	-	1	4.2
7	Workplan preparation	1	5.9	-	-	1	4.2
3	Facilitating field staff	2	11.7	-	-	2	8.3
4	Recruitment procedure/criteria	1	5.9	1	14.3	2	8.3
2	Encouraging further studies	1	5.9	-	-	1	4.2
8	Provision of accommodation	1	5.9	-	-	1	4.2
2	Retraining of teachers	2	11.7	-	-	2	8.3
7	Closure of schools	2	11.7	-	-	2	8.3
7	Regular monitoring	2	11.7	-	-	2	8.3
2	Monitoring competencies	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2
5	Infrastructure/facilities construction	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2
4	TDMS Programme	-	-	2	14.3	2	8.3
7	CPT Development	-	-	2	28.6	2	8.3
6	Teachers code of conduct	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2
7	Media Programmes	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2
7	Quality Indicators	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2
7	Accessibility strategy	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2
7	Equity strategy	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2
2	Textbooks Procurement	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2
6	Qualifications Framework	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2
7	Minimum Standards	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2
7	Monitoring from the Centre	-	-	1	14.3	1	4.2

Table 10: Self Assessment towards provision of QE.

TEACHERS				HEAD-TEACHERS				DISTRICT OFFICIALS			
Theme Code	Categories	f	%	Theme Code	Categories	f	%	Theme Code	Categories	f	%
2	Failure to Plan	129	91.5	2	Head-teacher Absenteeism	62	92.5	7	Failure to write reports	5	29.4
2	Teacher Absenteeism	108	76.6	7	Managerial skills	27	40.3	7	Absence of Workplans	2	11.7
2	Teacher incompetency	101	71.6	7	Supervision failure	25	37.3	7	Failure to report in time	1	5.9
2	Dodging work	70	49.6	7	Absence of Transparency	13	19.4	7			
2	Negative attitude of teachers	72	51.2	8	Head-teacher not Role Models	47	70.1	7	Negative attitude of staff	1	5.9
				8	Absence of Appreciation	4	6.0				
2	Teacher late coming	67	47.5	11	Love Affairs	10	7.1	3	Failure to fund education	1	5.9
2	Teacher indiscipline	27	19.1	7	Private schools factor	16	11.3	7	Failure to fulfill obligations	1	5.9
2	Absence of Assessment	13	9.2	7	Head-teacher Inefficiency	9	13.4	11	Frustrated staff	1	5.9
7	Early Departure	10	7.1	2	Head-teacher Incompetency	13	19.4	11	Poor working relationship	1	5.9
11	Public Assessment	8	5.7			5	7.5	7	Defying authority	1	5.9
11	Teachers' children	8	5.7	2	Headteacher late coming	4	6.0	4	Misposition of Human Resource	1	5.9
7	Impersonation	8	5.7	2	Headteacher exerting influence	5	7.5	11	Absence of patient	1	5.9
2	Examinable subjects	8	5.7	11	Greed	4	6.0	10	Political influence	1	5.9
11	Poverty	8	5.7	7	Conflict of Roles	4	6.0				
9	Domestic problems	8	5.7	7	Impromptu meetings	4	6.0				
7	Corporal punishment	8	5.7	3	Absence of salary incense	4	6.0				
11	Language Barrier	8	5.7	7	In attendance of meetings	4	6.0				
11	Love Affairs	7	5.0	8	Disinterest in school activities	4	6.0				
2	Irregular assessment of learners	7	5.0	7	Communication gap	3	4.5				
7	Managerial skills	5	3.5	3	Fear of debts	2	3.0				
2	Transfer of anger	4	2.8	3	Accountability failure	2	3.0				
2	Failure cover syllabus	4	2.8								
2	Timetable failure	4	2.8	11	Failure to reside at schools	2	3.0				
2	Uncooperative failure	4	2.8	7	Inadequate supervision	2	3.0				
				2	Headteacher	2	3.0				

TEACHERS				HEAD-TEACHERS				DISTRICT OFFICIALS			
Theme Code	Categories	f	%	Theme Code	Categories	f	%	Theme Code	Categories	f	%
					Negative Attitude						
				3	Misappropriation of funds	1	1.5				
				4	Transfer as punishment	1	1.5				

Table 11 : Challenges faced in the provision of QE.

