DISTRICT LOCAL GOVERNMENT SUPPORT FOR UNIVERSAL SECONDARY EDUCATION IMPLEMENTATION IN UGANDA: A STUDY OF MUKONO DISTRICT

BY

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DECLARATION

I, **NAGADYA EDITH**, declare that this dissertation is my original work and that it has never been submitted to any institution for any award.

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APPROVAL

I certify that this dissertation on the relationship between District Local Government support and Universal Secondary Education (USE) implementation in Uganda has been supervised and is now submitted for the award of Masters of Science in Organization and Public Policy Management of Kyambogo University with my approval:

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DEDICATION

To my husband Ssentongo Godfrey Ssempa who contributed financially and spiritually to the completion of this study and my five lovely children; Jeremiah, Gladys, Hellen, Mark and Authur, for their wonderful support.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CAO: Chief Administrative officer

DEO: District Education Officer

EFA: Education for All

DLG: District Local Government

USE: Universal Secondary Education

UPE: Universal Primary Education

MDG: Millennium Development Goals

LG: Local Government

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the relationship between District Local Government support and Universal Secondary Education programme implementation in Mukono District. The study specifically sought to establish the role played by District Local Government in the implementation of Universal Secondary Education programme, with regards to monitoring, regular inspection and evaluation.

The objectives of the study were: (1) To evaluate the relationship between effective monitoring and the implementation of Universal Secondary Education Programme; (2) To assess the relationship between regular inspection and the implementation of Universal Secondary Education programme; (3) To examine the relationship between effective evaluation and the implementation of Universal Secondary Education Programme in Mukono District.

The study employed a descriptive cross section design which was based on questionnaires and interviews as instruments of data collection. Data was collected from the district offices, and from five schools, which were randomly selected to represent government-aided and private schools. Teachers, Parents and head teachers in these schools responded to questionnaires. District officials and other leaders were also interviewed.

The findings show that there is a positive and significant relationship of (0.032) between District Local Government support and Universal Secondary Education implementation with an R-value of 0.44. This implies that District Local Government support influences Universal Secondary Education implementation by 44%.

Subsequently, the study recommends that education policy makers in Sub-Saharan Africa should consider to effectively involve District Local Government Officials and leaders in the policy making process. Since District Local Government support plays a great role in ensuring successful implementation of Universal Secondary Education programme.

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Secondary education is a gateway to the opportunities and benefits of economic and social development. The demand for higher education is growing dramatically as countries aspire for universal secondary education. The global Education For All (EFA) effort provides added momentum for the growth in secondary education. Furthermore, globalization and the increasing demand for a more sophisticated labour force combined with the growth of knowledge-based economies gives a sense of urgency to the heightened demand for secondary education.

In today's world, secondary education has a vital mission - one which combines the policy peculiarities of being at the same time terminal and preparatory, compulsory and post-compulsory, uniform and diverse, general and vocational. Secondary education is now being recognized as the cornerstone of educational systems in the 21st Century. Quality secondary education is indispensable in creating a bright future for individuals and nations alike. In view of this, many countries particularly in Africa, are putting ever greater emphasis on secondary education. A popular policy in this direction is the Universal Secondary Education (USE). This is briefly outlined below:

1.1.1 The push for Universal Secondary Education (USE)

Universal Secondary Education (USE) is a government policy implementation that is currently receiving global attention and scrutiny from international development and education circles. Attention to USE policy can be traced to international commitment geared towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the goals of Education for All (EFA). Although the MDGs and EFA set targets that specifically pertain to primary education, the evolution of educational systems in response to the MDG and EFA educational targets have also influenced the post-primary education sectors in many countries. The MDGs were originally developed in 1990 and then formally adopted by 189 countries in 2000. The overreaching goal of the MDGs is to eliminate extreme poverty by 2015 (UNDP, 2006). The MDGs are influential in determining how countries set and plan to reach educational targets, specifically those relating to primary education enrollment and completion.

Most educational targets that have been set in the developing world following the creation of MDG and the original goals of EFA, have focused on achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE). One of the goals of EFA is that by 2015 all children shall have access to free primary education. As of 2005, it was estimated that as much as 70 percent of the education budget in countries that adopted MDGs goals had been allotted to primary schools (Lewin, 2005).

The educational focus has, however slowly, shifted from primary schools to post-primary quality and enrollment in countries that adopted MDG. As more and more children enrolled in and completed primary school level, (as a result of MDGs and EFA initiatives), international educational targets switched from Universal Primary Education (UPE) to Universal Secondary Education (USE).

Investment in secondary education allows for greater economic growth, while also providing a means to sustain the gains provided by UPE (Lewin, 2005). Students who have completed post-primary education are more likely to be employed in the formal wage sector, and those working in the informal sector are more productive than their peers who did not attend secondary school (Liang, 2002). Additionally, once post-primary graduates are employed, the returns to secondary education, especially lower secondary education, are high (Liang, 2002). Liang (2002) also reports that following primary school completion, for each additional year of school a person completes thereafter, his or her average wage increases by at least 20 percent. He explains that "secondary education yields considerable private returns, and provides opportunities to acquire attitudes, skills, and competencies that enhance the ability of young people to participate fully in society" (p.1). Lewin (2005) contends that countries that do not expand access beyond primary school may be in danger of failing to meet the target set by the MDGs to eliminate poverty by 2015. As the subsequent section will explain, this economic argument is a driving force behind the introduction of USE in Uganda.

Most countries in sub-Sahara Africa, however, have yet to develop long-term plans for post-primary education. To date, only one country, South Africa, has fully implemented a system of Universal Secondary Education. Uganda is another Sub-Saharan African country that chose to adopt Universal Secondary Education. Uganda opted to implement USE

policy in order to increase education development and sustain the gains achieved in enrollment under UPE, all in attempts to decrease poverty and meet the MDG goals.

1.1.2 USE in Uganda

Uganda's commitment to Universal secondary education began in 2006, following nine years of UPE. The roots of the USE policy are political. USE was first mentioned during the presidential campaign of President Yoweri Museveni in 2006. Museveni ran his compaign on the platform of Universal Secondary Education, and he promised free post-primary education for all students who qualified for secondary school education. The USE policy was extremely popular with the people, and Museveni was subsequently re-elected. After the re-election, the MoES was quick to respond by granting the President's wish of Universal Secondary Education. In 2007, the USE policy was officially launched and endorsed by the MoES. It was defined as "the equitable provision of quality secondary education to all Ugandan students who have successfully completed the primary leaving exam" (Lewin, 2006).

1.1.2.1 USE Objectives

To provide more access to secondary education for poor students and to address the student "bulge" that was rising as a result of UPE which had been implemented 10 years earlier. Whether or not a bulge was actually occurring is a matter of debate. USE covers lower secondary education (Senior 1 to Senior 4). Students, who scored between 4 and 28 points in the Primary Leaving Exam, became eligible to study in participating government or private schools without having to pay tuition fees (MoES, 2007). At the outset of USE, Uganda recruited 1,000 government and private schools that charged less than UGX 75,000 for participating USE students.

Currently, there are approximately 800 government- aided secondary schools and seed schools, and 556 private secondary under the umbrella of USE (MoES Headcount, 2012). Overall, there are 1,651 government- aided secondary schools and 1,898 private secondary schools in Uganda. This is in comparison with 11,850 government- aided primary schools and 1,521 private primary schools. Apparent here is the disparity resulting in the majority of Ugandan children that completed primary education not being able to attend secondary school education.

1.1.3 Local Government Structure in Uganda

The current local government structure in Uganda is a result of the decentralization process initiated by the current President Kaguta Museveni and his regime called National Resistance Movement (NRM), mainly to maintain peace and stability in the country. They rebelled the government in a civil war during the 1980s and politically united Ugandans despite their ethnic and religious differences (Francis and James, 2003). During the civil war, the NRM used local Resistance Councils (RCs) to resist the sitting government, and after the war ended, they assisted in maintaining order. In 1992, today's decentralization reform was implemented transforming the RCs into a five-tier pyramidal structure of Local Councils (LCs) transferring more control to the grassroots (see Figure 1).

The researcher now presents the various LC level's most common duties based on several secondary sources (Bazaara, 2003; Francis and James, 2003; Svein *et al.*, 2001; Steiner, 2006). The structure has both administrative units and governmental functions, whereby the LC1, LC2 and LC4 levels are administrative, headed by the chief administrative officer from LC5 and by Sub-county chiefs at LC3 levels. The LC5 is the highest local government structure, while Sub-counties are regarded as the lowest local government structures. The LC1 chairpersons are community leaders. They work in conjunction with councils majorly to settle minor disputes and violations. The LC2s councils are not equally active apart from coordination of LC1 activities, settling unsolved issues, and being a link to the LC3 level. The LC3 level is mainly occupied with taxation, fundraising and allocation of resources. In many ways, the LC5 level is similar to the LC3 levels since they both have tax-raising authority (Francis and James, 2003; Sæbo, 2007). As shown in figure 1

Figure 1 showing Uganda's local Government structure

Local Councils	Level	Functions
LC 5	District (composed of 3-5 counties)	Local government Exercise all political and executive powers Provide services. Ensure implementation of government policy and compliance with it Plan for the district Enact district laws Monitor performance of government employees Levy, charge, and collect fees and taxes Formulate, approve, and execute district budgets.
LC4	County (composed of 5-8 sub-counties)	Administrative unit Advise district officers and area member of parliament Resolve problems and disputes Monitor delivery of services
LC3	Sub-county(composed of 10-20 parishes)	Local government Assist in maintaining law, order, and security Initiate, encourage, support, and participate in self-help projects Serve as communication channel Monitor the administration and projects Enact by-laws Approve sub- county budget Monitor performance of government employees Levy, charge, and collect fees and taxes Formulate, approve, and execute sub county budgets
LC2	Parishes (composed of 3-10 villages)	Administrative unit Assist in maintaining law, order, and security Initiate, encourage, support, and participate in self-help projects Recommend persons for local defence units Serve as communication channel with government Monitor the administration and projects Make by-laws Impose service fees
LC1	Village (composed of 5-50 households)	Administrative unit Assist in maintaining law, order, and security Initiate, encourage, support, and participate in self-help projects Recommend persons for local defence units Serve as communication channel with government Monitor the administration and projects Make by-laws Impose service fees

Figure 1 - The Ugandan five-tier local government structure Source: Adapted by Nagadya Edith, (2013) from Svein Bjanrne Sandvik (2011)

1.1.4. Overview of Mukono District

Mukono District Local government was first created in 1980. It originally comprised the Buganda Kingdom counties of Kyaggwe, Bugerere and Buvuma. Over the last decade, however, the district has not escaped the phenomenon of administrative engineering which has seen balkanization of districts, often on ethnically based units. In December 2000, Bugerere County was constituted into the current Kayunga District, while part of Kyaggwe was carved into Buikwe District in 2009 (Sessional Committee on Public Service and Local Government, 2009). The most recent addition is Buvuma district which was carved out of Buvuma County in 2010 (Tamale, 2011).

The budget of Mukono Local Government comprises three revenue sources: central government grants, local revenue and donor funding. Central government grants comprise unconditional grants and conditional grants. Local revenues comprise funds collected from sources that have been designated as local revenue sources by Parliament. It is important to note that all the major revenue sources from businesses located in the district are collected as central government revenue. Donor revenues are funds that are provided directly to the district through donations and grants.

On the whole, findings from the Mukono District Local Government assessment reveal that the fair performance of the district council (60%) coupled with poor performance by the majority of councilors (38% female and 35% male) could not miraculously translate into good quality service delivery in the district. There is general consensus and widespread public opinion from community members that the actual performance of Mukono District Local Government is waning. Mukono District has a total of 39 secondary schools under USE, 16 are government-aided schools and 23 are in partnership with government. Besides, the district has a total of 187 government aided primary schools and 121 private secondary schools (Department of Education, Mukono district, 2013).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Planning education system according to the Ministry of Education and Sports (2007) requires policy dialogue, partnership and participation by the communities. This is to improve the monitoring, inspection and ownership in the education programmes through providing overview of the sector policy framework, and outlining sector policies that continue to underpin reforms, programs and activities of secondary education policy (Bitamazire, 2005). Despite the massive expansion in enrolment at secondary school level and the strategic plan put forward by the Ministry of Education and Sports, the Ministry is still faced with challenges in terms of management. District Local Governments were charged with the responsibility of mobilizing, monitoring, supervising and evaluating Universal Secondary Education programme in their areas of jurisdiction. The Operational Guidelines for the implementation of Universal Secondary Education programmme (2007), point out among others, District Local Government as a major stakeholder in Universal Secondary Education implementation. However, evaluation studies indicate that Universal Secondary Education is not progressing well as expected and the District Local Government's commitment to monitor the programme as mandated by the Universal Secondary Education operational guidelines seems questionable. Yet the optimal implementation of Universal Secondary Education largely depends on District Local Government's effective monitoring of the programme.

This study therefore seeks to examine the relationship between District Local Government support and implementation of Universal Secondary Education programme with reference to Mukono District Local government.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

The general objective of the study is to examine the relationship between District Local Government support and Universal Secondary Education programme implementation in Mukono District.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

1. To evaluate the relationship between effective monitoring and implementation of Universal Secondary Education Programme in Mukono District.
2. To assess the relationship between regular inspection and the implementation Universal Secondary Education Programme in Mukono Distrrict.
3. To examine the relationship between effective evaluation and the implementation of the Universal Secondary Education Programme in Mukono District.

1.4 Research Questions

- What is the relationship between effective monitoring and implementation of Universal Secondary Education Programme in Mukono District?
- What is the relationship between regular inspection and the implementation Universal Secondary Education Programme in Mukono District?
- What is the relationship between effective evaluation and the implementation of the Universal Secondary Education Programme in Mukono District?

1.5 Scope of the Study

1.5.1 Geographical scope

The study was carried out among the selected USE secondary schools in Mukono District; with priority being given to those schools which initially participated in the programme. Mukono District is one of the Districts in central part of Uganda with its headquarters in Mukono (refer to appendix1, 2, 3). It is located along Kampala- Jinja Highway, 22kms east of Kampala. It borders Lake Victoria to the south; Kampala and Wakiso districts to the west; Mpigi and Kayunga districts to the north; and Jinja and Buikwe districts to the east. It has got six sub-counties namely Nama; Nkokonjeru; Nakifuma; Nakisunga Kasawo and Mpungwe: and two Divisions namely, Goma and Mukono Central Division.

1.5.2 Time scope:

Secondary data on the performance of USE schools for the period between 2007- 2012 was collected to get adequate information and to be able to appropriately analyze the USE programme. The year 2007 was selected because it is the year when USE programme was started, while 2012 is the upper limit of the latest result from the examination body UNEB. The five years of study was sufficient for this research.

