

✓

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

**FACTORS AFFECTING FEMALES'
PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION: THE CASE
OF TOCHA WOREDA IN SNNPR**

BY: KASSA SHURKE BURAKA

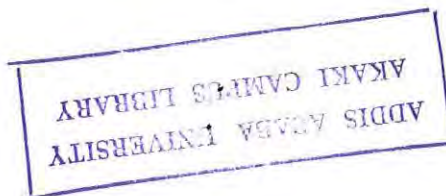
**Addis Ababa
February 2006**

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

**FACTORS AFFECTING FEMALES'
PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION: THE CASE
OF TOCHA WOREDA IN SNNPR**

BY: KASSA SHURKE BURAKA

A Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies,
Addis Ababa University, in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Regional
and Local Development Studies (RLDS)



**Addis Ababa
February 2006**

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

**FACTORS AFFECTING FEMALES'
PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION: THE CASE
OF TOCHA WOREDA IN SNNPR**

BY: KASSA SHURKE BURAKA

REGIONAL AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

APPROVED BY BOARD OF EXAMINERS



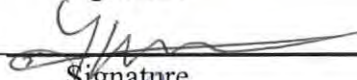
Graduate Committee



Signature

Prof. Habtamu Wondimu


Advisor



Signature

Dr. Wanna Leka

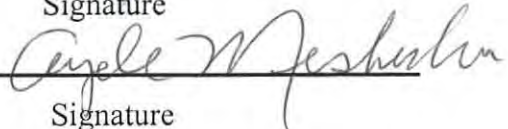
Internal Examiner



Signature

Dr. Ayele Meshesha


External Examiner



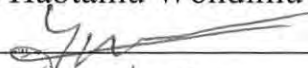
Signature

Declaration

The thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a Degree in any other University and that all the sources of materials used for the thesis have been acknowledged.

Name: Kassa Shurke Buraka
Signature: 
Date: 28/02/2006



Confirmed by the Advisor:
Name: Prof. Habtamu Wondimu
Signature: 
Date: 28/02/06

Acknowledgements

In the course of writing this thesis, I have been provided the help and assistance by many individuals and institutions. Among these, I first extend my gratitude to my thesis advisor, Prof. Habtamu Wondimu, who generously devoted his time and knowledge to keep me on the right track through his genuine guidance, comments and suggestions. I also appreciate his patience and diligence in correcting my draft.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my former office, the House of Peoples' Representatives of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia that made it possible for me to join the University and attend the programs.

My heart felt gratitude and appreciation goes to my wife Wro. Bekelech Kebede. It was through her strong initiation, encouragement and support that my postgraduate study has become a reality. I also thank my family for their moral support and contribution to my life to date and for instilling the values of education, hard work, and good manners in to my mind right from my childhood. Thanks also go to Ato Menigistu Dinato, Ato Demissie Damite, and Ato Getachwu Mamo for their proof reading and constructive comments.

In addition, my deepest gratitude goes to all respondents for their willingness to contribute to the study by being the source of necessary data and information. I also thank the enumerators for their participation in the collection of much of the field data and information.

Finally, I thank all those who in one way or another have contributed to the success of the study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENTS	PAGE
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
TABLE OF CONTENTSvi
LIST OF TABLES.....	vii
LIST OF APPENDICES.....	ix
ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONSx
ABSTRACT xi
1. CHAPTER ONE.....	1
1.1 Background.....	1
1.1.1 General background.....	1
1.1.2 Females' education in Ethiopia.....	4
1.2 Statement of the problem.....	5
1.2.1 Objectives of the study.....	7
1.3 Significance of the study.....	7
1.4 Delimitation of the study.....	8
1.5 Limitation of the study.....	8
1.6 Method of the study.....	9
1.6.1 Introduction.....	9
1.6.2 Subjects.....	10
1.6.3 Data gathering instrument.....	10
1.6.4 Data Analyses.....	10
1.7 Definition of terms.....	10
1.8 Organization of the paper.....	11
2. CHAPTER TWO.....	12
2. Review of the Related Literature.....	12-27

3. CHAPTER THREE -----	28
3. Description of the study area-----	28
3.1 Locations and topography-----	28
3.2 Populations and settlement structure-----	29
3.3 Administrative system-----	30
3.4 Economic activity-----	30
3.5 Specific study areas-----	31
4. CHAPTER FOUR -----	33
4. Analysis and interpretation of the data-----	33-70
4.1 Characteristics of the respondents-----	33
5. CHAPTER FIVE -----	71
5. Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations-----	71
5.1 Summary and conclusion -----	71
5.2 Recommendations-----	75
References -----	78-81