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teacher		B: SMC		C: Head-teachers		D: District		Ministries		Total	
		f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
3	Inadequate Funding	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	47.1	5	71.4	13	3.9
3	Inadequate Support to Education	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	11.7	2	28.6	4	1.2
7	Headteacher Absenteeism	8	5.7	54	52.4	4	6.0	17	100	4	57.1	87	25.9
7	Teacher Absenteeism	78	55.3	41	39.8	52	77.6	17	100	5	71.4	195	57.6
4	Abscondment from Duty	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	11.7	-	-	2	0.6
7	Late submission of Data	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	11.7	-	-	2	0.6
9	Lunch Issue	140	99.3	55	53.4	50	74.6	12	70.6	1	14.3	258	77.0
5	Inadequate Infrastructure	89	63.1	2	1.9	25	37.3	4	23.5	-	-	107	31.9
11	Negative Attitude of Offices	32	22.7	36	34.6	14	20.9	10	59	-	-	92	27.5
7	Private Schools Factor	22	15.6	20	29.9	15	16.4	2	11.7	-	-	59	17.6
6	Non compliance to Policies	-	-	13	12.6	17	25.4	2	11.7	-	-	32	9.6
7	Inadequate Mobilization	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	1	5.9	-	-	7	2.1
2	Inadequate Inspection/ Supervision	-	-	9	8.7	-	-	1	5.9	-	-	10	3.0
2	Weak Inspectorate	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5.9	-	-	1	0.3
7	Size of CC	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	52.9	-	-	1	2.7
3	Delayed Facilitation	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	52.9	-	-	9	2.7
2	Crowded Classes	91	64.5	23	22.3	41	61.2	9	52.9	2	28.6	166	49.6
11	Poverty	22	15.6	24	23.3	16	11.3	1	5.9	-	-	3	18.8
2	Forgery	-	-	-	-	4	6.0	1	5.9	-	-	5	1.5
4	Double Employment	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5.9	-	-	1	0.3
11	Language Barrier	18	12.8	-	-	-	-	2	11.7	-	-	20	6.0
6	UPE Factor	120	85.1	92	89.3	58	86.6	13	76.5	-	-	220	65.7
4	Limited mobility/teacher	-	-	16	15.5	12	8.5	2	11.7	-	-	30	9.0
2	Teacher Involvement in Trade	4	2.8	-	-	1	1.5	2	11.7	-	-	7	2.1
2	Absence of school Requirements	130	92.2	32	31.1	62	92.5	12	70.6	2	28.6	238	70.4
7	Head-teachers Inefficiency Incompetency	35	4.2	36	35.0	-	-	1	5.9	-	-	43	12.7
11	Satisfaction of selfish Ends	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5.9	-	-	1	0.3
10	Political Influence	84	59.6	71	68.9	67	100	15	88.2	-	-	237	70.7
7	Learners Absenteeism	141	100	9	8.7	67	100	17	100	-	-	236	70.4
4	Misposition of Human Resource	7	5.0	-	-	13	19.4	-	-	1	14.3	21	6.3
8	Accommodation Issue	88	62.4	34	33.0	13	19.4	-	-	1	14.3	136	40.6
2	Drop outs	4	2.8	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	3	42.9	11	3.3
2	Low Standards	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	1	14.3	7	2.1
2	Inadequate Training	5	3.5	7	6.8	-	-	-	-	1	14.3	13	3.9
11	Cross cutting Issues	93	66.0	90	87.4	11	16.4	9	52.9	1	14.3	204	60.9
1	Limited Parent/Community Involvement	6	4.2	6	5.8	8	11.9	-	-	1	14.3	21	6.3
5	Sustainability Strategy	-	-	4	3.9	4	6.0	-	-	1	14.3	9	2.7
2	Unprofessionalism	57	85.1	-	-	20	29.9	10	59	1	14.3	88	26.3
2	Misinterpretation of	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14.3	1	0.3