1.5.3 Content scope

In terms of content, the research investigated relationship between DLG support and USE implementation, by addressing monitoring of USE programme; regular inspection of USE programme; evaluation of USE programme and lastly, the nature of school leadership in implementation of USE programme.

The schools under study included; Kasawo Islamic; Central College Kabimbiri; Kasawo Secondary School; Kasana Vocational; St Charles Lwanga SSS.

1.6 Significance of the Study

It is the belief of the researcher that this research will be beneficial to the following stakeholders:

Policy makers in government: The research will try to address the gap that exists within the programme being implemented i.e. USE. This will enable policy makers to make improvements which will address concerns within the programme.

District Officials: It will be an eye opener to district officials on why the program is not progressing well and to see how participating schools can improve their quality of education.

Head Teachers: The research will help head teachers appreciate the importance of the monitoring and evaluation process in their schools.

1.7 Definitions of concepts

1.7.1 Local government

A local government is political subdivision of a nation or (in federal system) State, which is constituted by law and has substantial control of local affairs, including the power to impose taxes or exert labour for prescribed purposes. The governing body of such an entity is elected or otherwise locally selected (Alderfer, 1964:178).

1.7.2 DLG support

There is no universal definition as to what is meant by the term DLG support, although it is a term widely used by education researchers. Silin and shwartz, (2003) explains that local government support, or buy in a complex problem mutual assimilation and accommodation

through which District local government officials and elected leaders bring change in today's schools"p.1587. DLG support is also thought of as being how receptive district officials are to the reform and to what extent district officials are willing to carry out in its implementation.

1.7.2 Student enrollment.

In Ugandan context, this refers to the process of registering new students into secondary schools, and is done at the beginning of every academic calendar. These are children who have completed primary education, and are registering for secondary school education. A track record is monitored twice daily by class teachers to mark the presence or absence of students, on designated school registers.

1.7.2 Quality of education- is defined as student ability to read, write and speak English (MFPED, 2002:141).

1.7.3 Evaluation- is the system by which the quality of education provided by schools can be assessed. It can be carried out by both internal and external supervisors.

1.7.4 Inspection- is the process of visiting schools in order to collect implementation evidence for systematic evaluation.

1.7.5 Monitoring- is the process of checking progress of given policies against pre-determined goals and objectives

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviewed the literature related to the study and in so doing; it placed the study in perspective. The chapter handled the literature on the basis of the objectives, and along the way, the theoretical framework that guided the study. It specifically looked at literature relating to the role of District Local Government in the implementation of USE worldwide, and implementation of Universal Secondary Education in Uganda.

The literature reviewed was from the selected variables and was in four headings: effective monitoring of USE programme; regular inspection of USE programme; the effect of evaluation on USE programme, and lastly, the nature of school leadership on effective implementation as an intervening variable.

2.1 Theoretical Review

2.1.1 Implementation theory

According to Bybee (2003) 'implementation involves changing policies, programs and practices to be consistent with standards'. Furthermore, implementation is about policy becoming action. Implementing the selected option according to Rodrigue, et al., (2009) is a vital aspect of the policy process. A review of policy implementation literature (Birkland, 2010; Rodrigue, et al., 2009; Sabatier, 2007) portrays varying numbers of policy process models in relation to implementation of public policy. Fullan (1994) points out that neither centralized nor decentralized change strategies seem to work. He therefore suggests that a blend of the two orientations is essential for effective implementation. Additionally, theories of policy processes operate either as top-down or bottom-up orientation.

The top-down approach described by Birkland (2010) is an approach in which one first understands the goals and motivations of the highest level initiators of policy, and then tracks the policy through its implementation to the lowest level. However, Birkland (2010), based on Sabatier's (2007) studies on the factors required for successful policy implementation, outlines five basic assumptions for the top-down strategy:

Top-down implementation strategies depend on the capacity of policy objectives to be clearly and consistently defined;

Policies contain clearly defined tools for the accomplishment of goals;
Policies are characterized by the existence of single statute or other authoritative statements;
There is an implementation chain that starts with a policy message at the top and sees implementation as occurring in a chain;
Policy designers have good knowledge of the capacity and commitment of the implementers.

In a top-down model, the policy implementer assumes that any problems suggested by these assumptions (Sabatier, 2007) can be controlled. However, Birkland (2010) outlined problematic features of the top-down model: Its emphasis on objectives is devoid of a consensus on program goals, knowing that it is hard to set as standard for program success and failure.

Birkland (2010) also describes the bottom-up approach: This approach involves understanding the goals, motivations, and capabilities of the lowest level implementers and then follows the policy design upwards to the highest level of policy. Elmore (1997) advocates the bottom-up approach in preference to the top-down implementation process. The implementer in the bottom-up approach begins at the lowest level to the top-most policy designers. The relevant relationships in the process are mapped backwards.

As assessed below, assumptions underlying bottom-up approaches are in sharp contrast with top-down approaches:

First and foremost, literature from (Birkland, 2010; O'Toole, 2004; Sabatier, 2007), reveal that bottom-up approach recognizes that some goals are unclear and may conflict with other goals within the same policy area. These goals may also conflict with the norms and motivations of the lowest level implementers. Hill (2003) sees the issue of compliance arising where there is a conflict of interest between implementation agencies and politicians.

Top-down approaches insist on compliance, while bottom-up approaches value understanding how conflicts can be reduced through bargaining and sometimes compromising. Birkland (2010) therefore views implementation in a bottom-up approach

as a continuation of conflicts and compromises that come up throughout the policy implementation process.

A second assumption, according to Birkland (2010) is that bottom-up approach does not require a single defined policy or statute. Rather, policy can be thought of as asset of laws, rules, practices, and norms that shape how government and interest groups address these problems (Birkland, 2010). However, bottom-up approach emphasizes the ability of the lowest level implementers to upset the goals of top level policy makers (Sabatier, 2007). The lowest level implementers are constrained to act according to their professional norms and obligations with legal sanctions applied for non-compliance.

Thirdly, bottom-up approach assumes that groups are active participants in the implementation process. Birkland (2010) is of the view that this is not always true since some policies are drafted without public groups. Some policies are developed and implemented with relatively little public input. This could be the case with highly technical projects. A further issue to be considered is that bottom-up approaches involve the power differences of the target groups. Those with greater power can have greater influence on the impact of policies that affect them, than those with lesser powers. They tend to get differential treatment as reflected in the choice of policy tools. The choice of tools is made at the top, based on desired behavioral change and the nature of the target population itself.

However, considering what these two approaches do best, the top-down approach may be more useful when there is one single dominant program to be implemented. The bottom-up approach on the other hand makes sense when there is no one dominant program. According to Fullan (1994), a given intervention often determines the model that could be most appropriate, and sometimes a combination of the two has been found to be effective.

There are instances when not all policies get implemented in their original form. Kruger (2002) suggests that changes in policy may be made for economic reasons, i.e. when the cost of education is the issue. According to Gouger (2007), change in policy may sometimes be for demographic reasons: it could be that population trends have changed, ideological reasons could have changed, or perhaps the concept of 'good' education may have changed.

Policy development is dynamic and is a highly political process that involves multiple actors and negotiations (Keeley, 2001). Sabatier (2007), Hill and Hupe (2002), are of the view that what happens at the implementation stage influences the actual policy outcome. Bybee (2003) suggests that 'implementation involves changing policies, programs, and practices' so that they are consistent with targets. In a study to evaluate policy implementation, Dionco-Adetayo, Makinde and Adetayo (2004) stated that sound policies were formulated but failed at the level of implementation. Among the constraints listed as reasons for implementation failures were: 'inadequate definition of goals; over-ambitious policy goals; and, choice of inappropriate organizational structure in the implementation of policies' (Dionco-Adetayo, et al., 2004).

In addition, four key anchors that are essential for 'effective implementation and sustainability of educational policy, according to Fredua-Kwarteng (2008) include: 'flexibility to implement the policy at the community school level; support of critical stakeholders' as well as a curriculum being made to suit local needs and, compulsory teacher certification courses in local philosophy and pedagogy'. Fredua-Kwarteng (2008) argues that in a bid to resolve implementation challenges, there is the need to incorporate 'a bottom-up approach to policy implementation' that will encourage local community participation. This will satisfy the need of the community, for they feel they have a stake in the process of policy implementation.

Implementation literature presents a range of policies as well as diversity of socio-economic conditions that policies could be applied to. Based on such premise, it becomes a challenge to present an implementation procedure that fits all. A ten point model of policy implementation is presented by Rodrigue, et al., (2009):

1. Policies must not face insurmountable external constraints.
2. There must be adequate time frame and resources.
3. Implementing agency must have adequate staff and resources.
4. The premises of policy and theory must be compatible.
5. Cause-and-effect relationships in the policy must be direct and uncluttered.
6. Based on clear and unambiguous relationships, dependency relationships should be kept to a minimum.
7. The basic objectives of the policy need to be agreed upon and understood.
8. Tasks must be specified in appropriate sequences.

9. Communication and coordination need to be on the same wave length.
10. There must be compliance. Those agencies involved in implementing the policy must work towards total compliance.

Key stakeholder in USE implementation like the district local government officials and leaders are expected to interpret policy goals and help increase understanding and support for these goals.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework

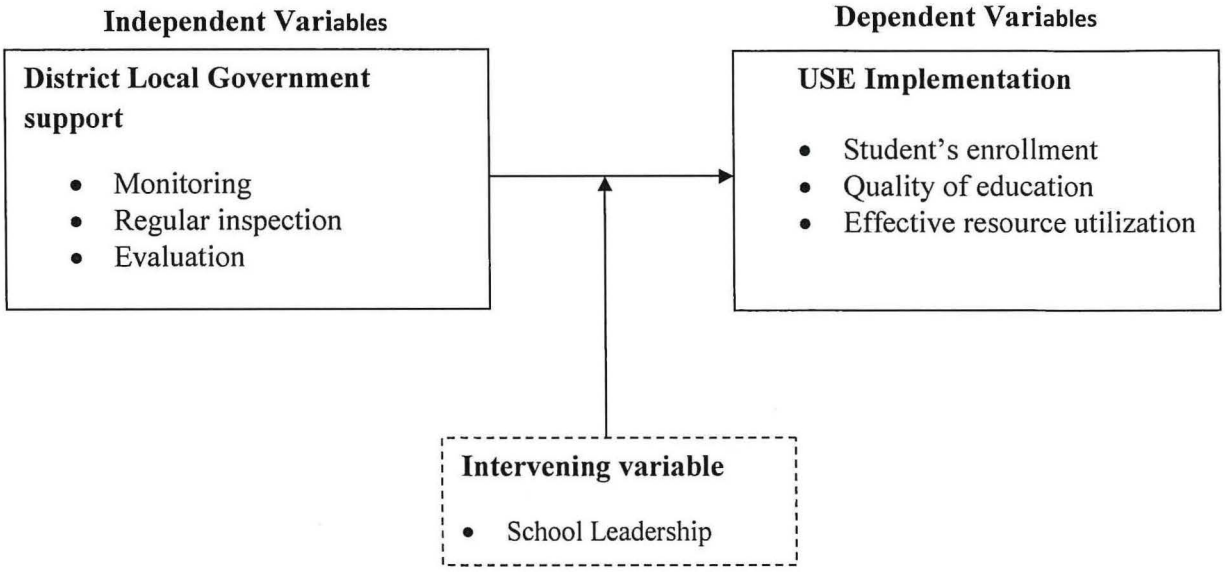

Figure 2: Model of the conceptual framework for the study of the relationship between DLG support and USE programme implementation.
Source: Adapted from teachers' education management programme handbook (TEMDEP 1993).

From figure 1 above, DLG participation in the implementation of USE program in schools is essential if USE subscribing schools are to deliver education services effectively, and if USE goals and objectives have to be achieved. The model takes into consideration the DLG roles and contributions, and the extent to which its contributions affect goal

achievement i.e. students 'enrollment and quality of education. The DLG managerial functions or roles include education monitoring, regular inspection and to some extent, evaluation of education policies. With proper participation of DLG in school management, there is bound to be positive aspects like increased student enrolment, good quality education and effective utilization of resources.

RELATED LITERATURE

2.4 Secondary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa

According to the World Bank report on governance, management and accountability in secondary education in Sub-Saharan Africa, international trends in secondary education have been driving much of the need for reform in secondary education throughout Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) (World Bank, 2008). The international commitment to Basic Education For All (especially primary education) that coalesce the 1990 Jomtien and the 2000 Darkar meeting drove the policies and financial investments of both donors and developing nations.

The successes of international movements have addressed many of the equity and quality issues facing developing countries as they expand their educational systems. EFA has thus drastically increased the demand for secondary education while competing with the resources necessary to respond to that demand (World Bank, 2008).

Another international trend that is driving change in SSA countries is a move towards compulsory secondary education. Longer periods of compulsory education are becoming a worldwide norm.

Lower secondary education is almost universally compulsory in Asia, North America, Europe, and Australasia. Some SSA countries are extending basic compulsory education. In Mali, basic education is going from six to nine years, in Senegal and Zambia, basic education lasts for eight years. Longer basic education allows more time for the consolidation of learning (Holsinger &Cowell, 2000). The introduction of USE in Uganda was a move towards extending compulsory education to the secondary school level.

In South Africa, user fees are identified as a barrier to education (Veriava, 2002).While school budgets are funded by allocations from state revenue, school fees are required to supplement these budgets to enable them run smoothly. The South Africa School Act (SASA) provides that a majority of parents at a public school may determine whether or not school fees are charged, and determine the amount to be paid. There was however exemptions from paying school fees for parents who could not afford to meet the cost. Exemption is extended to parents whose income is less than 30 times, but not more than 10 times the amount of fees (Veriava, 2002). In Kenya the government has a uniform allocation criterion for secondary tuition, meaning that education is accessible to every qualifying student graduating from primary school. A study was also sought to find out whether government allocations to some schools were adequate to meet the financial needs of the schools.

The demand for secondary education is increasing rapidly in almost all SSA countries. Verspoor (2008) notes that between 1999 and 2005 primary school intake increased by almost 40%. This implies that the large increase in the number of primary school graduates implies a large number of pupils who are seeking places in secondary schools. With increasing completion rates, the number of primary school leavers could even triple by 2020 in many countries in SSA (Verspoor, 2008). This creates an enormous challenge for secondary education policy. It needs to be designed not only to respond to inevitable rapid increase in demand for access, but also to provide the quality of instruction, necessary to ensure supply of personnel with higher levels of education and training that is demanded by growing and modernizing economy.

Breaking away from the low growth equilibrium that has characterized too many African economies for too long will require sustained investment in the improvement of human resources, especially secondary education (Verspoor, 2008). The introduction of free secondary education in Uganda shows government commitment to provide education to all Ugandans. But without development of human resources and posting of adequate teachers to schools, the quality of education could be jeopardized.