List of Tables

Tables	Page
Table 1: Population of SNNPR by Zones & Special Woredas -----	29
Table 2: Back Ground Information of School Principals and Teacher Respondents-----	34
Table 3: Background Information on Female Students' Respondents-----	35
Table 4: Primary (1-8) Gross Enrollment Ratio by Regions (2003/04). -----	38
Table 5: Primary (1-8) Gross Enrollment Ratio of SNNPR by Zone & Special Woreda (2003/04). -----	40
Table 6: Primary (1-8) Gross Enrollment Ratio of Dawuro Zone (2003/04) -----	41
Table 7: Secondary (9-10) Gross Enrollment Ratio by Regions (2003/04). -----	42
Table 8: Secondary (9-10) Gross Enrollment Ratio of SNNPR by Zone & Special Woreda (2003/04) -----	43
Table 9: Secondary (9-10) Gross Enrollment Ratio of Dawuro Zone (2003/04) -----	44
Table 10: Trend of Enrollment, Drop out, Promotion and Repetition of Female Students in Tocha Woreda from 1992-1996 E.C.-----	45
Table 11: Children's Access to Enter School-----	46
Table 12: The Influence of School Cost on Parents' Willingness to Educate Their Daughters---	48
Table 13: The Effect of Household Activities on Females' Education-----	50
Table 14: The Effect of Distance of School on Females' Participation in Education-----	51
Table 15: The Effect of Long Distance between Home and School on the Participation of Girls in Education-----	52
Table 16: Effect of Presence of More Female Teachers in School on Female Students' Education-----	53
Table 17: Enrollment & Teachers in Teacher Training Institutions (1996 E.C.)-----	54
Table 18: Enrollment & Teachers in the Colleges of Teacher Education (1996 E.C.)*-----	55
Table 19: Female Teacher Ratio of SNNPR (2003/04) -----	56
Table 20: Dawuro Zone Female Teachers' Ratio-----	57
Table 21: Students' Dropout Rate-----	58
Table 22: Level of Education That Most Females Complete-----	58

Table 23: Level of Teachers' Provision of Special Support to Female Students -----	59
Table 24: The Effect of Downgrading of Grade 1-6 Grades to 1-4 Grades on Females' Participation in Education-----	60
Table 25: Perceptions Regarding Textbooks and Teaching Materials' Gender Bias-----	61
Table 26: Opinions regarding the efforts to Increase Females' Participation in Education-----	62
Table 27: Opinions on the Effect of Parents' Religion on Daughters' Schooling-----	63
Table 28: Type of Parents' Religion, Which Affect Daughters' Education -----	64
Table 29: Opinions on The Effect of Early Marriage on the Participation of Females in Education -----	65
Table 30: The Age at Which Most Females Get Married -----	65
Table 31: Parents' Attitude Towards Females' Education -----	66

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDICES	Page
1. Appendix A1: Questionnaire for primary second cycle and first cycle secondary school female students of Tocha Woreda -----	82-86
2. Appendix A2: Questionnaire for teachers and school principals -----	87-92
3. Appendix B1: Amharic questionnaire for female students-----	93-97
4. Appendix B2: Amharic questionnaire for school principals and teachers-----	98-102
5. Appendix C1: Focus Group Discussions question with females' students' parents-----	103
6. Appendix C2: Focus Group Discussions question with Tocha Woreda Educational official's -----	104
7. Appendix D1: SNNPR Map-----	105
8. Appendix D2: Dawuro Zone Map -----	106

ABSTRACT

Education is a tool to enable citizens to make all rounded participation in development process. The participation of females in socio-economic programs especially depends on their educational background. Educating girls and women is critical to achieve the benefits as well as the improvement in the areas of health, fertility and nutrition. Thus, females must be treated equally with males to attain educational access, which is necessary to increase their participation in different development programs. International treaties, conventions, laws & policies set a legal commitment on the right of education and gender equality. However, gross and net enrollment differences in schooling of females prevail. Females remain under represented at all levels of education. The females' participation gap in education is wide in developing countries, one of which is Ethiopia.

Ethiopia is one of the developing countries with low females' participation in education. Statistics reveals that the number of female students in primary, secondary and higher education is not equal to that of male students. This low participation is one of the causes for females' to be underprivileged and underrepresented in development programs. If low females participation in education continues, the Country would probably have a problem in achieving MDGs Goal 3 Target 4. These raise the issue that the role of education and female participation should be analyzed and studied.