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teacher		B: SMC		C: Head-teachers		D: District		Ministries		Total f %	
		f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%		
	Curriculum Thematic												
7	Doubted monitoring at School level	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14.3	1	0.3
2	Teachers Indiscipline	-	-	-	-	8	11.9	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
2	Teacher Incompetency	16	11.3	48	36.9	34	50.1	-	-	-	-	98	29.3
2	Under-rating SMC /Each other	12	8.5	29	28.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	41	12.2
2	Teacher late coming	44	31.2	23	22.3	42	-	-	-	-	-	109	32.5
4	Transfers	-	-	32	31.1	2	3.0	-	-	-	-	34	10.1
6	Policy Restrictions	15	10.6	21	20.4	3	4.5	-	-	-	-	39	11.6
11	Dependency Syndrome	8	5.7	20	19.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	28	8.4
10	Musevenism Syndrome	24	17.0	15	14.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	39	11.6
10	Political Segregation	-	-	3	3.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	0.9
7	Absence of Transparency/Accountability	-	-	15	14.6	2	3.0	-	-	-	-	17	5.1
4	Staff ceiling limits/overload	40	28.4	15	14.6	36	57.3	-	-	-	-	91	27.2
3	Absence of Allowances	-	-	15	14.6	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	19	5.7
7	Parents; Ignorance /Illiteracy	55	39.0	14	13.6	51	76.1	-	-	-	-	120	35.5
7	Absence of Confidentiality	-	-	13	12.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	13	3.9
3	Mode of Payment/Salary Loans	-	-	13	12.6	19	11.3	-	-	-	-	32	9.6
7	Delayed Actions	-	-	13	12.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	13	3.9
7	Transfer of Learners	39	27.7	11	10.7	9	4.3	-	-	-	-	59	17.6
7	Head-teacher Exerting Influence	-	-	11	10.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	3.3
11	Family Problems	-	-	11	10.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	3.3
11	Parents/Indiscipline	95	67.4	10	9.7	9	4.3	-	-	-	-	114	34.0
9	Parenting /Learner Discipline	45	31.9	11	10.7	10	7.1	-	-	-	-	66	19.7
2	Segregation of Scholastic Materials	-	-	8	7.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
3	Accountability Failure	-	-	8	7.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
3	Ineffective Finance Committee	8	5.7	14	6.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	22	6.6
4	Parents' Attitude Towards Education	-	-	43	64.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	43	12.7
7	Managing by Crisis	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	1.8
7	SMC Illiteracy/Ignorance	20	14.2	6	5.8	3	4.5	-	-	-	-	12	3.6
11	Guardianship/Orphanage	20	14.2	6	5.8	3	4.5	-	-	-	-	29	8.7
11	Sibling Representation	8	5.7	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	4.2
7	National/Impromptu Programmes	36	25.5	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	42	12.5
5	Inadequate Land	-	-	6	5.8	3	4.5	-	-	-	-	9.9	2.7
3	Financial Year Vs School Calendar Year	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	1.8
3	Bank Charges	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	1.8
7	Learner Late Coming	55	39.0	4	3.9	43	-	-	-	-	-	102	30.4
6	Automatic Promotion	38	27.0	4	3.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	42	12.5
11	Sexual Harassment	-	-	3	2.9	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	7	2.1
3	Misappropriation of Funds	8	5.7	3	2.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	3.3
7	Corporal punishment	-	-	3	2.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	0.9
7	Low Meetings Attendance	36	25.5	2	2.9	15	16.4	-	-	-	-	53	15.8
2	Examination Malpractices	-	-	4	3.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	1.2
2	Efforts to Upper Classes	-	-	4	3.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	1.2
11	Early Marriages/Pregnancy	21	14.9	-	-	3	4.5	-	-	-	-	24	7.2
7	Support System	5	3.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	1.5
2	Non-Examinable Subjects	4	2.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	1.2
11	Religious/Foundation Bodies	23	16.3	2	3.0	5	7.5	-	-	-	-	30	9.0
4	Absence of staff development programmes	4	2.8	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
7	Parent – School Relationship	34	24.1	-	-	3	4.5	-	-	-	-	37	11.0
9	Domestic chores	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
11	Tribalism	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	2.4