This study therefore seeks to find out the challenges being experienced in the implementation of USE with respect to readiness of district local government. According to Lewin (2008), projections of the financing required for a significant expansion of access

to secondary education - including progress towards a basic education cycle of 9 or 10 years, indicate that enrolment in secondary education cannot be expanded at present unit cost levels. Constrained by limited public resources and in the absence of significant policy reforms, SSA countries have responded to the increased demand for secondary education by spreading the same resources over larger number of students (Verspoor, 2008). Consequently, essential inputs are often in short supply, resulting in increasing class sizes and shortage of textbooks, instructional materials and supplies. Libraries are also poorly stocked and there is double or triple shift use of facilities. The study seeks to find out how schools are coping, especially with increased student enrolment in the Ugandan situation.

2.5 Education Policy

The policy process frames the conversation about education policy. The policy process as presented by Sutton (1999, August) portrays the process as linear, rational or a top down strategy with two distinct phases: formulation and implementation. However, Howard (2005) expressed the view that theorists such as Bridgeman and Davis (2003) highlight the importance of adaptations to policy as the standard for understanding public policy decision making. Howard (2005) suggests that writers make claims 'that the policy cycle is an impractical, normative model for decision making'. This resonates with Everett's (2003) assertion 'that politicians and administrators have limited [capacity] to compare options'; since their emphasis is more on formal procedures, ignoring the complex, value-laden nature embedded in a policy cycle (Howard, 2005).

The argument affirms that inputs to major government decisions were multifaceted, and required widespread, methodical techniques to inform decision-making. Policy development is dynamic and involves multiple actors and negotiations and the rigid form of the rational and scientific model does not leave room for this. Howard (2005) cites Radin's (2000) post-Machiavellian policy analysis, and makes the following assertion:
'The policy cycle has the potential to capture some of the fundamental features of current policy formulation, including the existence of numerous decision makers, the high degree of competition and contestability among sources of policy advice, and the substantial impact of previous policies on new efforts'.

Additionally, Howard (2005) suggests that the policy cycle needs to capture how politicians collaborate with bureaucrats to carry out good analytical work. Everett (2003)

agrees with Davis, Wanna, Warhurst, and Weller (1993) that the policy cycle is an administrative and bureaucratic mechanism for effectively setting a process in place once the difficult decisions have been made'.

A recent research, (Burton, 2006; Rodrigue, Comtois, & Slack, 2009) suggests that a full policy process starts with a definition of the problem as well as the rationale for its existence. Furthermore, defining the problem helps to set the context which further, directs and frames the actions to be considered in subsequent steps of the policy process. In providing background studies into the state of affairs; the actors, as well as the concerns and options for the way forward will be identified. According to Everett (2003), it is important that trends are forecasted so as to determine if issues are likely to change.

The Research Information Network (2010) refers to dissemination of information as 'helping to place research output on more media platforms'. RIN (2010) is of the view that the challenge of stakeholders is in their ability to keep pace with changes so that opportunities are exploited to the full. A Rural Health Research Panel (2007, p. 2), admitted that 'providing decision makers with timely, objective, and expert analysis of the implications of policy was appropriate'. Chilisa and Preece (2005) suggest that baseline data has to be made available to policymakers as these help redress misrepresentations, so that the problem warranting the need for a policy will be fully understood. Furthermore, there is considerable agreement that willingness to disseminate and accept change, emphasizes the need for unlimited support in that opportunities for debate and dialogue are not overlooked (Bybee, 2003).

Consequently, the concept of dissemination includes efforts at setting targets for reform initiatives in school improvement plans. According to Nkansah (2006, July), raising understanding and support for targets of policy goals are important. The preparation of school improvement plans has enhanced the goal of establishing awareness of targets for JHSs.

2.6 Education System in Uganda

Pre-primary education in Uganda features two or three year olds through five year olds and is outside the scope of compulsory education. The entry age to primary education is six years old.

Primary education lasts for seven years from P1 to P7, while secondary education lasts for six years from S1 to S6, creating a 7-6 system. In short, basic education in Uganda consists of pre-primary education, primary education and lower secondary education.

Primary education is divided into three phases: lower primary (P1 through P3), the transition year (P4) and upper primary (P5 to P7). On completing P7, pupils sit the PLE. Secondary education consists two cycles: Lower and higher secondary education cycles. When pupils complete the first cycle (S1 through S4) in lower secondary education, they sit Uganda Certificate of Education (UCE) examination. On passing this exam, they obtain O-level qualification and certification. Depending on the examination results, pupils with O-level qualifications can advance to higher secondary education (S5 and S6), or to non-university institutions like business/technical schools, vocational training schools or other, or primary teachers' college (PTC). At the end of S6, students sit the Uganda Advanced Certificate of Education (UACE) and obtain A-level qualifications on passing A-level examination. Pupils obtaining A-level qualifications can advance to university, technical college or national teachers' college (NTC), depending on the examination results (UNESCO, 2010).

After the introduction of Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1996, primary education became free in 1997. In 2008, primary education became compulsory. Free secondary education was included in the election manifest of President Museveni in November 2005 and secondary education gradually became free through the implementation of the Universal Secondary Education (USE) Initiative, and Universal Post Primary Education and Training (UPPET) Programme since 2007 (UNESCO, 2010 and Arakawa, 2009).

2.7 Effective monitoring of USE programme implementation

The concept of monitoring refers to the gathering of relevant information on learners performances at various stages in order to ascertain whether academic gains have been made. Building on this, monitoring can be thought of in terms of watching, keeping track, and checking with a purpose (Merriam Webster Dictionary, 2005). Monitoring of learners performance provides important information to politicians and the public at large. Hussein & Tuijnman, (1994) contends with the study that monitoring of education system has become a major policy issue. In addition, monitoring refers to the procedures of the collection of information about various aspects of the educational system at national,

regional and local level. The main purpose is to monitor performance to support learning or reach judgment or achievement. Other functions of monitoring are to provide information on school functioning and make changes in performance over time (Husen et al, 1994).

2.7.1 Monitoring systems

Monitoring systems are mechanisms that are used and issues pertaining to monitoring in order to ensure that learners are performing as expected. Tools are needed not only to ascertain whether academic improvements have occurred but also identify learners who are at risk (Safer& Fleishman, 2005). Thus data has to be collected at different times (Greaney & Kellaghan, 1996). Monitoring systems have certain characteristics and according to Fitz-Gibbon (1992) these include: dealing with manageable units of education; having an explicit rationale underpinning the system; having a primary aim that is negotiated among stakeholders, and one that does not interfere with the system that is being monitored. In other words a school is a unit that is being monitored according to sets of inputs, outcomes, and related processes that can be directly linked to that school. The inputs, processes and outcomes that are included in the monitoring system have to be specified and justification must be given as to why the indicators have been used. Furthermore, the monitoring systems and the indicators included have to be accepted by stakeholders of the school and should affect learners equally. Finally, data collection is essential to the monitoring process and should not take up excessive distraction of stakeholders from their daily duties.

2.7.1.1 ZEBO Project monitoring system

This helps schools to be able to track performance overtime and set targets to be attained (Scheerens & Hendricks, 2002). It also helps develop self-improvement plans and strategies (Hendricks et al 2001, 2002).

Figure3: Components and indicators of ZEBO–project

Variable included	Sub-categories	Source of information
Input indicators	-Initial achievement in mathematics and language. -Background characteristic such as socio-economic status, pupil characteristics like age -Financial and material inputs	School management information systems Questionnaires
Process indicators	-content covered such as books used, components taught &opportunities to learn. - Conditions that enhance school effectiveness school effectiveness such as achievement orientation and high expectation, leadership and cohesion of teachers; school and class climate, instruction methods.	Curriculum evaluation School diagnostics instrument Questionnaires
Outcome measures	Achievement that is adjusted in terms of initial achievement	Learner monitoring system based on achievement tests for mathematics and language

Source: Scheerens and Hendricks, 2002; Plomp, 2004

According to Hendriks et al, 2002 external monitoring teams are supposed to use a system which identifies the indicators and sources of information. There also exist other monitoring systems such as The Victoria Certificate of Education (VCE) designed from Austria, and the ABC + model designed in the United States of America. For the purpose of my study, the ZEBO project of monitoring system will be appropriately used, because it is simpler to understand.

2.8 Effective inspection of USE programme

According to Cleggy & Billington,(1994) the major purpose of inspection is 'to collect a range of evidence, march evidence against statutory set of criteria, arrive at judgment and make those judgment known to the public' p.20 Maw (1996) noted that inspection helps to monitor the standard of quality, efficiency, and ethos of the schools and to inform the government and the general public on those matters.

Furthermore, McGlynn & Stalker (1995) outline three reasons for school inspection:
Report on the effectiveness of education in schools and other educational institutions, and recommend actions for improvement.
Evaluate the arrangement for ensuring quality of schools.
Provide frank and objective advice to the higher educational authorities and to ensure that educational initiatives are implemented effectively.

Wanga (1998) contends that inspection can be conceptualized as overseeing, which involves directing, controlling, reporting, commanding and other initiatives that emphasize the tasks at hand and assess the extent to which the objectives have been accomplished within the boundaries set by the authority. Literature suggests that in Sub-Saharan Africa, school inspection is faced with a number of challenges:

2.8.1 Challenges facing inspection

2.8.1.1 Professionalism

Over the years, the behavior of school inspectors, especially toward teachers has been criticized by Kenya and Uganda as a whole. The major concerns are those associated with unprofessional conduct of school inspectors which, as Wanga (1988) noted, has had serious implications for teaching and learning to the extent that 'a private cold war' has developed between teachers and inspectors. Some school inspectors have been criticized for being harsh to teachers and for harassing teachers even in front of their pupils (Bowen, 2001; Isolo, 2000; Kamuyu, 2001; Nakitare, 1980; Ndegwa, 2001). According to Isolo, many school inspectors have developed the questionable habits.
They:
(a) Look down upon teachers with resentment and suspicion;
(b) Demand bribes from teachers in order to make favorable reports;
(C) Are dictatorial and have taken the attitude of 'do as I say or get in trouble'

(d) Work with unsmiling determination.

Describing unprofessional conduct of school inspectors, Kamuyu (2001) noted that some inspectors behave like outsiders whose sole mission is to work against teachers to prove that no teacher is competent. Similarly, Masara (1987) noted that some inspectors reportedly visit schools to boss and to harass teachers instead of helping them solve professional problems. The unprofessional behavior of some school inspectors has had the following serious negative consequences:

- Poor relationship between inspectors and teachers (Masara, 1987);
- The tendency of teachers to mistrust school inspectors (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and technology, 1999);
- Teachers have regarded inspection as a stressful experience due to fear of the unknown (Ndegwa, 2001);
- Education standards have been compromised because teachers are not given a chance to disapprove inappropriate policies forced on them by inspectors (Ndegwa, 2001);
- A harsh and unfriendly teacher-inspector relationship (Daily Nation Editor, 2001; Isolo, 2001);
- Lack of sufficient teacher support (Wanga, 1988);
- There is no guarantee that teachers will recognize and accept any shortcomings identified by inspectors;
- Teachers and head teachers are likely to be apprehensive and consequently decide to put something of a show to impress inspectors when informed on impending inspection;
- Fear among school personnel (Wanga, 1988);
- Lack of professional commitment on the part of teachers (Nakitare, 1980)

Furthermore, as noted by Mwanzia (1985), as teachers have developed negative attitude toward inspectors, Masara (1987) commented that, teachers' probably still view inspectors in the same way as it were during the colonial times. At that time, teachers regarded school inspectors as intruding policemen who were always looking for faults, and were potential threats! As Masara noted, teachers have tended to develop a great deal of anxiety about inspection and are consequently unable to carry out their duties well. Wanga also

concluded that because of questionable behavior of some school inspectors, the idea of inspecting teachers still makes teachers 'feel small' and irresponsible and are consequently always anxious even during inspection.

Furthermore, Kamuyu (2001), while on the issue of school inspectors, commented that head teachers and teachers are thrown into panic any time school inspectors are mentioned. Maranga (1986), in a study that analyzed school inspectors' perception of teacher-inspector relationship in Kenya, reported that 75% of the inspectors felt that they portrayed themselves to teachers in such a manner that teachers perceived them as potential danger. In a similar study in UK, Dean (1995) examined what primary and secondary school teachers and head teachers thought about inspection. He reported that teachers generally felt threatened by inspection and that an inspector's attitude in the classroom was intimidating, especially if the inspector spent all the time at the back of the class with a clipboard making notes which were never shown to the teacher. These findings are corroborated by other findings elsewhere (Thomas, 1996).

2.8.2 Attitudes and Commitment

Over the years, school inspectors have had general negative attitude toward inspection and a decided lack of commitment and positive approach to inspection (Olembo et al., 1992). Nakitare's (1980) critical study of supervisory practices in Kimilili Division of Bungoma District, Kenya, reported that 5% of the teachers studied believed that some inspectors were not dedicated to their inspectoral duties.

The general negativity towards, and the lack of commitment to inspection was attributed to lack of appropriate incentives associated with inspectoral role. As noted by Wanga (1988), there seems to be a lack of recognition for inspectoral role by the higher government authorities. Because of apparent lack of incentives, she noted, there is a lack of commitment and initiatives on the part of school inspectors to their inspectoral roles which has further led to the inspectors performing inadequately.

2.8.3 Feedbacks and Follow-Up

Productive feedback and follow-up initiatives relative to inspection are lacking in the Kenyan, Ugandan inspection system (Olembo, Wanga, & Karagu, 1992; Wanga, 1988). As Wanga noted, opportunities for follow-up regarding recommendations based on

inspection, such as the need for in-service training of teachers are badly lacking. And because school inspectors are not members of the school, their attempts to provide follow-up initiatives, for example, in facilitating in-service training programs based on their recommendations, are highly limited. Therefore, there does not seem to be a sure mechanism for ensuring that improvement initiatives will be undertaken. Furthermore, because of lack of follow-up, there is no way of ensuring that inspection will contribute to school development in a cost-effective way. The problem of lack of feedback is not unique to Kenya but also Uganda. In a study that examined primary and secondary teachers' and Head Teachers' perceptions of inspection in 5 local authorities in UK, Dean (1995) reported a lack of feedback to teachers who, as a result, were frustrated. Teachers in this study also agreed that they were disturbed whenever an inspector simply left the lesson without saying anything.

2.8.4 Collaboration

Because school inspectors have tended to evaluate teachers basing on their own perceptions of teacher performance, teacher involvement on matters regarding school inspection has been very minimal (Wanga, 1988). Opportunities for meaningful dialogue between teachers and inspectors, especially after inspections, are also highly limited. As Masara (1987) noted, currently teachers do not understand and never participate in designing instruments that are used to evaluate them. He also argued that school inspectors had the tendency to be secretive and only concentrating on their businesses and not able to communicate constructively with teachers.