The aim of this research was to identify factors affecting females' participation in education in Dawuro Zone, Tocha woreda. To attain this objective, information on school enrollment and school age population was gathered from documents of the Ministry of Education and SNNPREB. Further more, formal questionnaires were distributed to 260 female students, school principals and teachers. On the other hand, focused-group discussion was held with 56 female students' parents and with six woreda educational officials to gather information on factors that have contributed to low female participation in education. Percentages were predominantly used to indicate the magnitude of respondents' opinion and assumptions against each statement.

The results of the study showed that factors that affected females participation in education are: qualification of teachers, parents demand of female child labor, school cost such as house rent, food supply cost, long distance to school, parents' poverty, fear of male harassment, lack of role models, dropout, abduction or "telefa", parents' religion type, early marriage, parents' illiteracy and worry of unwanted pregnancy. These are the major reasons for low female participation in education in the study area.

According to the study, the following have been recommended to improve females' participation in Tocha Woreda. Recruiting qualified teachers, conducting workshops and seminars with parents and religious leaders to make society and parents aware on the benefits of female education. Building 2nd cycle primary and secondary schools at reasonable distances, building boarding houses for distant female students, improving home technologies to minimize the incidence of female child labor are also recommended. Furthermore recruiting more female teachers to be role models, school principals and concerned government bodies offering especial support to female students, take serious measures on abduction and early marriage would help to increase females' participation in education.

CHAPTER ONE

1.1. Background of the Study

1.1.1 General Background

The socio-economic development of many countries has been strongly linked with education. No country has scored sound economic growth without sound development in its education (PHRD, 1996:1). Education is the foundation for optimal utilization of resources through development of human capital.

Investing in people's education can boost living standards of household by expanding opportunities, raising productivity, attracting capital, investment and increasing earning power (PHRD 1996:1). Education is the ultimate liberator, empowering people to make personal and social choices. It is also ultimate equalizer, particularly in promoting greater equity for women and for the poor and disadvantaged groups (Kane 2004: VII). Basic education especially helps to reduce poverty through its effects on population growth rate, health, and nutrition and by equipping people to participate in the economy and society.

Education is a tool to enable both women and men to make all rounded participation in development process by acquiring knowledge, skill and attitudinal change. According to Tiker and Bararnsen (1976: V), "in all countries women are increasingly impatient to widen the options for realizing their potential and to participate on equal basis with men in productive and creative achievements, as well as in the rewards' systems of their societies". But they do not participate fully in what gets done in society due to lack of education. In order to play the critical role appropriately, women need education.

The participation of females in socio-economic programs depends on their educational back ground. Educating girls and women is critical to achieve the

aforementioned benefits as well as for the improvement in the areas of health, fertility and nutrition (Kane 2004: VII; Conway and Bourque 1993: 1). Similarly, studies on benefits associated with girls' education such as Summers (1992), Abueghaid and Kalasen (2000) as cited in Kane (2004:2) argue that:

- ... Educating girls yields a higher rate of return than any other investment in the developing world,
- ... Educate a girl you educate a nation. Thus females must be treated equally with men to attain educational qualification, which is necessary to increase their participation in different development programs.

In addition, education is a human right enshrined in international treaties and conventions that are legally binding on signatory states. The two most recent Conventions, the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW, 1979) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) are cited in UNESCO (2003:17) contain the most comprehensive set of legally enforceable commitments on the rights of education and gender equality. Since then schools have been urged to take and educate all children in the same way, regardless of sex differences.

However gross differences in schooling prevail when data are disaggregated by gender. In many places around the world, girls receive much less schooling than boys (Schaffner 2004:12). For example, studies on the enrollments of female students in developing countries and particularly in Africa (King, 1991; Hyde, 1993; Kane 2004) indicate that a small number of girls attend schools. The People's Movement for Human Right Education (PDHRE <http://PDHRE>, 2005), also stated that: - "Despite widespread agreement that all people have the fundamental human right to education, 100 million children, at least 60% of them girls, do not have access to primary education. Nine hundred sixty million adults in the world are illiterate, and more than two-thirds of them are women. Women and girls continue to face discrimination at all levels of education".

Females generally recognize the right to education, but they are far from exercising their right in education. Explaining this fact Kelly and Elliott (1992:2) point out: "Women remain under represented at all levels of educational programs, in formal or non-formal, few receive technical and vocational training and women account for a very small proportion of enrollment in education".

It is clear from previous reviews that females have less opportunity than males to access school in all developing countries. Therefore the problem of female participation in education is a global issue that concerns both developed and developing countries.

Among the developing countries, there is a considerable variation in the rate of female participation in education. In African countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa the gap is very wide. According to Kane (2004:39) current trends in sub-Saharan Africa reflect a predictable pattern previously emerging in other regions (under less difficult circumstances), a widening of gender gaps, as enrollments increase from a very low base could be a temporary phenomenon. Still the exigency of helping girls remains clear. Of the close to 50% of African children not enrolled in school, about two-thirds are girls.