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teacher		B: SMC		C:Head-teachers		D: District		Ministries		Total f %	
		f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%		
8	Motivational Issues	45	31.9	-	-	18	-	-	-	-	-	63	18.8
6	Unmandatory Pre-primary Education	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
2	Specialization	-	-	-	-	5	7.5	-	-	-	-	5	1.5
2	Absence/Loss of Textbooks	8	5.7	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	12	3.6
7	Follow up failure	10	7.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	3.0
6	Implementation Failure	-	-	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	4	1.2
2	Impersonation	-	-	-	-	10	7.1	-	-	-	-	10	3.0
11	Insecurity/	15	10.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15	4.5
11	PIASCY Perceptions/Activities	15	10.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15	4.5
7	Teacher – Pupil Ratio	5	3.5	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	9	2.7
10	Working under Threats	-	-	-	-	6	9.0	-	-	-	-	6	1.8
3	High Prices	-	-	-	-	2	3.0	-	-	-	-	2	0.6
7	CPT Concern	-	-	-	-	3	4.5	-	-	-	-	3	0.9
2	Curriculum Issues	8	5.7	14	13.6	-	-	-	-	-	14.3	23	6.9
10	Political Segregation	-	-	3	2.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	0.9
1	Community School Relationship	4	2.8	5	4.9	17	100	-	-	-	-	26	7.8

1.2 Monitoring and Evaluation.

Table 12: Monitoring at School level.

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teacher		B: SMC		C:Head-teachers		D: District		Total F %	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
2	Supervision of Teaching/Teachers	97	68.8	25	4.3	64	95.5	-	-	186	56.7
2	Learner Assessment	52	36.9	6	5.8	25	37.3	-	-	83	25.3
7	Written Reports	28	19.9	-	-	8	3.8	-	-	36	11.0
7	Supervision Frequency	25	17.7	-	-	2	3.0	2	11.7	29	8.8
7	Team Supervision	16	11.3	-	-	28	41.8	-	-	44	13.4
7	Verbal Reports	11	7.8	15	14.6	4	6.0	-	-	30	9.1
7	Departmental Supervision	10	7.1	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	14	4.3
7	CCT Intervention	9	6.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	2.7
7	Appraisal System	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
7	Absence of Supervision Reports	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
7	Nepotism in Supervision	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
7	Conceding Information	8	5.7	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
2	Commercialized Tests	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
7	Checking Learners' Works	8	5.7	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	12	3.7
11	Bribery of SMC	8	5.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
7	Assessment /Evaluation Meeting	5	3.5	-	-	6	9.0	-	-	11	3.4
2	Selective Promotion	4	2.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	1.2
7	Inadequate Supervision	4	2.8	-	-	5	7.5	-	-	9	2.7
7	Findings and Decisions	3	2.1	-	-	16	23.9	-	-	19	5.8
7	Absence of Supervision	3	2.1	29	28.2	1	1.5	1	5.9	24	7.3
7	SMC Ignorance	-	-	15	14.6	-	-	-	-	15	4.6
2	SMC Illiteracy	-	-	12	11.7	-	-	-	-	12	3.7
7	Monitoring Learning	-	-	65	63.1	20	29.9	-	-	85	25.9
7	Monitoring Learner Attendance	-	-	27	26.2	-	-	-	-	27	8.2
7	Monitoring Teacher Attendance	-	-	16	15.5	-	-	-	-	16	4.9
3	Monitoring Funds	-	-	12	11.7	-	-	-	-	12	3.7
7	Attendance on Invitation	-	-	8	7.8	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
2	Teacher Incompetency	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	6	1.8
7	Head-teacher Inefficiency	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	6	1.8
11	Foundation Bodies Raped of Roles	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	6	1.8
2	Non – professionals	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	6	1.8

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teacher		B: SMC		C: Head-teachers		D: District		Total F %	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
7	Follow up	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	6	1.8
7	Utility of Reports	-	-	-	-	3	4.5	-	-	3	0.9
7	Impromptu Supervision	-	-	-	-	2	3.0	-	-	2	0.6
1	Parents Involvement in Education	-	-	-	-	3	4.5	-	-	3	0.9
2	Team Inspection	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5.9	1	0.3

Table 13: M/E by District Education Office.