2.8.5 Pre-Service and In-Service Training

Wanga notes that there is no specific courses regarding school inspection at the pre-service training programs for aspiring teachers in teacher colleges and universities. Similarly, in-service training opportunities for school inspectors and teachers on school inspection are hopelessly inadequate (Daily Nation Editor, 2001; Olembo et al., 1992; Wanga, 1988). On this point, the Chief Inspector of Schools CIS), Daniel Rono (Achayo & Githagui, 2001), in a speech at a sub-regional curriculum development workshop in Nairobi, Kenya, noted that there existed no comprehensive programs for inspector in-service training and that induction courses, where available, had been conducted inadequately due to financial constraints. Furthermore, Wanga (1988) observed that opportunities for in-service training for inspectors to keep them abreast of developments in

education, to improve their professional skills, and to enjoy the respect and esteem of the teaching profession, were highly lacking. Because of unlimited in-service training opportunities for teachers, especially in the skills and techniques of inspecting, they lack a wide perspective relative to school inspection. Further to this, as Republic of Kenya (1999) noted, because school inspectors are incompetent and are untrained, they are unable to monitor and evaluate educational programs effectively.

2.8.6 Inspectorate autonomy

As noted by the CIS, Daniel Rono, in a speech at a sub-regional curriculum development workshop in Nairobi, Kenya (Achayo and Githagui, 2001), there is general lack of autonomy for inspectors to execute their services and, consequently, are unable to implement recommendations based on inspections. Siringi, (2001), explained that all a school inspector could do was inspect schools, point out mistakes, make recommendations, and pass them to the boards of governors, district education boards, and Provincial Directors of Education (PDsE) for implementation. Though these findings were in Kenya, the situation is not different from other African countries like Uganda.

2.8.7 Transport

School inspectors are often faced with the problem of lack of transport, especially for those inspectors deployed in rural areas (Mwanzia, 1985; Nakitare, 1980; Olembo et al., 1992; Republic of Kenya, 1999; Wanga, 1988). This problem is aggravated by the fact that some schools are located in areas that are too remote to be reached by inspectors (Oloo, 1990; Nakitare, 1980; Mwanzia, 1985).

Furthermore, there is a lack of sufficient traveling and subsistence allowances funds especially to meet expenses associated with transport and accommodation (Mwanzia, 1985; Wanga, 1988). The CIS, Daniel Rono, in a speech at a sub-regional curriculum development workshop, Nairobi, Kenya (Achayo & Githagui, 2001) concluded that the problem of lack of transport had affected regular and efficient inspection of schools in different parts of the country.

2.8.8 Planning Inspection

School inspection practices in Uganda and other Sub-Saharan countries have been marked by poor planning: (Republic of Kenya Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology,

1999). As the Republic of Kenya Ministry of education, Science, and Technology noted, plans for inspection of schools have been over-ambitious and are consequently seldom carried out. Similarly, Olembo et al. (1992) noted that inspection of schools in Kenya has at times been marked by impromptu, irregular visits by some inspectors with the object of 'catching' the teachers doing wrong. In addition to this, Mwanzia (1985) in a study of the factors that affect inspection and supervision of primary schools in Changwithya and Mulango Zones, Central Division, Kitui District, Eastern Province, reported that some schools and teachers were visited and supervised more frequently than others.

2.8.9 Inspection Reports

As explained by Ministry of Education (1994), school inspectors are expected to prepare inspection reports with detailed recommendations and to avail the reports to the school authorities, the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education, and the Secretary, Teachers Service Commission, to take any necessary action. However, there is no clear indication regarding accessibility of the reports by teachers, parents, and any other interested parties. Furthermore, there seems to be a deliberate neglect of the 'school context' in the process of inspection as well as in the inspection reports. *Context*, with reference to school inspection, refers to the conditions, both in the school and beyond, within which the school operates and school's achievements prior to inspection (Wilcox & Gray, 1994).

2.8.10 Assessing Inspection

There is a general lack of appropriate post-inspection evaluation by school inspectors at the conclusion of each inspection to determine the views of head teachers and other school personnel regarding the practice and process of inspection.

In summary, the above problems tend to perpetuate inadequate inspection by creating a vicious circle in which school inspectors are reluctant to invest the necessary time and effort matters relating to school inspection.

2.9. Effective evaluation of USE program

Evaluation has many faces and different people mean different things when using the word evaluation (Nevo, 1995:71) Thus, different individuals emphasize evaluation for different reasons. For example; some people put emphasis on evaluation as a means of finding out

what is happening with the school and others assess evaluation as a means to hold the school accountable. Davidoff and Lazarus (2002:84) contend that because of educators' experience with evaluation in the past, evaluation is often considered in a negative light. According to Quinlan and Davidoff (1997:3), evaluation was generally concerned with bureaucratic efficiency and social control rather than professional development. As a result the evaluation system has continuously emerged as one of the most deeply resented aspects of the education system; However, Nevo (1994:92) is of the opinion that some of the resistance which some individuals in the school show could be a result of misperceptions. Therefore, an attempt should be made to clarify the meaning of evaluation and develop a common understanding of its role in the school.

According to Eisner (1994.), evaluation is used in education to perform a wide variety of functions. Of the many functions of evaluation in education, the following five are especially important:

- To diagnose;
- To revise curricula;
- To compare,
- To anticipate educational needs;
- To determine if objectives have been achieved.

It is, therefore, important to realize the existence of the various evaluation functions and the value of these functions to the education system. Nevo (1995.28) maintains that the basic function of evaluation is to get a better understanding of the nature of the evaluated object and its quality. Such understanding can serve formative functions such as planning, monitoring or improvement and summative functions such as selection, accreditation or accountability. As Root and Overly (1990:36) put it, evaluation strategy should be designed for the purpose of gathering data to improve performance (formative evaluation), and to collect data to make decisions concerning promotion or re-employment (summative evaluation). Likewise Drake and Roe (1999:279) agree that evaluation is essential to the continual improvement of the quality of life of each individual within the school; including both learners and teachers. Like learners and teachers, schools need to be evaluated. This is done to determine whether schools are fulfilling their mandate: educative teaching. As Blandford (2000:139) puts it, evaluation is an overall check on whether objectives are

achieved within the planned timetable. But Potter and Powell: 122) argue that evaluation of any aspect of school management or curriculum is best achieved in the context of clearly stated criteria. Culling Ford (1997:119) concurs- and maintains that when school systems are evaluated in the light of a desire for improvement, certain ground rules emerge. Those that are responsible for evaluation should not only know these rules and/or criteria, but should also understand how to apply them so that evaluation should be effective. Nevo (1995:1-4) maintains that to choose criteria by which to judge the merit of an evaluation object or some of its dimensions is one of the most difficult and controversial tasks in educational evaluation.

Nevo (1995-43) regards improvement as an ongoing need of the school (organization): Learners have to improve their performance; teachers have to improve their teaching and their teaching skills: curricula materials have to be continuously updated and improved, and the school as a whole has to continuously improve itself in order to compete with other schools or as a response to request for innovation and modernization.

Evaluation is the mechanism to determine if there is indeed for an improvement in all these. Therefore, any evaluation that is conducted in the school should focus on *improvement* of the object or individual that is being evaluated. Thus, evaluation should lead to strategies that can be used to address problems that were picked up or identified during the evaluation. For example Eisner (1994:184), is of the opinion that without evaluating teaching as well as the curriculum, it is not possible to know when there are difficulties and what their sources are. The same can be said about any object of evaluation, including the school. As a result Nevo (1995:38) is of the opinion that evaluation is viewed as a constructive tool for *improvement* and *innovation.* Therefore evaluation should be seen as one important step in the ongoing process of strategic planning that is needed to ensure the development of a good school (Davidoff and Lazarus, 2002.86. Drake and Roe (1999:280) add that the process of evaluation is linked with decision making because improvement cannot result from evaluation unless implied changes are implemented. Meanwhile, Cullinford (1997:113) contends that when it comes to evaluating schools, the emphasis is not so much on measurement as on finding out which activities or type of approach will lead to improvement.

2.9.1 Purpose of evaluation

According to Dagley and Orso (1997:72), the focus on school reform brings to the light the need for accountability and improvement. Tools of choice for each respectively have become evaluation and supervision. Supervision involves monitoring what goes on in schools to ensure that the policy is being implemented at school level (Potterton, 2004:66). Mayo (1997) contends that evaluation is expected to foster teacher's development and growth. Teacher in development is one of the pre-requisites of school development and improvement. In areas where there is no staff development programmes, it is highly unlikely that the school can develop and/or improve. The purpose of evaluation is therefore to determine the extent to which goals and priorities of the school have been addressed and/or achieved.

The purpose of evaluation ranges from the minimum standards that are being met, those teachers that are being faithful to the school's overall purposes and educational platform, to helping teachers grow and develop as individuals and professionals (Sergiovanni & Staratt, 1988:352). Thus, activities taking place in the school need be evaluated in order to ascertain whether they meet the individuals' as well as school objectives.

(Sergiovanni & Staratt, (1988:352) group the purposes of evaluation into three major categories:

Quality control: Here the supervisor is responsible for monitoring teaching and learning and does so by visiting classrooms, touring the school, talking with people and learners.

Professional development: Helping the teachers to grow and to develop in their understanding of teaching and classroom life, in improving basic teaching skills and in expanding their knowledge and use of teaching repertoires.

Teacher motivation: Building and nurturing motivation and commitment of teaching, to the school's overall purposes and to the school's defining educational platform.

Nevo (1995:13) contends that evaluation should not to be limited to the evaluation of learners or school personnel. Almost everything taking place in the school can be an object for evaluation. Everard and Morris (1996:263) concur and maintain that exercise of and the purpose of evaluation should be communicated to those involved and/or to be affected by the evaluation. Individuals should, therefore, be made aware as to why evaluation should be conducted and most importantly how it is to benefit them.

2.9.2 Types of evaluation:

Many types of evaluations exist and some of these are more effective than others. Thus, various countries use different types (forms) of evaluation for a variety of reasons. For example, some countries use appraisal as forms of evaluation, while others use inspection as a form of evaluation.

Inspection as a form of evaluation: Oldroyd et al (1996:34) regards inspection as the process of visiting an institution in order to collect evidence for systematic evaluation. In some cases however, inspections have tended to be a threatening and negative experience (Quinlan & Davidoff, 1997:1). Daviidoff and Lazrus (2002:84) concur and maintain that in Africa the history of inspection and control of schools has provided many reasons to be cyclical of any evaluation process. Teachers who have developed negative attitude towards inspection cannot benefit by it and the whole exercise can become futile.

Appraisal as form of evaluation: Appraisal is seen to be the most effective form of evaluation in schools where the prime aim is to overtly develop staff and where the appraiser and appraise engage in professional partnership to enable this to happen in the most helpful way (Ormaston & Shaw, 1996:65). Steyn (2002b:278) concurs and adds that if appraisal could be seen as something positive, and one that provides a means of expressing appreciation to teachers by offering support and improving the quality of teaching, it would be more readily received. According to Steyn (2002b: 280), appraisal is also closely linked to teacher's performance, personal qualities and beliefs, and therefore viewed as a very delicate issue. Thus, a favorable climate where there is trust and openness between those involved in the appraisal system should be created. Squelch and Lemmer (1994:113) concur and maintain that appraisal systems have the potential to develop the teachers professionally and to improve the quality of schooling.

According to UNICEF (2003), an evaluation report should include the following:

- Findings and evidence – factual statements that include description and measurement;
- Conclusions – corresponding to the synthesis and analysis of findings;
- Recommendations –what should be done, in the future and in specific situations; And where possible,

Lessons learned – Corresponding to conclusions that can be generalized beyond the specific case; including lessons that are of broad relevance within the country, regionally and globally. Lessons can include generalized conclusions about causal relations (what happens) and generalized normative conclusions (how an intervention should be carried out).

2.9.3 Evaluation criteria

A set of widely shared evaluation criteria should guide the appraisal of any intervention or policy. These are:

Relevance – What is the value of the intervention in relation to other primary stakeholders 'needs? These may include national priorities, national and international partners' policies (MDGS, NDPs, PRSPs and SWAPs), and global references such as human rights, humanitarian law and humanitarian principles, the CRC and CEDAW. These global standards serve as a reference in evaluating both the processes through which results are achieved, be they intended or unintended.

Efficiency – Does the programme use the resources in the most economical manner to achieve its objectives?

Effectiveness – Is the activity achieving satisfactory results in relation to the stated goals?

Impact – What are the results of the intervention - intended and unintended, positive and negative, including the social, economic, environmental effects on individuals, communities and institutions?

2.9.4 Areas of evaluation in schools

Demands are increasingly being made on schools to demonstrate that they are effective and that they are improving. Pressure has been exerted on them to find ways of enhancing achievement, to raise standards and for their own survival (if nothing else),to attract learners (Earley, 1998:168). Thus, to ascertain whether the school meets these demands and or/ fulfills its mandate, certain areas need to be evaluated and these should be identified.

2.9.4.1 Basic functions of the school

The main function of the school is to make sure that teaching and learning are taking place effectively. Thus, evaluation is designed to judge whether basic conditions exist in the school to enable it to function efficiently and effectively and realize the education and

social goals set for it by local and national authorities. Evaluation basically helps to ascertain whether or not the school is capable of carrying out its basic function, which is educative teaching. Supervisors must therefore make judgments, and report on the effectiveness of the following:

- The school policies and procedures;
- The level of absence;
- Lateness and truancy, and procedures for dealing with them;
- Learner's response to the provision and the behavior of learners.

2.9.4.2 Leadership, management and communication

At the heart of the school life are leadership, management and governance. It is these aspects of school that ensure that all other aspects are held together and developed (Davidoff & Lazarus, 2002: 36). Thus, the key purpose of evaluating this area is to assess the effectiveness of leadership and management of the school at various levels in the management structure (Department of Education, 2001). Educative-teaching can only take place in a school that is well managed.

2.9.4.3 Learner achievement

The main external purpose is to evaluate the achievement of the learners and assess the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that they have acquired. Particular attention must be paid to levels of performance in communication and problem solving skills, and the ability to work in groups and make responsible decisions. According to Killen (1999:12), teachers must provide learners with sufficient opportunities to practice, and use new knowledge and skills that they gain. This is so that under the teacher's guidance, the learners can explore and experiment with their learning, correct errors and adjust their thinking.

2.9.5 Other areas of school evaluation include:

School safety, security, and discipline; curriculum provision and resources; quality of teaching and learning; teacher development; school infrastructure, parents and communities

Dependent variables

2.10 USE implementation

According to Bybee (2003) 'implementation involves changing policies, programs and practices to be consistent with standards'. Further still, implementation is about policy becoming action. Implementing the selected option according to Rodrigue, et al., (2009) is a vital aspect of the policy process. A review of policy implementation literature (Birkland, 2010; Rodrigue, et al., 2009; Sabatier, 2007) portrays varying numbers of policy process models in relation to implementation of public policy. Fullan (1994) points out that neither centralized nor decentralized change strategies seem to work. He therefore suggests that a blend of the two orientations is essential for effective implementation. Additionally, theories of policy processes operate either as top-down or bottom-up orientation.