When every low enrollment of girls' exists in the primary levels, they are always prominent in the next education or higher level of education, as the female enrollment level is lower. From this point of view the problems of females' participation in education will continue to exist until the remedy for problems of the primary level is found.

1.1.2. Females' Education in Ethiopia

Women constitute half of the country's population and are involved in 50-80% of the economic development and social welfare activities. However they do not benefit from the nation's wealth (MEDaC/WAO, 2001:1). This could possibly be understood if one takes into account the economic and socio-cultural setting in the country vis-à-vis women. Given women's lack of access to economic resources and the various obstacles preventing them from benefiting from the fruits of their labor, it can be estimated that the majority of the people, 27 million living in chronic poverty in Ethiopia are women. In particular the situation of women living in rural area is humiliating (MEDaC/WAO, 2001:2). The fact is that females are underprivileged and underrepresented in development. This raises the issue that the role of education and female participation should be analyzed and studied.

According to Konjit (1995:7), traditional education was controlled by the church in the Christian areas and by the mosque in the Muslim areas. Moreover, the traditional education system was the monopoly of the clergy and the exclusion of women was part of ecclesiastical life of the society.

Further more, although modern education was introduced in Ethiopia at the turn of the twentieth century, its development was cautious and gradual, particularly with regard to the education of women. Even though Empress Menen established a school for girls in 1931, the number of students was not more than a token (Seyoum, 1996:3). The country's education policy at no time has made a distinction based on gender; however evidences still confirm the superiority of males in an indirect way. Formal and non-formal curriculum and traditional teaching portray this image (Konjit, 1995:7)

In addition, the pattern of enrollment and participation of Ethiopian women in education is similar to that of many African countries. Statistics reveals that the number of female students enrolled in elementary, secondary

and higher education is not equal to that of male students. For example, female students' enrollment in primary (1-8) and secondary (9-10) accounted for 59.1% and 15.9% in 2003/04 academic years, respectively (MOE, 2005). In other words Gender Parity Index (GPI), which is the ratio of female to male enrollment rates, at the same year, shows that GPI is 0.8 at the national level. This indicates that girls' participation is lower than that of boys. According to World Development Indicators (UNDP, 2001), adult illiteracy rate for males in Ethiopia for the years 1990 and 1999 are 64% and 57%, while that of female are 80% and 68%, respectively. This reveals that though more than half of both males and females are illiterate, the illiteracy rate for female is much higher than that for males for several years.

Moreover, female enrollment has been characterized by urban-rural and regional disparity. For example in 2003/04 academic year female students' enrollment ratio of SNNPR in primary (1-8), first cycle secondary (9-10) accounted for 59.3% and 10.9%, respectively (SNNPREB, 2005). This shows that the higher the level of education, the lower the female enrollment. The gross enrollment ratio at all levels in Tocha Woreda, the research area, was 54% for girls and 91% for boys for the same year (SNNPREB, 2005)

1.2 Statement of the problem

Education contributes to socio – economic development of countries by endowing individuals with the means to improve their health, skills, knowledge and capability for productive work. Many countries have planned to increase enrollments by expanding schooling opportunities for all children with special efforts to encourage parents to enroll their daughters (PHRD, 1996:21). Similar researches have noted the crucial need of improving the educational enrollment of females for development. There is no doubt that female involvement in development will multiply social benefits. Educated mothers have fewer children, at later age and more widely spaced, greater domestic bargaining power and knowledge and their opportunity costs are higher (Kane, 2004:2). Failure to raise

female education to be at par with males entails a high development cost. They are the basis for the continuous existence of the human race and central to the development process. Thus the full and complete development of any country demands for the maximum participation of females who are about half of the countries' population (MOE, 2002:38; MEDaC/ WAO, 2001:1). Therefore their full participation in development cannot be imagined unless they have the knowledge or required level of education.

It is believed that females are earlier educators of children. As a result, their education needs particular attention. Participation of females in education can result in increased total school enrollment. In this regard Kasaju and Mandhar (1985:330) stated that "... increment in girls' enrollment is a critical factor in attaining the high enrollment ratios described in development plans. In this context increasing female participation in education can be seen as a means of increasing school enrollment. Thus female participation in education should get considerable attention if a given target of enrollment is to be attained".