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teacher		B: SMC		C: Head-teachers		D: District		Total F %	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
7	Absence of Inspection	56	39.7	86	83.5	27	40.3	-	-	169	51.5
7	Inadequate Inspection	41	29.1	3	2.9	32	47.8	9	52.9	85	25.9
2	CCT Interventions	34	24.1	10	9.7	14	20.9	-	-	48	14.6
7	Head-teachers' office – point of visit	34	24.1	6	5.8	14	20.9	-	-	54	16.5
2	Inspection of Teaching	28	19.9	7	6.8	8	3.8	-	-	43	13.1
2	Inspection on Invitation	15	10.6	4	3.9	-	-	-	-	19	5.8
7	Verbal Reports	10	7.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	3.0
7	Specific Activity Monitoring	6	4.2	-	-	3	4.5	-	-	9	2.7
11	Foundation Bodies Inspection	4	2.8	7	6.8	-	-	-	-	11	3.4
7	Conflict Resolution	4	2.8	-	-	3	4.5	-	-	7	2.1
7	Conditional Inspection	-	-	7	6.8	-	-	-	-	11	2.1
7	Mobilization and Sensitization	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	6	1.8
5	Infrastructure Provision	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	6	1.8
2	PLE Administration	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	6	1.8
4	Inadequate Staffing	-	-	4	3.9	-	-	-	-	4	1.2
7	Meetings with Head-teachers only	-	-	7	6.8	-	-	-	-	7	2.1
7	Absence of Confidentiality	-	-	5	4.9	-	-	-	-	5	1.5
7	Absence of Collaboration	-	-	3	2.9	-	-	-	-	3	0.9
7	District /County meetings	-	-	12	11.7	-	-	-	-	12	3.7
7	Communication Gap	-	-	4	3.9	-	-	-	-	4	1.2
4	Misposition of Human Resource	-	-	-	-	24	35.8	-	-	24	7.3
7	Delayed Actions	-	-	-	-	8	11.9	-	-	8	2.4
7	Problem solving	-	-	-	-	2	3.0	-	-	2	0.6
7	Ignorance of Geographical Locations	-	-	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	4	1.2
7	Encouraging Inspection	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5.9	1	0.3
10	Political Monitoring	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5.9	1	0.3
2	Support Supervision	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	52.9	9	2.7
2	Monitoring Teaching/Management	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	52.9	9	2.7

Table 14: M/E by MOES/DES.

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teacher		B: SMC		C: Head-teachers		D: District		Total F %	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
7	Absence of Supervision	131	92.9	93	90.3	63	20.3	9	52.9	296	90.2
7	Specific Activity Monitoring	13	92	-	-	6	9.0	8	47.1	27	8.2
7	Communication Gap	7	5.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	2.1
7	Head-teachers' Office – Point of Visit	7	5.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	2.1
7	Inadequate Supervision	-	-	-	-	6	9.0	-	-	6	1.8
7	Segregation in Supervision	-	-	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	4	1.2
7	Urban Schools Supervision	-	-	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	4	1.2
7	District Meetings	-	-	-	-	2	3.0	-	-	2	0.6

1.3 Policy Formulation.

Table 15: M/E by Ministries (Central Government).

Theme Code	Categories	f	%
6	Monitoring and Evaluation Framework	1	14.3
7	Closure of Schools	1	14.3
6	Aid Policy Process	1	14.3
7	Generation of reports	2	28.6
7	Recommendations	2	28.6
7	Collection of Data	1	14.3
7	Monitoring Process	1	14.3

Table 16: Policy Formulation Interpretation.

THEME CODE	CATEGORIES	A: Teacher		B: SMC		C: Head-teachers		D: District		Total	
		F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%
6	Automatic Promotion Dilemma	81	57.4	12	11.7	37	55.2	9	52.9	129	39.3
6	Policy Restrictions	37	26.2	25	24.3	12	17.9	9	52.9	83	25.3
6	UPE Factor	34	24.1	29	28.2	13	19.4	11	64.7	90	27.4
6	Conflicting/ confusing guidelines	19	13.5	21	20.4	7	10.4	4	23.3	51	15.5
6	Misinterpretation o Policy	15	10.6	-	-	12	17.9	-	-	27	8.2
6	Segregative Guidelines	11	7.8	-	9.7	-	-	-	-	21	6.4
6	Policy observance	-	5.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	2.1
10	Political Influence	-	-	5	4.9	8	11.9	-	-	13	4.0
6	Hetrage of UPE	-	-	8	7.8	-	-	-	-	8	2.4
11	Women Emancipation	-	-	7	6.8	-	-	-	-	7	2.1
6	Findings pave way forward	-	-	4	3.9	-	-	-	-	4	1.2
6	Contradicting Guidelines	15	10.6	41	39.8	15	22.4	2	11.7	73	22.3
7	Implementing Minimum Standards	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	11.7	2	0.6
6	Misinterpretation of Policies	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	23.5	4	1.2
6	Policy implementation Failure	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	52.9	9	2.7
6	Policy Gap	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	52.9	9	2.7

Table 17: Policy Formulation by Ministries.