2.10.1 Student enrolment and school dropout

In the Ugandan context, enrollment refers to the process of registering students into the school register and it is done at the beginning of every academic calendar where parents are required to take to school the students who have completed primary seven and obtained required grades. Upon registration, a track record of their physical presence and learning in class is monitored twice daily by a class teacher by marking their presence. In a situation where attendance fluctuates, it amounts to absenteeism but if absenteeism is spread for a period longer than one year; the child is then considered having dropped out of school in that year.

School dropout is the difference between the number of pupils/students enrolled at the beginning of the year and the number of those who remained at the end of the year (MGLSD and Uganda Bureau of Statistics 2002:12). In the context of Uganda, dropout is considered to happen whenever student/pupil falls out of the school system before completing primary seven (Ministry of Gender Labour and Social Development, 2013)

According to a joint (UIS) 5/UNICEF global estimate, 115 million school-age children are out of school. This number is equivalent to 18 per cent or almost one in five of the children worldwide in this age group. Still there are many children who never enter primary school, more who will enter late (and over-age), and others will enter and drop out before completing full cycle of primary schooling regardless of UPE existence. This is as a result of factors such as policy problems, lack of access to schools, poor quality education, high

schooling costs and low returns to education among others which gang up to push children out of UPE schools (MFPED 2002). This situation is more similar to what is happening with USE programme in secondary schools.

2.10.2 Quality of Education

The concept of Quality Education (QE) is contextual concept, constantly undergoing change characterized by discussion and debate among policy makers, practitioners and other groups (Adams, 1993:1). It is difficult to distinguish between education and QE as the latter is more .debated than articulated. Because of its conceptual broadness (Schubert, 2005: 53), the concept is relative as it changes over time and differs geographically due to variation of aims, functions and the means to realize them (Sifuna, 2007: 689-690). There is no simple all-encompassing definition. In fact over fifty varieties have been identified (Adams, 1993; UNESCO, 2004).

My aim is therefore not to arrive at a specific definition here, but to unfold the concept's historical evolution and dimensions. Hopefully, this will enable me to operate the concept as a tool for studying the quality of secondary school education in Mukono district. In brief, the purpose of QE is to strengthen the individuals 'ability to accomplish economic, social and cultural objectives, to strengthen the protection of societies and improve the ways in which leaders govern them. In many ways the quality aspect makes society more equitable (Dréze and Sen in UNESCO, 2004).

Throughout the last decade, United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) has evolved the notion of quality into: learners' health and promptness to learn; safe and well-resourced learning environments; relevant curriculums for attainment of basic skills; child-centered teaching pedagogy; and outcomes based on competence and attitudes in line with national education policies and civic-participation (Schubert, 2005). Hence, UNICEF has been the most influential user of the .human rights approach in the QE discourse. The approach's focal points are learners 'fundamental right to receive education, learner-centeredness and democracy (Tikly, 2011; Tikly and Barrett, 2011). The Global Campaign for Education (GCE), closely tied with UNICEF, expanded the approach to include education's responsiveness to individual learners 'and local communities' need. Simultaneously, the human capital approach had become the other dominating wing in the Quality Education (QE) discourse. UNESCO is the largest developing agency supporting the approach, and is

best known for the Education for All (EFA) goals as defined in Dakar, Senegal, in 2000, a parallel effort to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The human capital concept emerged due to a growing concern for severe inequality in developing countries

2.10.2. Challenges to quality education

2.10.2.1 Infrastructure

Infrastructure such as, good and enough classrooms, teacher and learner accommodation, laboratories and libraries are important prerequisites for Quality Education.

2.10.2.2 Instructional material

SveinBjarne, (2011) believed that quality depends on the availability of materials such as books and instruments, especially for carrying out practical experiments.

2.10.2.3 Teacher/learner ratios

Quality is shaped by teachers' attention to individual learners (Altinyelken, 2010). From literature high number of teachers said they require moderate teacher/learner ratios and yet many USE schools student enrollment has increased tremendously (MoES, 2011).

2.10.2.4 Teacher quality

According to Altinyelken, (2010) teacher's quality plays every important role in determining the quality of education offered to students. Teachers need to be professionals, especially in terms of being role models, committed, and well-qualified.

2.10.2.5 Teacher motivation

Not surprisingly, there is a relationship between compensation and teacher attitudes (World Bank). Weiss (1999) found that there is correlation between teacher perception of salary and level of morale and the job satisfaction. When teachers believe that, they are being fairly compensated for their work, their morale and level of commitment to their job is high and visa-versa.

2.10.2.6 Financial constraints, causes and consequences

According to the study conducted by Werner, 2010 found out that teachers blame their low and delaying salaries on schools' lack of funds. Governmental aided institutions often experience a delay in shipments of money from the government, and sometimes they do

not receive money at all. A large part of governmental aided schools 'economy derives from parents' pockets, and consequently the schools suffer when parents are financially incapacitated and central funding is not sufficient. Private schools always rely on parents' payment of tuition and their failure to pay affects the schools' ability to provide Quality Education.

2.10.2.7 Another challenge is food:

Poverty has denied many parents from providing food to their children in schools. Neither schools nor parents can afford to provide learners with lunch. So this in return affects the quality of education provided to students, because of being taught on empty stomach.

2.10.2.8. Parental support

Many teachers argue that parental support in terms of providing the necessary resources for learners, creating conducive study environment at home, monitoring their progress, and encouraging learners by giving them morale to study, is crucial for the quality of education. Parents are said to offer advisory role on learner's behaviour and discipline. However literature indicates that many parents are un supportive.

2.10.2.9 Absenteeism and drop-out rates

Literature suggests that drop-out rates are a major challenge in secondary school education caused by parents' prioritization of domestic work, their inability to pay school fees, and learners who get married at an early age.

2.10.2.10 Teaching and learning approaches

Literature review reveals that approaches to teaching and learning, or the =black box', is important for the quality of education and consequently for people's livelihoods.

2.11 School Leadership

Teaching today is increasingly complex, requiring the highest standards of professional practice for high performance (Harris and Muijs, 2005). Teaching is the core profession which can change society, and teachers are the builders of knowledge in society. Leaders of schools can change schools and society through their strong influence. Harris and Muijs (2005) state:

> "Leadership can be defined as providing vision, direction and support towards a different preferred state – suggesting change. Thus leadership, change and school improvement are closely related. It should be said that leaders are the change makers and don't necessarily head to reside at the top of the organization (p. 15)"

Development of leadership at all levels is one of the crucial elements of school improvement. In particular schools must be led by principals who co-ordinate day to day work to implement the mission of their organization. Leaders must have vision to take the school to the position that stakeholders expect. Leaders should inspire the teachers to make their vision a success. Hammock (2001) says:

> 'The world needs skillful leaders who can create powerful and positive vision of the future. Leaders who can engage people in support of such visions and motivate them to enact those visions for the betterment of their organizations or societies; Leadership of this kind requires tremendous skill, skill that will always be in short supply (p. 28)".

If traditions and beliefs surrounding leadership are considered, it is easy to understand that leadership is vital to effectiveness of a school (Marzano, Waters and Mcnulty, 2005).School effectiveness is now usually defined in terms of student outcomes (Cheese and Early, 1999). School improvement research has shown that leadership is important in order to produce good student outcome. Harris 2002 (Robinson 2004) notes the changing focus of education leadership by tracing the development of educational leadership theory and research over recent decades, observing three significant overall shifts.

From generic educational leadership: it recognizes the education expertise and experience as important for many aspects of educational leadership which are specific to schools and schooling; from leader style to leadership practice:
From a heroic to a distributed conception of leadership: it recognizes schools as complex organizations that need leadership capacity at all levels if they are to function well.

Focusing on identifying the leadership practices that make a difference to teaching and learning, and enabling much improved professional learning and development for educational leaders.

Robinson argues that these shifts have significant implication for both research and practice of education leadership. Overall, she views these changes as having the potential to deliver both research and leadership practice which make a positive difference to teaching and learning.

2.11.1 Styles of leadership

According to the review of Lithewood and his colleagues (Coleman and Early, 2005) there are six broad categories of styles of leadership which represent the models of leadership institutions:

- Instructional leadership.
- Transformational leadership.
- Moral leadership.
- Participative leadership.
- Managerial leadership.
- Contingent leadership (p. 14).

2.11.1.1 Instructional leadership

When the principal's focus is on the learning of the students, this approach is called instructional or pedagogical leadership. It is also referred to as 'learning –centered leadership'. It is when the focus is on good teaching, learning and student achievement (Coleman and Earley, 2005). In this type of leadership the main concerns of the principal are likely to be the curricular teaching and learning processes and monitoring of students learning. Teachers can improve their effectiveness through the guidance of the leaders.

2.11.1.2 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is an approach where leaders are able to inspire their teachers with a vision that energizes them and encourages them to work together towards a common good (Robinson, Hahepa and Lioy, 2009). In such an approach, the leaders consider the importance of others rather than their personal needs. They inspire their followers by communicating the vision of their organization. They encourage innovation and creativity of the staff (Coleman and Early, 2005). These practices influence the way teachers do work for their schools. Transformation leaders are thought to employ four influence processes:

Individualized consideration: giving personal attention to individual staff so that they feel uniquely valued.

Intellectual stimulation: encouraging new ways of thinking about the issues.
Inspiration motivation: communicating optimism and high expectations.
Idealized influence: providing a vision and sense of purpose that elicit trust and respect from followers (Robison, Lioyd, 2009).

2.11.1.3 Moral leadership

This is an approach that is founded on the importance of values and morality. Values play an important part in constructing leader's minds escapades, and in determining their leadership practices (Sergiovann, 1992). This kind of leadership aims for morally justified actions and democracy in schools.

Participative leadership is focused on democracy in schools and on the showing of decision making within them (Coleman and Early, 2005). Leadership is distributed among the teachers; this helps to create a cooperative atmosphere in the schools. Schools become more democratic through the practice of participative decision making and actions. Leadership is required from everyone so that all members are engaged in creating a meaningful decision and act on that, (Parth and Pals, 1994 as mentioned in Bennet, Craw and Cart Wright, 2003).

2.11.1.4 Managerial leadership

This is a formal approach that focuses on efficient achievement of goals. This approach to leadership may also be called transitional, technical or organizational leadership. This type is seen as bureaucratic and hierarchical (Coleman and Early, 2005). Everything is done in a formal way and administrative actions are dormant in this style of leadership.

2.11.1.5 Contingent leadership

This stresses the variation in response of leaders to various situations. Leaders aim at increasing capacity at organizations to respond productively to demand for the change needed for development (Coleman & Early 2005). It places importance on responding to various situations in schools. Principals respond effectively to solve problems according to the needs of the specific situation. It is important to note that the most appropriate

approach depends on the school context. The environment in which leaders work obviously influences leadership. The styles outlined above are practiced in whole or in part, by educational leaders according to their preferences, needs and contexts. To become successful leaders in a school, it is important that head teachers understand the ideas and practices relative to their school context.

2.11.2 Leadership and management:

While leadership is the major focus of this study, it is acknowledged that much of the head teacher's time today in Uganda is primarily spent on administrative and managerial activities. In this proposal, the term management is used to mean 'the nuts and bolts' of planning, organizing and interpersonal relationship required by head teachers on a day today basis. In comparison, leadership is considered to be a future and change, oriented process of vision building, networking and empowerment. As Dunford et al (2000) states 'leadership is the duty to make the school forward whilst management is concerned with the procedures necessary to keep the school running. Leadership is concerned with the long term and strategic decision, while management deals with the immediate and short term issues' p.2.

Although different, leadership and management are two essential and complementary elements for the successful operation of a school (Bowman & Deal, 1997; South Worth, 1998 Day et al 2000) Head teachers are not expected to do things right but they must be leaders who do the right thing. Head teachers need to be able to balance a demand for managerial efficiency with educative and to democratize leadership (Thaw, 2002).

2.11.3 Distributed leadership

Leadership can have a powerful influence on the effectiveness of a school and on the outcomes of students. As Harris (2004) States:

"Contemporary education reform places a great premium upon the relationship between leadership and school improvement. International research evidence has consistently reinforced the importance of leadership in securing and sustaining improvement".

Various leadership practices are practiced by educational leaders to improve their schools, but currently, distributed leadership is in vogue (Harris, 2004). Distributed leadership has become a catch word for organizations in both commercial and educational contexts in the

last years and currently it receives much attention from researchers around the globe. In a distributed leadership approach, teachers share responsibilities in order to fulfill school goals. A distributed model of leadership focuses on the interactions rather than the actions (Harris, 2008). Teachers work with head teachers without a positional appointment for the tasks, because they are highly motivated to do so and have a feeling of personal responsibility (Barrelt, 1998 - 2004).

Distributed leadership emphasizes the sharing of decision making among members of the organizations. With this approach not only leaders but also teachers and students are bound particularity to their activities. Distributed leadership is a way of working together where all the members of the team respect each other at the work place and give opportunity to others to lead. Heroic leadership cannot satisfy other members as it does not create a scope for other members to work significantly. Distributed leadership is not intended only to decide the work load, but also to motivate all the members of staff to work together for a common goal. It is also important to create opportunities for the people who have expertise. The leaders must influence the experts to work for the organization.

2.11.4 Leadership and change

Educational institutions need effective leadership in order to implement positive and desirable changes. According to Fullan (2009), effective leadership in schools enables successful implementation of educational reforms.

The literature discussed in this chapter shows important aspects of leadership as it provides a vision, directions and support to improve schools. To effect position changes, school leaders need powerful and positive vision of the future

2.12 Chapter summary

This chapter discussed related literature concerning the two constructs, namely DLG support and USE implementation. These included monitoring the USE programme; regular inspection and effective evaluation. Constructs in USE implementation are: student enrollment, quality of education and effective utilization. Along the way it reviewed related literature on the intervening variable.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter described the procedures that were followed in conducting the study. It gives details regarding research design, population of the study area, sample and sampling techniques, a description of data collection instruments used, as well as the techniques that were used to analyse data.

3.2. Research Design

Paulin (2007) defines research design as a plan of what data to gather, from whom, how and when to collect data, and how to analyze it. In order to achieve the objectives of the study, a descriptive cross-section survey design based on questionnaire and interviews was used because the study objectives were descriptive in nature and also required taking care of multiple realities likely to be found in the field (Amin, 2005). According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), the method is easy to manage and administer. Quantitative methods were used in order to establish the relationship between DLG support and USE implementation. Emphasis was put on collecting data from participants/stakeholders in school administration. Hence, questionnaires and interviews were used to obtain information from head teachers, parents, district local administrative officials and teachers. Data was also described and summarized using frequencies and means.