The constitution of the FDRE has guaranteed women equal rights with men. Several articles of the constitution relate to gender issues and show the emphasis placed on women. Article 35 of the Constitution defines the equality of women and men, recognizes the right of affirmative measures for women and provides special attention to women so as to enable them to compete and participate on the basis of equality with men in political, social and economic life in public and private institutions (MEDaC/ WAO, 2001:8). But in practice, women are far away from exercising their rights, especially in education. The Education and Training Policy of the Transitional Government of Ethiopia (MOE, 1994:6) has launched an educational program with major emphasis on enhancing the participation of females in education through different means.

Despite the policy, however, the pattern of pupil enrollment and participation of females is still very low in the country, especially in the countryside or rural parts of Ethiopia.

The main purpose of this study is to investigate factors affecting females' participation in education in the study area. Attempts will be made to assess the causes for gender disparity in education. The study attempts to find out answers to the following questions.

1. What are the factors that affect females' participation in education in Tocha Woreda?
2. What are some strategies to use to increase females' participation in education?

1.2.1 Objectives of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to identify the factors that affect females' participation in education and to come up with some recommendations to solve the identified problems in the research area. The specific objectives of the study include:

1. Identifying the factors which affect females' participation in education in Tocha Woreda;
2. Indicating some strategies that could help to increase females' participation in education.
3. Suggesting directions for future research.

1.3 Significance of the study

Being the major instrument for economic and social development, education has long been considered as the key to a better life by improving the productivity and capacity of a society. Due to several factors affecting it, the participation of women in education and hence in the socio-economic development is much lower than that of men. The results of the study will provide information on obstacles that hampered females' participation in

education. The research findings will help policy makers and practitioners in adjusting policy directions to tackle major problems on females' education.

In addition, the result of the study will help to widen the awareness of society on factors affecting females' education. And it will also help to differentiate problems or hindrances for females' participation in education in urban and rural areas. Besides, the findings of the study will serve as reference by providing relevant information for further study. In general the study will assist policy makers to develop promising strategies and take pertinent measures that will minimize hindrances of female education, and enhance the enrollment of females in education.

1.4 Delimitation of the study

In order to have more comprehensive information, it would have been good if the study includes primary and secondary schools in Dawuro zone. However, due to time, financial and related constraints this study is confined to Tocha Woreda, four complete primary schools' female students and one first cycle secondary (9-10) female students, teachers and female students parents. More over, the study is delimited in 2nd cycle primary and 1st cycle secondary schools; because most of the students those come from distance place to get these schools they have face a lot of problems. The study deals with these schools, namely:

1. Tocha first cycle secondary school, 9-10
2. Tocha complete primary school, 1-8
3. Kechi complete primary school, 1-8
4. Wara complete primary school, 1-8
5. Aba complete primary school, 1-8

1.5 Limitation of the study

Almost all statistics and school enrollment and school age population were drawn directly from the documents of the Ministry of Education, and

Regional Education Bureau, which were not crone checked for accuracy. For instance differences between the data of Regional Education Bureau documents and that of Dawuro zone education department were ignored. The findings and conclusions will be limited to the area of study.

1.6 Method of study

1.6.1 Introduction

Social survey method was employed for the research with the assumption that could help to get an understanding of the current state of the problem under investigation by examining and describing to find out the factors affecting females' participation in education. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected to examine the situation of females' participation in education in Tocha.

1.6.2 Subjects

This study was conducted in South Nations, Nationalities and People's Regional State, Dawuro Zone, Tocha Woreda. Four complete primary (Grade1-8) and one secondary school were selected by purposive sampling technique

The subjects of the study were female students in four complete primary schools 5-8 grade level, and one secondary school, 9-10 grade level. It also included teachers, school principals, female students' parents and Woreda Educational office officials. Simple random sampling technique was employed to select female students, male teachers and female students' parents. Purposive sampling methods were used to select female teachers and Woreda educational officials.

The total number of female students in the woreda in 1997 E.C. academic year was 823 in grade 5-8 and 238 in grade 9-10. Among these, 212 (22%) female students are selected by a simple random selection method and 12(100%) are female teachers, from 91 male teachers and school principals,

36(40%) and 56 female students' parents and 6 Woreda educational officials. Thus a total of 294 participants were included in the study.

The main sources of data for the study were female students, teachers and school principals, Woreda educational officials and female students' parents. Books, journals and unpublished documents related to the problem were reviewed to have background information about the problem.

1.6.3 Data Gathering Instrument

For this study two types of self-administered questionnaires were used to collect relevant information from female students and teachers. Focus group discussion was employed to get the views and opinions of parents and Woreda educational officials. Moreover, annual abstract of educational statistics, regional, Zonal and Woreda documents were reviewed. Both closed and open-ended questions were prepared and distributed to collect the necessary information from the participants. The questionnaire was in Amharic. Focus group discussion question was translated in to "Dawurothuwa" because students' parents do not speak Amharic. Eight focus group discussions with 6-8 students' parent were conducted (two FGD for each primary school). Also a focus group discussion was held at the Woreda center with Woreda educational officials.