Theme Code	Categories	f	%
6	Codes of conduct	1	14.3
7	Line Ministry Role	3	42.9
6	Absence of Quality Assurance Policy	1	14.3
6	Quality Assurance Procedure	1	14.3
6	Policy Formulation Process	1	14.3
7	Resource Allocation Procedure	1	14.3
6	Legal Framework	1	14.3
7	Participatory Approach	1	14.3

1.4 Decentralization.

Table18: Area of Excellency in Decentralization.

Theme Code	Categories	A: Teachers		B: SMC		C: Head-teachers		D: District		E: Ministry		Total	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	%	f	%	f	f	%
11	Service delivery	93	66.0	35	34.0	31	46.3	-	-	5	71.5	164	49.0
2	Textbooks procurement	92	65.2	60	58.3	33	49.3	-	-	5.9	29.4	190	56.7
5	Classrooms/toilet construction	74	52.5	60	58.3	41	61.2	7	41.2	1	14.3	183	54.6
5	Provision of Furniture	31	22.0	19	18.4	26	38.8	-	-	-	-	76	22.7
4	Vertical mobility	17	12.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17	5.1
11	Job creation/employment opportunity	10	7.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14.3	11	3.3
5	Development oriented programmes	10	7.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	3.0
7	Resource Allocation	6	4.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	1.8
4	Recruitment Procedure	12	8.5	16	15.5	4	6.0	5	29.4	-	-	37	11.0
7	Decision making	5	3.5	5	4.9	4	6.0	2	11.7	-	-	16	4.8
7	Taking over community schools	-	-	6	5.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	1.8
7	Problem solving	-	-	7	6.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	2.1
5	Developing own district	-	-	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	4	0.1
11	Building ownership	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	11.7	1	14.3	3	0.9
11	Genuine peoples concern	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5.9	-	-	1	0.3
7	Own planning	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	11.7	1	14.3	3	0.9
4	Capacity Building	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	14.3	2	0.6
10	Political powers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14.3	1	0.3
7	Administrative powers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14.3	1	0.3
6	Judicial powers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14.3	1	0.3
3	Financial powers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14.3	1	0.3
6	Legislative powers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14.3	1	0.3

Table 19: Areas threatening QA in Decentralization.