3.2. Population of the study

The study examined head teachers, teachers, parents, district officials and leaders in Mukono District. These constituted a population of 388 (Mukono District Local Government report, 2010).

3.3 Area of study

The study was mainly conducted at the District Headquarters (Mukono), where data extracts on DLG support was obtained. On other hand, data regarding USE implementation was obtained from USE schools since they are the schools which are monitored, inspected and evaluated. Both of them are located in Mukono district. Schools were randomly selected while District Official and local leaders were purposively.

3.4 Study Population

Oso,& Onen, (2008) defines a study population as the total number of subjects or the total environment of interest to the researcher. According to DEO of Mukono district, district officials in charge of education are five. Of these four key respondents were examined on DLG support. USE implementation on the other hand, data was extracted from head teachers, teachers, and members of PTAs since there the people who implement the programme at school level.

3.5 Sample Technique and Sampling Selection

3.5.1 Selection of schools

A total of five schools were selected purposively. These included Kasawo Islamic, Kasawo S.S, Kasana Vocational S.S, Central College Kabimbiri, and St. Charles Lwanga S.S.

3.5.2 Selection of Teachers and Head Teachers

A total of 34 teachers were examined in Kasawo Islamic, Kasawo S.S, Kasana Vocational, Central College Kabimbiri, and St. Charles Lwanga S.S. These were randomly selected. On the other hand, five head teachers were purposively selected in order to collect detailed explanations with regard to District Local Government support.

3.5.3 Selection of District Officials and Leaders

The study examined four district officials in charge of education and two district leaders, which were purposively selected. According to Mugenda and Mugenda (2003), purposive sampling helps in obtaining detailed explanations with regard to the topic of the study.

3.5.4 Selection of PTA members

The study also examined PTA members from 5 schools. These were randomly selected.

3.5.5 Sample size and sampling techniques

Table 3.1 shows the population and sample of respondents that will be involved in the study

Figure 4: Populations and Sample

CATEGORY	POPULATION	SAMPLE	SAMPLING TECHNIQUE(S)
Head teachers	39	10	Purposive
Teachers	195	50	Random
PTA	117	15	Random/convenience
Elected leaders	30	20	Random
District Officials	5	5	Purposive
TOTAL	**388**	**100**	

Source: sample size based on Mukwenda, (2011)

3.5. 6 Sample size determination

The sample size for the study was determined using the Mukwenda (2011) formula for cross sectional and case study designs. The formula takes into account the amount of error that can be tolerated by the study; the aim is to maintain sufficient scientific rigor, reduce sampling errors and increase the possibility of drawing generalizations from the findings as stated below:

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N\,(e)^2}$$

Where; N = *Total population*

e = *error or confidence level*

n = *sample size (number)*

$$n = \frac{388}{1 + 388\,x\,(0.1)^2}$$

$n = 100$

Much as the sample size using Mukwenda (2011) was 100, the researcher issued a relatively high number of questionnaire however, retrieved 55 questionnaires than what was expected. This was because Universal Secondary Education of the non-response rate. According to Mukwanda, (2011) non response rate is inevitable

3.6 Sources of data

3.6.1 Primary Sources

This is where raw data was gathered. They included the following schools; Kasawo Islamic, Kasawo S.S, Kasana Vocational, Central College Kabimbiri, St. Charles Lwanga S.S., and the Department of education, Inspectors offices. The study relied on primary sources of data because they give a true picture of what is happening on the ground, (Amin, 2010.)

3.6.2 Secondary Sources

These are publications in which authors describe the works of others. They are publications written by authors who were not direct observers or participants in the events described, but merely reporting on the works of someone else (Oso, &Onen, 2008). These included research articles, books, casual interviews, published and un published reports, online information, among others. These helped in writing related literature concerning the study and also in discussing the results of the study and showing how the results of the study concurred with the study, with room for disagreeing with what already existed, (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2003).

3.7 Data Collection Instruments

3.7.1 Questionnaires

These were administered to teachers, members of Parents Teachers Association, and district leaders. The respondents filled them at their own convenience. According to Amin (2005), questionnaires are advantageous for researchers because information can be obtained fairly, easily and the questionnaire responses are easily coded to the problem. This is why they are substantiated by interviews. However, the major weakness of questionnaires is that they do not provide detailed information

3.7.2 Interviews

Interviews were directed to the District administrators and head teachers. According to McNamara (2009), the strength of the general interview guide approach is the ability of the researcher to ensure that the same general areas of information are collected from each interviewee; this provides more focus than the conversational approach, but still allows a

degree of freedom and adaptability in getting information from the interviewee. Interview guides were used because it is easy to fully understand someone's impressions or experiences, or learn more about their answers to questionnaires. According to Mugenda (1999), interviews are advantageous in that they provide in-depth data which is not possible to get using questionnaires. However, the major weakness with interviews is that responses are not easily coded.

3.8 Measurement of Research Variables

Structured self-administered questionnaires built on Likert scales ranging from 1, strongly disagree, to 5, strongly agree; was used to get quantifiable data from individual respondents.

3.9 Data Quality control

To ensure quality, two experienced research assistants were recruited and trained for three days before they were sent to the field to collect data. After the training, the tools were pre-tested to ensure their validity and reliability and all the necessary changes were incorporated in the final tools.

Validity: To improve the validity of the questionnaire, the researcher moderated the tools to fit the study objectives. This catered for language clarity, relevance and comprehensiveness of the content and standard length of relevant questionnaires. The content validity index (CVI) was computed to establish the content validity. Validity of instruments was ascertained by first of all discussing the questionnaire and interview schedule drafts with the supervisor. The content validity of the instruments will face worthy execution for the pilot run and thus the study. 10% of the questionnaires were tested on the various respondents.

According to Mugenda, (1999), **Reliability**; is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistent results or data after repeated trials. To ensure reliability of the research instruments, a Cronbach alpha test was computed as a measure of scale reliability to determine the consistency. 30% of the questionnaires were used to measure scale reliability and consistency.

3.10 Ethical considerations

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from the school of Post Graduate Studies, Kyambogo University, which was accompanied by a letter of introduction. Permission was also obtained from the head teachers where the study was conducted. All respondents who participated in the study voluntarily consented through signing the informed consent. All the data collected was handled with confidentiality and only codes were used instead of names to ensure anonymity. During the interviews with the respondents, the research assistants ensured adequate privacy to allow the respondents expresses their opinions without fear. Research assistants also ensured that they were not biased during the interviews by clearly and recording the responses accurately.

3.11 Data Processing and Analysis

The collected data was organized and edited at the end of each step to ensure the accuracy, completeness and consistency of the information given by the respondents. The results were coded. Coded data was then analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Scientist (SPSS) for Windows version 16.0 software. These were again entered into SPSS computer program which were then analyzed in the form of frequencies, percentages, and Means to deduce interpretation as seen in chapter 4.

3.12 Study limitations

Recall bias on the side of respondents was anticipated and to address this limitation, the research assistants were advised to probe further to get the data. Local government is usually a private matter that people rarely talk about publicity, and thus some respondents were not willing to reveal certain information. However, to address this limitation, the respondents were assured of confidentiality and also a gender sensitive research team was built ensuring that female research assistants interacted with women respondents.

3.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the methodology that was used during the study. It discussed and described the research design, sample size and sampling technique, data collection instruments and data processing and analysis procedures. The findings are presented in the next chapter

CHAPTER FOUR
PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter presents analyses and interprets the results of the study. For clarity, the chapter is structured according to the three research questions that the study sought to answer. Background information about the respondents is presented in the first section, because it might be pertinent in interpreting the data that they provided. Thus, the chapter is divided into three subsections, namely, introduction, background information about the respondents and the research questions that the study sought to answer which include:

1. To evaluate the relationship between effective monitoring and implementation of Universal Secondary Education Programme in Mukono District.
2. To assess the relationship between regular inspection and the implementation Universal Secondary Education Programme in Mukono District.
3. To examine the relationship between effective evaluation and the implementation of the Universal Secondary Education Programme in Mukono District.

4.1 Background Information about the Respondents

Relevant background information about the respondents that participated in the study relates to their gender; age; jurisdiction; level of education and duration of teaching service experience; job title – since they could influence the extent to which the respondents are knowledgeable about the variables that were involved in the study, and the extent to which the data that they provided can be generalized.

Subsequently, information pertaining to these variables was solicited and the findings are summarized in the following tables:

4.1.1. Respondents according to gender.

Table 4.1.1 Respondents by gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	41	74.5
Female	14	25.5
Total	**55**	**100.0**

Source: Field data, 2013

Table 4.1.1: Illustrates that out of the total of 55 respondents, the male respondents were the highest with 74.5% and females with 25.5%. This means that the male respondents were more cooperative than the female. And besides, the study was carried out during the holiday when females might have been busy with domestic chores.

4.1.2 Respondents according to Age

Table 4.2 Respondent by age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20-29	15	27.3	27.3	27.3
	30-39	23	41.8	41.8	69.1
	40-49	9	16.4	16.4	85.5
	50=59	8	14.5	14.5	100.0
	Total	**55**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

Source: field data, 2013

Table 4.1.2 indicates that 41.8% percent of respondents were between 30-39 years, 27% between 20-29 years, 16% between 40-49 years, and 14% respondents between 50-59 years. This means that the respondents aged between30-39 were more honest and co-operative than those in other age brackets.

4.1.3. Respondents according to Education qualification

Table 4.1.3 Respondents by highest educational qualification

	Frequency	Percent
Secondary	2	3.6
Certificate	3	5.5
Diploma	20	36.4
Bachelors	26	47.3
Masters	4	7.3
Total	**55**	**100.0**

Source: field data, 2013

Table 4.1.3 illustrates that the majority of the respondents had Bachelor's degree, with 47.3%, followed by Diploma holders with 36%, Master's Degree holders with 7%, Certificate holders with 5.5%, and the least were those with secondary education. This shows that Mukono district local government is staffed by highly educated people with the least having secondary school education.

4.1.4 Respondents by length of service

Table 4.1.4 Respondents by Length in Service

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	< 5 Years	17	30.9
	6-10 Years	13	23.6
	11-15 Years	12	21.8
	> 16 Years	13	23.6
	Total	55	100.0

Source: field data, 2013

Table 4.1.4 shows that all respondents had some level of working experience. The study indicated a majority 30.9% had worked for a period of five years, followed by 23.6% who had work experience of between 6-10 years, and those with more than 16 years of service. This means that a substantial number of respondents were knowledgeable.

4.1.5 Respondents according to Job Title

Table 4.1.5 Respondents by Job title

Post title	Frequency	Percent
District Educational Officers	2	3.6
Inspector of Schools	2	3.6
Head Teacher	5	9.1
Deputy Head Teacher	3	5.5
Director of Studies	12	21.8
Teacher	18	32.7
Bursar	1	1.8
PTA Chairperson	2	3.6
B.O.G Chairperson	1	1.8
B.O.G Member	3	5.5
PTA Member	4	7.3
Councilor	1	1.8
LC III Chairperson	1	1.8
Total	**55**	**100.0**

Source: field data, 2013

Table 4.1.5 indicates that 33% of the respondents were classroom teachers, followed by 22% who were Directors of Studies, and the least of them being Head teachers, District officials and leaders with only 6% respondents. This means that teachers outweigh other posts in the district and that they were more co-operative and concerned with the study

4.2 District Local Government support.

This was the independent variables in the study and was divided into three constructs, namely; (1) Monitoring, (2) Regular Inspection, and (3) evaluation. Using closed and open ended questionnaires, respondents were asked to rate the support of DLG towards the implementation of USE programme.

Two sets of questions were rated differently, with some using Lirket scale, where options included: 1= Strongly disagree 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; and 5=Strongly agree. Other questions were rated using yes, no and uncertain options; Yes=1; No =2 and; 3= Uncertain. The extent, to which each of these constructs was managed, was analyzed and interpreted using means and Percentages.

4.2.1 Monitoring USE programme

This was the first specific objectives in the study, which sought to evaluate the relationship between effective monitoring and USE programme implementation. Monitoring was again divided into monitoring systems and areas of monitoring.

Table 4.2.1 Responses on Monitoring of USE Programme

Monitoring	Mean
In your opinion, have the DLG monitored the implementation of USE program in USE schools?	1.95
In your opinion, Do DLG use monitoring systems to monitor USE programme?	1.85

Source: field data, 2013

The results from the table illustrate responses on Monitoring USE programme. Respondents rated DLG support in terms of monitoring with a mean value of 1.95, meaning that the programme was efficiently monitored. However, in the interview that was held with head teachers, they were asked whether DLG Officials and Leaders were executing their role of monitoring. In response to this question, one head teacher said,

"For the last 6 years I have spent here, I have never seen any person from the District Monitoring USE programme"

Another one said,

"District Officials monitor private schools more than government aided schools, because they know that they will extract money from them"

The table also illustrates that use of Monitoring indicators was ranked second with a mean value of 1.85, which is also moderately effective.

Table 4.2.1.1 Responses on Areas of Monitoring in Schools

For monitoring to be effective in schools, a number of areas had to be considered, such as initial achievement in Mathematics and English, the content covered and the textbooks, conditions of learning, leadership of the school and others. Respondents were therefore asked to rank them by using the Likert scale 1- strongly disagree, 2- disagree 3- neutral 4- agree 5-strongly agree.

	Responses on areas of monitoring	**Mean**
3.5.1	Performance in Mathematics and English is monitored	4.00
3.52	Financial and material in-puts is monitored	3.27
3.5.3	Conditions of learning is monitored by district officials	3.23
3.5.4	Teacher supply is monitored	3.20
3.5.5	Content covered by teachers is monitored	3.17
3.5.6	Method of instruction used by teachers is monitored	3.16
3.5.7	Leadership is monitored by the DLG	3.13
	Average mean	**3.31**

Source: field data, 2013

Response mode	**Interpretation**
Strongly Agree	Very high
Agree	High
Not Sure	Undecided
Disagree	Low
Strongly Disagree	Very low

The results in table 4.7 shows responses on the areas of Monitoring, with average mean = 3.31). The study suggested that frequent areas to be monitored in initial achievement in Mathematics and English was ranked first with a mean value of 4. Responses further indicated that financial and material inputs were the second with a mean value of 3.27, followed by the learning environment with a mean value of 3.23. The least area to be monitored was the leadership of schools, meaning that this area was not monitored well.

One of the DEOs supplemented this in an interview when he said,

> "Secondary teachers are hard to inspect because they don't make lesson plans on which assessment can be done".

Therefore it is not surprising this area of monitoring was scoring an average mean of 3.31, which is an undecided or neutral response.

4.2.2 Regular Inspection

This was the second specific objective intended to assess the extent to which regular inspection affect the implementation.