1.6.4 Data Analyses

Percentage is (dominantly) used to indicate the magnitude of respondents' opinion and assumption against each statement.

1.7. Definition of terms

1. Dropout: - an expression of the comparison between number of people who enter schooling at one level and number of people who successfully complete a later level (Good, 1973). Some one who leaves a school without completing that level.

2. Education: -the total process in developing human ability and behavior. According to UNESCO, Education is an organized and sustained instruction designed to communicate a combination of knowledge, skill and understanding valuable for all the activities of life (Page: 1977:112-113)
3. Enrollment: - The total number registered in a school or school system (Dejnozka, 1984:60).
4. Gender: -is a basic category by which the social world is organized. It is the social role of being a female or male. Whereas sex has to do with a person's biological characteristics and erotic behavior, gender refers to the social creation of girls, boys, women, and men (Zanden, 1997).
5. School age: - is the minimum age determined by the government for the enrollment of a given educational level (UNESCO, 1983:16).

1.8 Organization of the paper

This study is organized in five chapters. The first chapter deals with the background of the study, statement of the problem, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitation of the study, methodology, and definition of key terms. The second chapter, which follows, describes literature review. The third chapter deals with description of study area. The fourth chapter is concerned with the presentation and analysis of data. The final chapter presents summary of the findings, the conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of the Related Literature

There are many factors that affect enrollment rate of students. These factors are more likely reflected on females' education. Among the factors that are affecting females' participation in education are socio-economic condition of parents, parents demand for their daughter's labor, distance from home to school/or availability of schools, presence of female teachers, school environment related factors, political and institutional factors, religious outlook of parents, engagement of females in early marriage, levels of education of the parents and parents attitudes towards females' education.

Socio-economic condition of the family is one of the factors that can affect parent's decision to send a child to school. According to Kane (2004:65), there are two types of costs of schooling, direct cost of schooling including, tuition and fees, the cost of books, uniforms and supplies, required by the school, the cost of transportation, lodging and board required for attending the school. The other cost is opportunity costs or indirect cost. It may be higher wages for child labor in families with more productive farms or business and in families more dependent on children, and other expenses are the major hindrance for the parents not to educate or remove children particularly girls from school. King and Hill (1993:24) pointed out that unless the expected returns to sending daughters to school do not exceed the cost of doing so, female education as an investment becomes unattractive to parents. According to them daughters will be educated only to the extent that parents are willing to accept low economic returns. But problems are wide in poor families. According to the World Bank

(2004:16), the role of poverty was great in females' education. Even if the perceived benefits and costs of sending their children to an additional year of school were the same for poor and non-poor parents alike, the poor might choose less schooling for their children because they must weigh current costs more heavily relative to future benefits.

Further more the cost of; education is more expensive for the poor than for the rich. For instance, research in Tanzania, Vietnam and Indonesia showed that poor families spend less than wealthy families on their children's education, but it costs them more in proportion to their income (Kane, 2004:66). In Egypt, too, cost of schooling was the most important reason often cited by parents for not sending their children to school (World Bank, 1990:34). Similarly in Cameroon many secondary schools are private and charge fees. This condition reportedly affects mainly more girls than boys (Cammish and Broch 1994 as cited on Odaga and Heneveld, 1995:15). Schooling cost is considerable in Mozambique and is beyond the capacity of many rural and poor- urban families. A recent study reports that most of the rural families interviewed could not imagine sending children to schools in towns. The problems include where the child would stay, how they could raise the money to supply food and how they could find the money to maintain the child and provide necessary learning materials? (Odaga and Heneveld 1995:15). Similar to these, according to UNESCO (2003:132), in Ethiopia, under-enrollment is very much a rural phenomenon and a gender gap is largely absent in urban areas, where primary GERs are over 100 percent, for both girls and boys. In rural areas only 25 percent of school age girls are enrolled in primary school compared with 31 percent boys. It costs (at least indirectly) the parents more to send girls to school than boys, because of the contributions made by girls in household activities.

Even where primary education is free, household educational expenditure can be heavy. Apart from tuition, other cost items such as fees for

registration, admission, examination, boarding, school building fund, book rental, the cost of uniforms, and the provision of furniture, extra tutorials and transportation can affect females' participation in education. When parents decide to hold back their children from going to schools because of financial constraints it is the girls that are to be withdrawn from schools.