Theme Code	Categories	A: Teachers		B: SMC		C: Head-teachers		D: District		E: Ministry		Total f %	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	%	f	%	f		
11	Nepotism	93	66.0	53	51.5	54	80.6	-	-	1	14.3	201	60
3	Delay of Salary	36	25.5	-	-	11	16.4	-	-	-	-	47	14.0
4	Delayed confirmation	90	63.8	7	6.8	22	32.8	-	-	-	-	119	35.5
4	Inter-district Transfers	93	66.0	4	3.9	44	65.7	4	23.5	-	-	143	43.3
11	Corruption	91	64.5	76	73.8	52	77.6	-	-	2	28.6	221	66.0
4	Payroll Management	30	21.3	8	7.8	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	42	12.5
4	Misposition of Human Resource	28	19.9	29	28.2	36	53.7	-	-	1	14.3	104	31.0
4	Conflict of Roles	25	17.7	19	18.4	38	56.7	-	-	-	-	82	24.5
4	Uncoordinated Transfers	22	15.6	11	10.7	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	37	11.0
2	Impersonation	16	11.3	17	16.5	8	11.9	9	52.9	-	-	50	14.9
7	Officers Absenteeism	13	9.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13	3.9
7	Communication Gap	13	9.2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13	3.9
4	Overstay of Teachers	-	-	32	31.1	18	26.9	-	-	-	-	50	14.9
2	Teacher Incompetency	8	5.7	17	16.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	25	7.5
7	Inadequate Monitoring	-	-	14	13.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	4.2
5	Poor Workmanship	8	5.7	2	1.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	3.0
2	Forgery	8	5.7	12	11.7	12	17.9	9	52.9	-	-	41	12.2
3	Alteration of Orders	4	2.8	5	4.9	2	3.0	-	-	-	-	11	3.3
4	Failure to Recruit Qualified Teachers	7	5.0	4	3.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	3.3
10	Political segregation	6	4.2	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	10	3.0
4	Transfers as Punishment	7	5.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	3.1
4	Staffing not Demand Driven	4	2.8	-	-	1	1.5	-	-	-	-	5	1.5
7	Delayed Actions	5	3.5	17	16.5	11	16.4	-	-	-	-	33	9.9
3	Failure to sponsor Activities	4	2.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	1.1
10	Selfishness/serving personal EMS	10	7.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	28.6	12	3.6
7	Incompetency/Integrity of DSC	-	-	6	5.8	3	4.5	-	-	1	14.3	10	3.0
11	Religious Factor	-	-	6	5.8	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	10	3.0
7	Absence of Monitoring	-	-	4	3.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	3.0
4	Staff ceiling limits	-	-	7	6.8	-	-	2	11.7	-	-	9	2.7
5	Inadequate classrooms	-	-	5	4.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	1.5
5	Sustainability strategy	-	-	5	4.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	1.5
11	Segregation of Schools	-	-	3	2.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	0.9
4	Gender Imbalance in staffing	-	-	5	4.9	1	1.5	-	-	-	-	5	1.5
7	Conceding Information	-	-	4	3.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	1.2
7	Absence of Confidentiality	-	-	4	3.9	1	1.5	-	-	-	-	5	1.5
7	Lack of Transparency	-	-	2	1.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	0.6
3	Diversion of Funds	-	-	7	6.8	4	6.0	-	-	2	28.6	13	3.9
7	Abuse of office	-	-	1	1.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.3
7	Imbalance in Resource allocation	-	-	-	-	7	10.4	-	-	-	-	7	2.1
7	Government Programs	-	-	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	4	1.2
10	Emphasis on Academic Excellency	-	-	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	4	1.2
10	Political Influence /Threats	-	-	-	-	10	7.1	3	17.6	3	42.9	16	4.8
4	Newly Qualified Teachers	-	-	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	4	1.2
7	Channel of communication	-	-	-	-	4	6.0	-	-	-	-	4	1.2
3	Inadequate Funding	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	35.3	7	100	13	3.9
10	Politician low level of Education	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	23.5	-	-	4	1.2

7	Equality in Disregard of other factors	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5.9	-	-	1	0.3
11	Urban versus Rural Schools	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	17.6	-	-	3	0.9
10	Councilors Ignorance	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	5.9	-	-	1	0.3
3	Inadequate funding of Education office	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	52.9	2	29.6	11	3.3
7	Dictate by Central Government	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	59	-	-	1	0.3
2	Low levels of Training	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14.3	1	0.3
2	Inspectors' Incompetency	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14.3	1	0.3
7	Absence of Induction courses	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	14.3	1	0.3

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE

1.0 To Classroom teachers and Head-teachers.

- i) Concept of quality education
- ii) Description of practices/interventions/efforts in place to provide quality education at
 - a) Classroom level
 - b) School level
 - c) Community level (parent/community involvement).
- iii) Challenges faced in provision of quality education at the three levels (above).
- iv) Self-assessment in provision of quality education.
- v) School Management Committee efforts in provision of quality
- vi) Inspection/Supervision:
 - Support given and frequency of visits by;
 - a) School leadership
 - b) District Education Office
 - c) Ministry of Education and Sports (MoEs)/Directorate of Education Standards (DES).
 - Reports given/generated.
- vii) Policy about quality assurance in place (school/county) and other policies affecting quality
- viii) Concept of decentralization;
 - a) Area of Excellency
 - b) Areas threatening quality assurance
 - c) Way forward and lessons learnt

2.0 To School Management Committee (SMC) members.

- (i) Concept of quality education
- (ii) Description of practices/interventions/efforts to provide quality education.
- (iii) Challenges faced in provision of quality education.
- (iv) Efforts in monitoring and evaluating quality education.

- a) Reports generated and usage.
- b) Frequency of visits by
 - SMC
 - District Education Officer
 - MoES/DES
- (v) Parent-community involvement in education.
- (vi) Policy on quality education provision in place and other policies affecting quality.
- (vii) Concept of decentralization.
 - a) Areas of excellence.
 - b) Areas threatening quality assurance.

3.0 To District officials: CAO, DEO, DIS, Secretary for Education, Education Officers and CCTs (Centre Coordinating Tutors).