Table 4.2.2: Responses on effective Inspection

In your opinion, is the inspection of USE program conducted satisfactorily?		
	Frequency	Percent
Valid Yes	13	23.6
No	42	76.4
Total	**55**	**100.0**

Source: field data, 2013

Table 4.2.2 represents the findings of the study with regards to inspection. Out of the 55 respondents interviewed, 42 respondents said 'No' and 13 said 'Yes'; Meaning that District inspectors did not do their work adequately.

According to the interview held with the head teachers, one said that
"District inspectors are not doing their work well, because they lack clear guidelines which to follow"

Table 4.2.2.1: Responses on the rate of DLG inspection in USE schools

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Below Average	21	38.2	38.2	38.2
Average	28	50.9	50.9	89.1
Above Average	6	10.9	10.9	100.0
Total	55	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data, 2013

Table 4.2.2.1 shows that out of the 55 respondents, an average number of respondents rated DLG Inspection at 50%, and 38% rated DLG Inspection in USE schools as below average. This means that there is a lot to be done in order to improve inspection in schools.

Table 4.2.2.2 Responses on the perception of Teachers towards School Inspection

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Below Average	11	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Average	35	63.6	63.6	83.6
	Above Average	9	16.4	16.4	100.0
	Total	55	100.0	100.0	

Source: field data, 2013

Table 4.2.2.2 shows attitude of teachers towards school inspection. Out of 55, 64% of the respondents rated teacher's attitudes as being average, while 11 of them rated it as being below average with 20%. This means that if school inspection is to be effective, teachers need to be motivated by valuing them, in order to change their negative perception towards inspection.

Table 4.2.2.3: Responses on the challenges of School Inspection

	Challenges facing School Inspection	Mean
	Teacher's involvement in school inspection is low	3.40
	Lack of commitment by inspectors	3.38
	Lack of productive feedback and follow up by inspectors	3.04
	Lack of training courses for school inspectors	2.96
	Conduct of inspectors is un professional such as harassing teachers in front of students	2.93
	Inspectors lack appropriate incentives to carry out their work	2.78
	Inspectors lack autonomy to implement recommendations	2.62
	Inspectors lack transport	2.40
	Lack of accessibility to inspection reports	2.38
	Average mean	**2.9**

Source: field data, 2013

Response mode	Interpretation
Strongly Agree	Very high
Agree	High
Not Sure	Undecided
Disagree	Low
Strongly Disagree	Very low

Table 4.2.2.3 shows responses on the challenges facing school Inspection. Low teacher involvement in school inspection was rated first with a mean value of 3.4, followed by lack of commitment by Inspectors at 3.38 mean value. This means that challenges of school inspection was not substantial in affecting inspection.

4.2.3 Evaluation of USE programme

This was the third specific objective intended to examine the extent to which evaluation affected the implementation of USE programme in USE schools. Table 4.6.3, presents the findings of the study with regard to effective evaluation

Table 4.2.3: Responses on effective evaluation of USE Programme

Responses on evaluation exercise	Mean
How do you rate DLG participation in school evaluation	2.04
In your opinion, is the evaluation of these schools done adequately?	1.78
Average Mean	**1.91.**

Source: field data, 2013

Table 4.2.3 indicates the level of DLG participation in School evaluation, a mean value of 1.91 was given as the level of district involvement in school evaluation. This means that it was moderately effective.

Table 4.2.3.1 Responses on areas of evaluation

	Areas of Evaluation	**Mean**
	Basic functions of the school is evaluated	3.45
	Learner's achievement is evaluated	3.36
5.9	School safety is checked	3.31
	School infrastructure are checked	3.24
	Quality of teaching and learning is evaluated	3.09
5.9	Parents and community involvement is looked into	3.04
	School security is evaluated	3.01
	Average mean	**3.21**

Source: field data, 2013

Response mode	**Interpretation**
Strongly Agree	Very high
Agree	High
Not Sure	Undecided
Disagree	Low
Strongly Disagree	Very low

Table 4.2.3 indicates responses on areas of evaluation with (average mean of = 3.21). This means that these areas of evaluation were not adequately evaluated and therefore inefficient. However, the highest area to be evaluated was basic functionality of the school with a mean value of 3.45; followed by learner's achievement with 3.36; school safety with 3.31; quality of teaching with 3.09 and the least area to be evaluated was the school security.

4.3 Implementation of USE

This was the dependent variables in the study. It constituted the following constructs, (1) Student enrollment; (2) Quality of education; and (3) Effective resource utilization. Using closed and open ended questionnaires, the same respondents were asked the extent to which USE programme had been successfully implemented. Questions were rated using both the Likert scale, where 1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; and 5=Strongly agree. And other question was rated using Yes=1; No =2 and; 3= Uncertain.

Table 4.3 Responses on DLG support for USE implementation.

DLG supports USE programme implementation?			
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Yes	33	60.0
	No	17	30.9
	Uncertain	5	9.1
	Total	55	100.0

Source: field data, 2013

Table 4.3 illustrates responses on the support of DLG towards USE implementation. Out of 55 respondents, 33 respondents agreed that DLG supports USE implementation, while 17 respondents disagreed with the statement. This means that DLG have endeavored to support the programme in all circumstances.

Table 4.3.1 Responses on how Employees Ranked the Implementation of USE Programme

Ranking of the Implementation USE Programme	Mean
In your opinion has USE been implemented well in your district?	4.45
How would you rate student enrollment in USE schools?	4.36
In your opinion, are USE schools performing well compared to other schools?	3.96
In your opinion, is the quality of education provided to students under USE adequate?	3.51
In your opinion are USE funds used appropriately?	3.35
Average mean	**3.926**

Source: field data, 2013

Response mode	Interpretation
Strongly Agree	Very high
Agree	High
Not Sure	Undecided
Disagree	Low
Strongly Disagree	Very low

Table 4.3.1 indicates responses on the implementation of USE programme with (average mean = 3.926). Respondents agreed that USE programme had been implemented well, and that student enrollment was with a mean value of 4.36. This was followed by the performance of students with a mean value of 3.96 and the question of utilization of USE funds with a mean value of 3.35. This means that implementation of USE programme had been successfully implemented with the support of DLG.

Table 4.3.2 Responses on the challenges to quality education

	Challenges to quality education	**Mean**
7.3.1	Lack of enough classrooms	4.67
7.3.2	Lack of enough teaching materials	4.54
7.3.3	Teacher /learner ratios	4.41
7.3.4	Poor quality teachers	4.10
7.3.5	Low motivation of teachers	3.91
7..3.5	Little support from parents	3.78
7.3.5	Absenteeism and dropout of students	3.53
7.3.6	Poor teaching and learning approaches	3.31
	Average mean	**3.52**

Source: field data, 2013

Response mode	**Interpretation**
Strongly Agree	Very high
Agree	High
Not Sure	Undecided
Disagree	Low
Strongly Disagree	Very low

Table 4.3.2 shows responses on the challenges to quality education with average mean = 3.52. The biggest challenge was about limited classrooms with a mean value of 4.67, followed by lack of teaching facilities, with a mean value of 4.54, followed by teacher/learner's ratios and the least to be rated was poor teaching and learning approaches with a mean value of 3.31. This means that these challenges are high. .

4.4 Relationship between District Local Government support and USE implementation

The general objective of the study was to examine the relationship between District local government support and USE implementation in Mukono District.

Table 4.4: Correlating DLG support and USE implementation.

Variables Correlated	R-Value	Sig.	Interpretation
EMUP and Implementation	0.492	0.03	Significant Relationship
RI and Implementation	0.51	0.01	Significant Relationship
EEUP and Implementation	0.19	0.04	Significant Relationship
DLGS and USE Implementation	0.44	0.032	Significant Relationship

Source: field data, 2013

Table 4.4 shows results of the main objective of the study which was to examine the relationship between DLG support and USE implementation in Mukono district.

The findings reveal that there is a positive relationship between effective monitoring and USE programme implementation with an R-value of 0.49%, and a level of significance of 0.03.

There is a positive relationship between regular inspection and USE programme implementation with an R-value of 51% and the level of significance of 0.01.

Findings also reveal that there is a positive relationship between effective evaluation and USE programme implementation with an r- value of 0.19 and the level of significance of 0.04.

These findings were obtained using Pearson Linear Correlation Coefficient (PLCC). Results show a positive and significant relationship of (0.032) between DLG support and USE implementation. This implies that DLG support influences USE implementation by 44% with the significant value of 0.032.

Conclusion:

In the next chapter, these results are discussed, conclusions drawn and recommendations provided.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1.Introduction

In this closing chapter, the results of the study are discussed, conclusions inferred and recommendations given. The chapter is arranged by contents reflecting the three research questions that the study sought to answer. Thus, the chapter is divided into three subsections: discussions; conclusions; and; recommendations.

5.2.Discussions

The discussion is arranged according to the three objectives of the study, namely; To evaluate the relationship between effective monitoring and the implementation of Universal Secondary Education programme; To assess the relationship between regular inspection and implementation of Universal Secondary Education programme in Mukono District; and to examine the relationship between effective evaluation and the implementation of Universal Secondary Education in the selected Universal Secondary Education schools in Mukono District.

5.3.District Local Government support

This was the independent variable in the study and was divided into three constructs namely; (1) Monitoring, (2) Regular Inspection, and (3) evaluation.

5.3.1. Monitoring USE programme

This was the first specific objective in the study, which sought to evaluate the extent to which effective monitoring influences USE implementation. Monitoring was again divided into monitoring systems and areas of monitoring. The findings of the study indicate an overwhelming mean of 1.95 of respondents in the support of DLG monitoring USE programme, followed by the mean value of 1.85. This means that DLG attaches value on monitoring as a factor to ensuring effective USE implementation. Though the findings of the study indicate that monitoring was done well, there is a lot to be done for example district officials lacked clear monitoring indicators and reports and yet for monitoring to be effective, the above need to be in place.

5.3.2. Inspection of USE programme

According to the study findings, DLG officials and leaders have not accomplished well their role in inspecting USE schools, and this was attributed to the negative attitude of teachers towards school inspectors. The observation concurs with Wanga (1995). He noted that teachers wage 'a private cold war' with inspectors. Teachers reported that inspectors always harass them in front of their students. This partly explains why inspection has not been conducted well.

5.3.2.1.Challenges facing inspection

With regards to challenges facing inspection, District officials on the contrary disagreed with Wanga's views that inspectors are unprofessional and not dedicated, and that there was lack of feedback and follow up by them. However, the teachers cited different views on the challenges faced by inspectors which included low involvement of teachers in school inspection, lack of transport and incentives. These views were in agreement with what Marasa, (1987) and Wanga, (1995) noted.

5.3.3. Evaluation of USE programme

From the study findings, evaluation of USE programme has been rated as poorly done. This is partly because for long, Secondary Education has been evaluated directly by officials from the Ministry of Education and Sports, and Local District government officials and leaders have been in charge of primary education. Thus, the blame should be put on the Ministry for not coming up with clear guidelines.

5.4.Implementation of USE

The following are the dependent variables in the study. They constituted the following constructs, (1) Student enrollment; (2) Quality of education; (3) Effective resource utilization.

5.4.1. Student enrollment

This was the first construct under USE implementation (dependent variable). Responses showed that student enrollment increased tremendously with the introduction of USE programme at a mean value of 4.36. This concurs with the main objectives of USE, which was to increase student's enrollment in secondary schools.

5.4.2. Quality of education

As for the second construct under USE implementation, responses showed that quality of education was ranked high with a mean value of 3.96. This was possibly because of the different interpretation of the meaning of quality of education as noted by Sifuna, (2007), that the concept is relative as it changes overtime and differs geographically due to variations of aims, functions and means to realize them.

5.4.3. Effective Resource utilization

This was the second construct under USE implementation. Responses showed that effective resource utilization was ranked moderately with a mean value of 3.31. This means that resources in USE schools have been used effectively. This concurs with the findings from interviews, where many teachers and head teachers complained of late release of capitation grant from the Central government.

5.5. Relationship between District Local Government support and Universal Secondary Education implementation

The general objective of the study was to examine the relationship between District local government support and USE implementation in Mukono District. Results show a positive and significant relationship of (0.032) between DLG support and USE implementation with R-value of 0.44. This implies that District Local Government support influences USE implementation with an R-value of 0.44 with a level of significance of 0.032.

5.6.Conclusions

The findings reveal that there is a positive relationship between effective monitoring and USE programme implementation with an R-value of 49% and the level of significance of 0.03.

There is a positive relationship between regular inspection and USE programme implementation with an R-value of 51% and the level of significance of 0.01

Findings also reveal that there is a positive relationship between effective evaluation and USE programme implementation with an r- value of 0.19 and the level of significance of 0.04.

The overall findings indicate a positive and significant relationship between District Local Government support and USE implementation of 0.44 with a level of significance of 0.032.

5.7. Recommendations

Education policy makers in in Sub-Saharan Africa should consider involving DLG officials and leaders in policy making process. Since District Local Government support plays a great role of 44% in ensuring successful implementation of USE programme.

There is need for policy makers to come up with clear guidelines and efforts should be put in place to ensure that implementing agents at the grassroots and at all levels understand them clearly and thoroughly so as to be consistent with set criteria.

There is need for the district officials to set up seminars for head teachers and teachers to enlighten them on the importance of inspection in schools, and why it is important for them to be active participants. In order to improve the quality of education, government should work towards removing automatic promotion of students from one class to another before they do well to join the higher level.

The government should also consider increasing financial allocations of schools inspectors as well as teacher's remuneration in order to boost their morale.

5.8.Study limitations

The study was based on a survey and interview of selected districts. These two methods have their limitations. An ethnographic design could have given more implementation insights.

5.9. Areas for further research

An ethnographic study should be carried out as it would bring out deeper insights of the problem.

Mukono is a relatively developed area; its results may not be representative to reflect the realities in less developed areas. Therefore, the impact of USE programme on rural secondary schools far away from the Capital City could be investigated.

At the theoretical level, the impact of New Institutional Economics (NIE) theory on implementation of USE under decentralization could be investigated. NIE is the dominant theoretical thinking driving reforms

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

KYAMBOGO UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP

DISTRICT LOCAL GOVERNMENT SUPPORT FOR UNIVERSAL SECONDARY EDUCATION IMPLEMENTATION

Questionnaire for Administrative Officials/Teachers/Parents/Leaders/Head teachers

Dear respondents,

The researcher is a student of Masters of Science in Organization and Public Policy Management of Kyambogo University, carrying out a research on the role of DLG in the implementation of USE program. You have been chosen delightedly to participate in this study, and the information provided will be treated with confidentiality and entirely for purposes of this study.

INSTRUCTIONS ON HOW TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Where applicable the questions should be answered by circling the correct option.