Girls in Africa and, in fact, in almost every region of the world work more than boys, regardless of whether they are in school and of whether adult women are present and working in the household (Kane 2004:67). The importance of girls' labor for agricultural, domestic and marketing tasks has been well documented. When it comes to childcare, girls are more likely to be involved than boys. And children in rural areas spend more time doing physical works than that of in urban areas. Bowman and Anderson (1982:22) and UNESCO (2003:122), proved that the time spent by girls working in the garden, fetching water and fire wood, carrying or helping in marketing activities, or doing home processing products for sale can be especially important in poorer families where the perception of benefit from the schooling of girls are dimmer. From this point, it is possible to conclude that girls are the main sources of income for their family especially for poorest ones, and the need for their physical labor (income generating activities) is often given priority over their education.

With the rapid rate of growth in urbanization, the demand for domestic labor in urban areas has also increased. Resource poor rural households have responded by sending their daughters in to the domestic labor market for a regular cash income. This also draws young girls from schools (Odaga and Heneveld 1995: 17). Due to the importance of institutions such as bride price, polygamy, and adultery, the economic value of girls, particularly in rural areas remains high. In conformity to this view World Bank (1998:15) pointed out that the bride price paid by the bridegroom's family to the bride's parents in South Omo in SNNPR may go up to birr 2000, four goats, bullets, a gun, two pots of

honey, clothes and jewelry. So the full opportunity cost of educating girls may thus be higher than for boys. The above mentioned evidences may help to explain why poor parents often invest less in their daughters' schooling than in their son's.

Distance is another significant factor for both rural and urban girls but more so for rural girls. Most of the girls that live far away from school and have to walk long distance which not only discouraged them but also worried their parents as to their daughters' security on travel to and from schools. According to Kane (2004:73), in many countries, distance to school has a bigger impact on girls than on boys for a variety of reason, in some places young girls are not considered to be ready for travel, older girls may not be subject to harassment, and even if the trip is safe, the direct cost may be high and the time lost on traveling would be more costly to girls work than to that of boys. Similarly David (1993:129) states that the majority of parents wanted to use the nearest school for girls if possible, a criterion they also called proximity. However they also felt that there was a range of factors, including happiness and discipline, which interacted to make a nexus. So the closer the school is to their home, parents are less likely to worry about girls.

Furthermore the World Bank (1991:29) in the study in Egypt found that the location of a school within 1 km of a community resulted in an enrollment rate of 94 percent for boys and 74 percent for girls. It also showed that as the distance increases to 2 km, boys' enrollment fell only slightly to 90 percent, while girls' enrollment plummeted to 64 percent. Similar study in Ghana revealed that a long distance to primary school significantly deters girls' enrollment and the closer the secondary school the more likely children are to be sent to primary school. Evidences showed that location of secondary schools (especially for girls) was more inconsistent than location of primary schools, and the catchments areas for girls of secondary schools (especially, if boarding) were typical as large as for boys but fewer for girls than boys attended from the

remote areas (Bowman and Anderson 1982:23). Most of Ethiopian primary second cycle and secondary schools in countryside are long distance from the students' homes. The dispersed population and the topography of the land coupled with long distance have a great impact on the degree of participation of females in education.

The importance of female role models is widely accepted as means of promoting greater gender equality (UNESCO 2003:146). The promotion of role model such as female teachers has been a strategy to encourage females' education particularly young girls in rural areas. According to Bowman and Anderson (1982:20), in all aspects of girls' school the availability of female teacher is salient as both an instrument and a product. Girls having women teachers can speed up formation of a cadre of female teachers. The presence of female teachers in the teaching staff can attract girls to learn by providing a guarantee to parents to enroll their daughters. Barbara Harz and others (1991:30) stated that Kerale, state has highest female literacy and enrollment rates of all states due to large number of female teachers. In India over 60 percent of teacher are women, compared with fewer than 20 percent in Bihar and Uttar Pradesh, which have the lowest female enrollment rates. Similarly the findings of the study on association between enrollment and sex of teacher in Iran revealed that in districts where teachers were predominantly male, female enrollment was low (Bowman and Anderson, 1982:26). The study made in Nepal also indicated that schools that have higher number of female teachers have higher girls' school enrollment (Kasaju and Manandhar, 1985:331). The shortage of female teachers as well as female civil servants, in addition to the lack of infrastructure can frustrate both parents and female students to enroll. This can affect the participation of female students in education.