- (i) Concept of quality education.
- (ii) Description of intervention in place towards quality assurance.
- (iii) Challenges faced in ensuring quality.
- (iv) Self-assessment towards ensuring quality.
- (v) Supervision/Inspection.
 - a) Nature of support given and frequency.
 - b) MoES'/DES' role in support supervision and frequency.
 - c) Reports generated and usage.
 - d) Parent/Community involvement in education.
- (vi) Quality assurance policy in place as a district and country.
- (vii) Other education policies in place affecting quality assurance.
- (viii) Concept of decentralization.
- (ix) Way forward and lessons learnt.

4.0 To MoES, MoLG, DES officials: PS, Directors, Commissioners and Policy Analysts.

- (i) Concept of quality education (Ministry's view)

- (ii) Strategies in place for provision of quality education.
- (iii) Policy on Quality Assurance (as a nation).
- (iv) Challenges in provision of quality education.
- (v) Policy formulation/guidelines.
- (vi) Monitoring and evaluation.
 - a) Policy in place.
 - b) Reports generated and usage.
 - c) Reports filling into policy formulation or up-date /re-dress.
- (vii) Concept of decentralization and its effect on quality.
 - a) Positive
 - b) Negative
- (viii) Way forward and lessons learnt.



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15 June 2006

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that Mr S A MUTAAYA (Student number 605M3216) is a registered doctoral student in the Education Faculty, Rhodes University, Grahamstown, South Africa. Mr Mutaaya is investigating quality assurance within a decentralised primary education system in Uganda. His supervisor is Dr Clive Smith.

The purpose of this letter is to gain your support for Mr Mutaaya's studies. In order to collect data he will need access to documents, people and institutions, and any way in which you could make this possible for him would be highly appreciated. We believe his study will be of considerable significance to education planning in Uganda and probably elsewhere in Africa and beyond.

Mr Mutaaya is bound by ethical constraints in accordance with university policies, and there is therefore no danger that his research may in any way compromise or endanger public or private institutions.

Thank you very much in anticipation for your support. Please feel free to direct any further queries you may have either to me or to his supervisor. Our email addresses are:

H.vanderMescht@ru.ac.za

C.O.Smith@ru.ac.za

(Prof) Hennie van der Mescht
(Acting Dean of Education)

APPENDIX D

INTRODUCTORY LETTER BY DEO/MASAKA FOR DATA COLLECTION

Masaka District Local Government,
Education Department,
Masaka.

8th February, 2007

The Headteacher

..... P/S.

RESEARCH ON QUALITY ASSURANCE IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF MASAKA DISTRICT.

A research on Quality Assurance in primary schools in a decentralized set up is to be carried out in this district by Mr. Mutaaya S. Abu-Baker (DIS/R&A).

Your school has been chosen to participate in this research activity. The participants are: the Headteacher (1), SMC members (Chairman and another member – 2) and teachers (DOS and Infant Head – 2).

The participants will meet on the date, at the venue and at the times indicated below:

Date:

Venue:

Time: Teachers - 10.00a.m.
SMC members - 12.00 noon
Headteachers - 2.00p.m

I request you to cooperate with the researcher and mobilize the participants indicated above to attend in person and to keep time shown.


Ssekaduly P. Xavier
District Education Officer / Masaka.

APPENDIX E

QUESTIONNAIRE USED TO CAPTURE BACKGROUND INFORMATION

(School to District levels).

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. School/Office:.....
2. Title:
3. Academic Qualification:
 - a) Primary
 - b) S.4 (O'level
 - c) S.6 (A'level)
 - d) University (Graduate)
 - e) None of the above
 - f) S.1
 - g) S.2
 - h) S.3
 - i) J1
 - j) J2
 - k) J3
4. Professional Qualification:
 - a) Grade II Teacher
 - b) Grade III Teacher
 - c) Grades II & III Teacher
 - d) Diploma
 - (i) Primary with Grade II & III
 - (ii) Primary with Grade III
 - (iii) Secondary
 - (iv) Teacher Education with Grades II & III
 - (v) Teacher Education with Grade III
 - e) Graduate
 - (i) Primary with Grades V, III & II
 - (ii) Primary with Grades V & III
 - (iii) Secondary
 - (iv) Teacher Education with Grades V, III & II

(v) Teacher Education with Grades V & III

Other Professions (State):