BACK GROUND INFORMATION

Gender

Male	1
Female	2

Age

20-29	1
30-39	2
40-49	3
50-59	4
60-69	5
70+	6

Highest Education Qualification

Primary	1
Secondary	2
Certificate	3
Diploma	4
Bachelors degree	5
Masters	6
Doctorate degree	7

Length of service in Local Government

< 5 years	1
6-10 years	2
11-15 years	3
> years	4

Post Title

Chief Administrative Officer	1
District Education Officer	2
Inspector of Schools	3
Assistant Inspector of Schools	4

DISTRICT LOCAL GOVERNMENT SUPPORT

EFFECTIVE MONITORING OF USE PROGRAM

2.6 In your opinion, have the DLG monitored the implementation of USE program in USE schools well?

Yes 1	No2	Uncertain 3

2.7 If no. what problems do they experience?

.....

.....

In your opinion, Do DLG use monitoring systems to monitor USE programme?

Yes 1	No2	Uncertain 3

If no, what do you perceive to be the cause of this problem?

.....

.....

Indicate the level to which you agree/disagree with the following statements by ticking (one) option for each item

Strongly Disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4 Agree 5-Strongly Agree

	Areas of Monitoring in Schools	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3.5.1	Performance in Mathematics and English is monitored					
3.52	Financial and material in-puts is monitored					
3.5.3	Conditions of learning is monitored by district officials					
3.5.4	Teacher supply is monitored					
3.5.5	Content covered by teachers is monitored					
3.5.6	Method of instruction used by teachers is monitored					
3.5.7	Leadership is monitored by the district local government					

SECTION C

REGULAR INSPECTION

How do you rate your inspection of USE schools in your district?

Below average	Average	Above average

In your opinion, is the inspection of USE program conducted satisfactorily?

.....

.....

.....

If no. what could be the cause of this problem?

.....

.....

Perception of teachers towards school inspection

How do you rate the perception of teachers towards school inspection?

Below average	Average	Above average

If below average, what could be the cause?

.....

.....

.....

Challenges facing school inspection

Indicate the level to which you agree/disagree with the following statements by ticking (one) option for each item

Strongly Disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4 Agree 5-Strongly Agree

	Challenges facing school inspection	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	Teacher's involvement in school inspection is low					
	Lack of commitment by inspectors					
	Lack of productive feedback and follow up by inspectors					
	Lack of training courses for school inspectors					
	Conduct of inspectors is un professional such as harassing teachers in front of students					
	Inspectors lack appropriate incentives to carry out their work					
	Inspectors lack autonomy to implement recommendations					
	Inspectors lack transport					
	Lack of accessibility to inspection reports					

EFFECTIVE EVALUATION OF USE PROGRAM

How do you rate DLG participation in school evaluation

Below average	Average	Above average

In your opinion, is the evaluation of these schools done adequately?

Yes 1	No2	Uncertain 3

If no, what is lacking?

.....

.....

.....

Areas of Evaluation

Indicate the level to which you agree/disagree with the following statements by ticking (one) option for each item.

Strongly Disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4 Agree 5-Strongly Agree

		1	2	3	4	5
	Basic functions of the school is evaluated					
	Learner's achievement is evaluated					
5.9	School safety is checked					
	School infrastructure are checked					
	Quality of teaching and learning is evaluated					
5.9	Parents and community involvement is looked into					
	School security is evaluated					

IMPLEMENTATION OF USE

2.18 How do you rate DLG support to the USE program policy implementation?

Below Average	Average	Above Average

2.19 In your opinion has USE been implemented well in your district?

Yes 1	No2	Uncertain 3

If no. what problems are being experienced?

.....

.....

.....

Student enrollment

How would you rate student enrollment in USE schools?

Below average	Average	Above average

Quality of education

In your opinion, are USE schools performing well compared to other schools?

Yes 1	No2	Uncertain 3

If no, what could be the cause of this problem?

.....

.....

.....

In your opinion, is the quality of education provided to students under USE adequate?

Yes 1	No2	Uncertain 3

If no, what is lacking?

.....

.....

.....

Challenges to quality education

7.3 Indicate the level to which you agree/disagree with the following statements by ticking (one) option for each item.

Strongly Disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4 Agree 5-Strongly Agree

	Challenges to quality education	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7.3.1	Lack of enough classrooms					
7.3.2	Lack of enough teaching materials					
7.3.3	Teacher /learner ratios					
7.3.4	Poor quality teachers					
7.3.5	Low motivation of teachers					
7..3.5	Little support from parents					
7.3.5	Absenteeism and dropout of students					
7.3.6	Poor teaching and learning approaches					

SCHOOL LEADERSHIP

How do you rate the leadership of USE schools/ your school?

Below average	Average	Above average

In your opinion, is the leadership of USE schools/your school good?

Yes 1	No2	Uncertain 3

If no, what is lacking?

.....

.....

8.1 In your opinion, is there a link between school leadership and school improvement?

Yes 1	No2	Uncertain 3

Do these USE schools/your school have a vision?

Yes 1	No2	Uncertain 3

Attributes of good leadership in schools

8.4 Indicate the level to which you agree/disagree with the following statements by ticking (one) option for each item

1 Strongly Disagree 2- Disagree 3- Neutral 4 Agree 5-Strongly Agree

8	Schools vision is shared among the staff					
	There is democracy in USE schools/your school					
	Leadership is distributed at all levels in schools					
	Teachers participate in decision making of their school					

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

APPENDIX 2

KYAMBOGO UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP

DISTRICT LOCAL GOVERNMENT SUPPORT FOR UNIVERSAL SECONDARY EDUCATION IMPLEMENTATION

Dear respondents,

The researcher is a student of Masters of Science in Organization and Public Policy Management of Kyambogo University, carrying out a research on the role of DLG in the implementation of USE program. You have been chosen delightedly to participate in this study and information provided will be treated with confidentiality and entirely for purposes of this study.

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HEAD TEACHERS

Where applicable the questions should be answered by circling the correct option.

BACK GROUND INFORMATION

Gender

Male	1
Female	2

Age

20-29	1
30-39	2
40-49	3
50-59	4
60-69	5
70+	6

Highest Education Qualification

Primary	1
Secondary	2
Certificate	3
Diploma	4
Bachelors degree	5
Masters	6
Doctorate degree	7

Length of service in Teaching

< 5 years	1
6-10 years	2
11-15 years	3
> years	4

Post Title

Head Teacher	1
Deputy Head Teacher	2
Director Of Studies D.O.S	3
Teacher	4

B. Enrolment and Admissions

5. Name of the School.

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6. Number of teachers.

1-5 teachers ☐ 5-10 teachers ☐ 10-15 teachers ☐ 15 and above ☐

7. Your school enrollment:

(i) Year 2005 .....

(ii) Year 2006 .....

(iii)Year 2007 .....

(IV)Year 2008 .....

(V) Year 2009.....

(VI)Year 2010.....

Vi Year 2011.....

(viii) Year 2012.....

9. What is the average number of students per class?

– 20☐ 20 – 30☐ 30 – 40☐ 40 – 50☐ 50 – 60☐ Above 60☐

10 In your opinion, what does the word quality of education mean to you?

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11 What are the main factors limiting the quality of education in USE schools

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.....

.....

12. Did the USE policy have any impact in your school?

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.....

12b. what evidence do you have?

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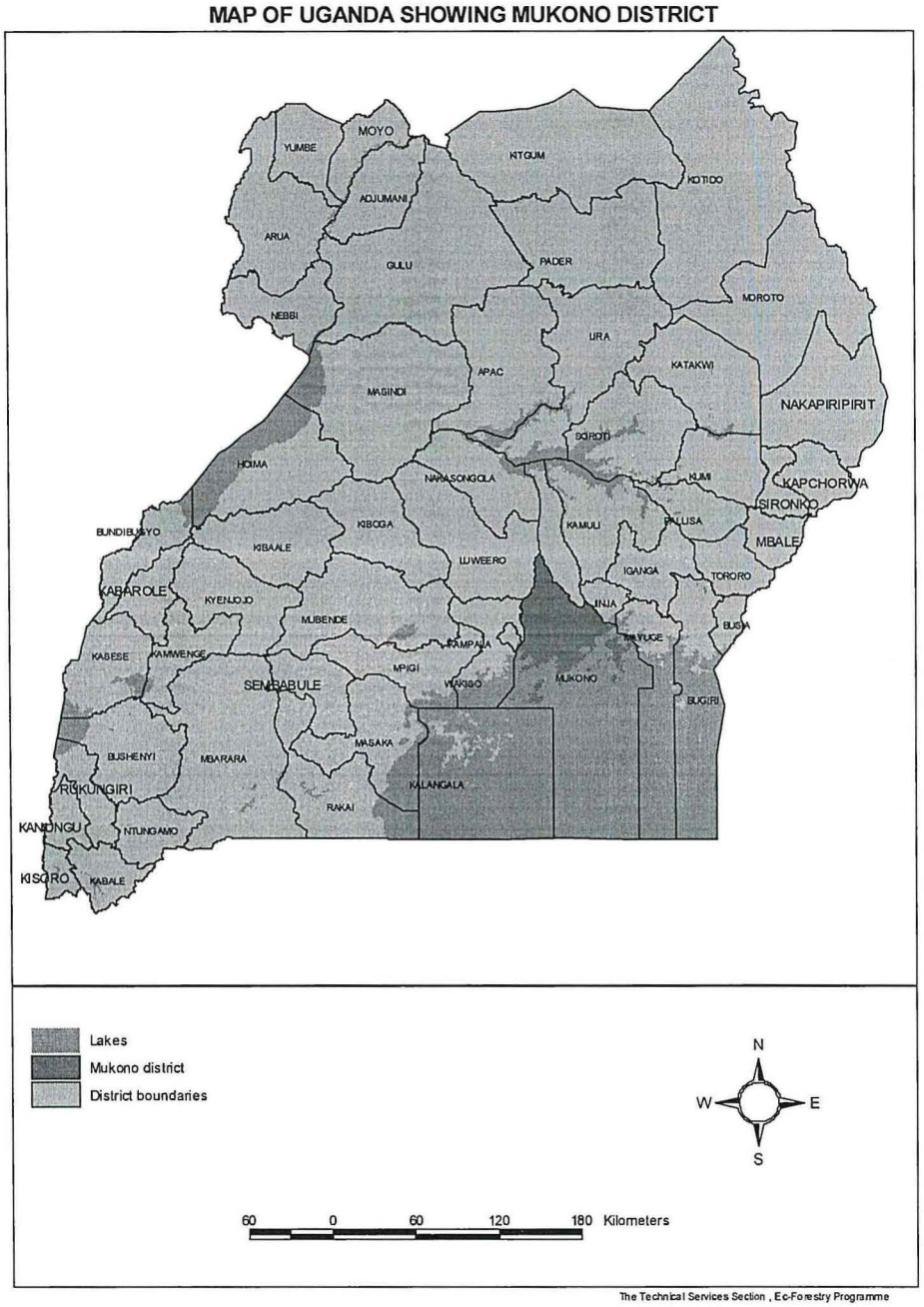
.....

.....

Thank you for your cooperation

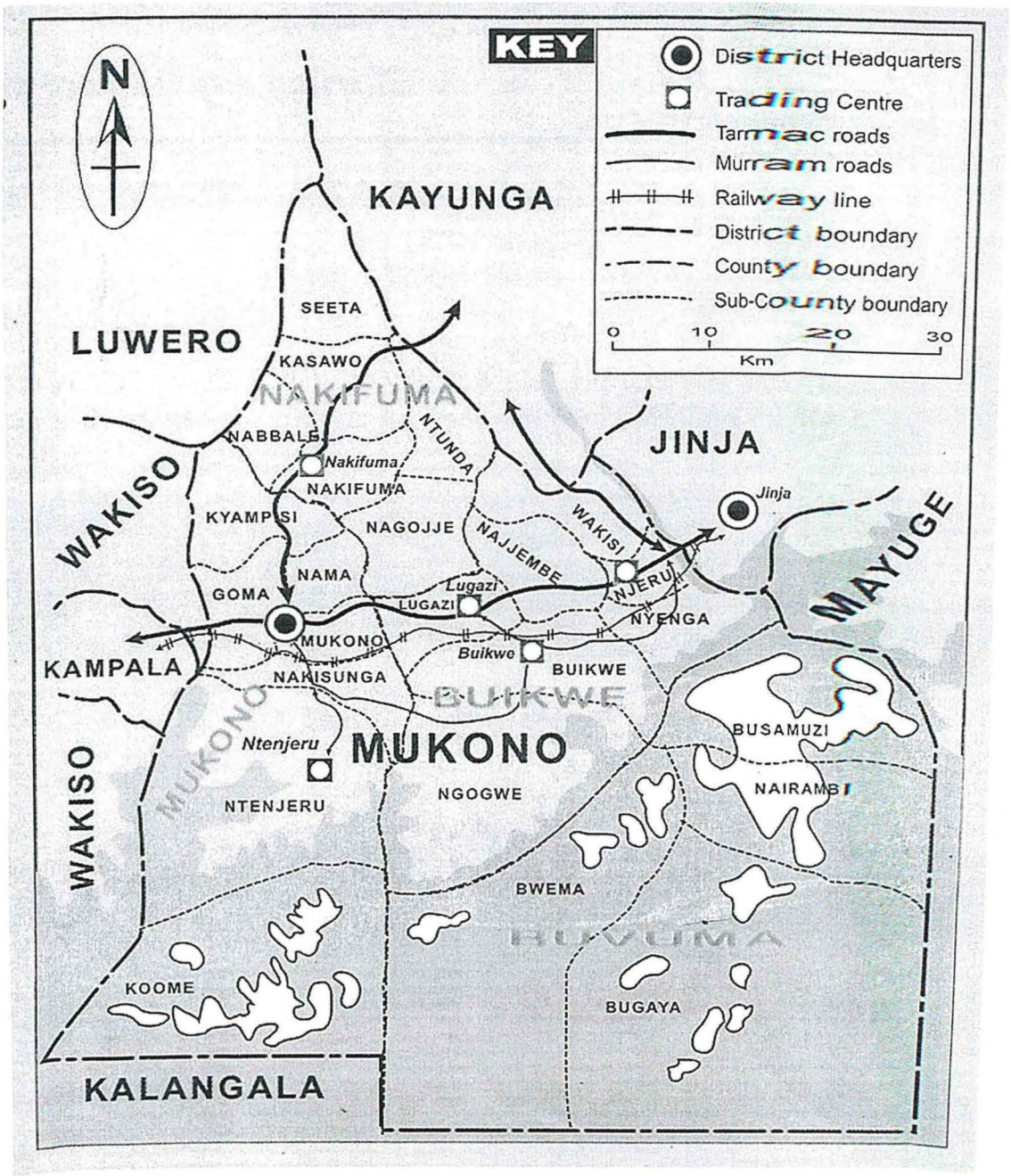
APPENDIX III

MAP OF UGANDA SHOWING MUKONO DISTRICT



APPENDIX IV

MAP OF OLD MUKONO SHOWING LOCAL GOVERNMENT UNITS



APPENDIX V

MAP OF NEW MUKONO DISTRICT SHOWING USE SCHOOLS