Dropout rates vary considerably from country to country. Evidences show that on average, 9.6 percent of girls, in low- income counties leave primary schools before finishing, compared with 8.2 percent of boys. In sub-Saharan

Africa as a whole and in the Middle East and North Africa, the dropout rate is higher for girls than for boys (King and Hill 1993:6). In support of this Bellow and King (1990) cited in World Bank (1991:2) report female dropout problem. Only 26.9 percent of girls in Malawi who enter first grade complete primary school, but it is 45.9 percent for boys. In Kenya fewer than half of the girls complete primary school. The dropout problem for girls is age specific. In primary schools, dropout rates are highest in the later years and dropout rates in secondary schools are particularly large. Dropping out is one of the problems that the Ethiopian education is suffering from. As observed from the household education demand study, dropout rates for the entire country ranged from 13 to 22 percent. The drop out rates for grade 1-3, 4-6, 7-8, 9-10, and 11-12 were 22, 13, 16, 17, and 13 percent in that respective order (PHRD 1996:32). This reveals that dropout rate was higher between grades 1 to 3. Findings of similar study showed that the dropout rates of females are higher than that of boys in 7-10 grades particularly in urban areas and girls' dropout rate is higher than boys in all grades. These evidences show that dropping out has negative impact on female participation and their persistence throughout educational levels.

The literature suggests those teachers' attitudes; behaviors and teaching practices have significant implications for females' persistence and academic achievement and attainment. Teachers' attitudes towards their students are a reflection of the broader societal biases about the role of women in society and the academic capacity of girls (Odaga and Heneveld, 1995:31). Similarly teachers often require pupils to perform tasks for them in school in ways that reinforce gender differentiation. Girls may be asked to clean floors and fetch water whereas boys are required to clear bushes, cut grass and carry bricks (UNESCO, 2003:149). A study on Tajikistan revealed that the situation is stricter with girls than boys, often forbidding girls from participation in activities that are considered natural for boys. Research report from Albania revealed a widely held prejudice among teachers that boys are more intelligent than girls and girls were only able to do well by working extremely hard

(UNESCO 2003:145). Similarly a study in Bangladesh found that most teachers themselves did not accept their own daughters to take a job after finishing their education. Such discriminatory attitudes affect females' participation in education.

Evidences based on the study on classroom observation in Kenya, Malawi and Rwanda indicated that teachers paid more attention to boys than to girls or completely ignored girls. Similar study in Cameroon revealed that teachers preferred to teach boys and that they focused more on boys than girls in the classroom. The higher rate of failure for girls might to a considerable extent be an effect of inequality of treatment within the classroom (Kilo 1994 as cited in Odaga and Heneveld 1995:32). The quality of teachers and student interaction is noted as (often) negative and discouraging when a female student is involved. According to Atsede and Kebede (1988), as cited in Genet (1998:27) teachers as well as school administrators try to influence female students to join home-economics, nursing or secretarial areas. These are traditionally low status professions.

The presence of gender bias in textbooks and teaching materials can affect females' participation in education. Many text books and teaching materials have pronouns of sex bias, which can discourage girls from thinking of themselves as good students or as suited to any job but a few traditional occupations. Often books portray men as intelligent and adventurous, seeking employment in new, exciting, and profitable fields. Women are depicted as passive admiring, and suited only for traditional roles (World Bank 1991:30). According UNESCO (2003:146) in most countries of Europe and Asia textbooks present different gender roles of women, predominantly under taking domestic activities at home. For example, in Romania text books depict women as school teachers, villagers, fruit or flower sellers, where as men are viewed as astronauts, policemen, physicians, actors, conductors and masons. Kalia (1982:174) states that subtly, Indian textbooks prepare males for a bustling

world of excitement and decision making while conditioning the females to seek fulfillment in background where servitude and support are the only requirements. In addition, the attributes of men and women were heavily stereotypical in textbooks of India. Females are characterized for their beauty, obedience and self-sacrifice, while men are for their bravery, intelligence and achievement.

Other studies in developing countries found similar patterns in different subject areas, which portrayed males as liberators, leaders, heroes, problem solvers, and inventors. While girls on the other hand are frightened, inept in the use of technology, easily duped or surprised, need to be rescued and shown crying or in distressing situations (Kane 2004:72). In addition, Kane, in Jange and Mekelich (1998:167) pointed out that most of the learning materials put girls at a disadvantage because there are more examples of males who are more active. Males are shown in more occupation, and female examples are fewer and are shown as passive in a narrow range of occupation out side those of wife and mother.

A similar analysis of elementary school textbooks conducted by the Curriculum Department of the Ministry of Education of Ethiopia (1989) revealed that no female referred topics were used in science subjects and the proper names in textbooks were predominantly male. The adjectives used to describe women were fertile, pregnant, breast feeder, and pretty while those used to describe males were revolutionary leader, freedom fighter, soldier etc. Women are very sparingly mentioned in scientific professional sphere of activities while men are frequently (MOE, 1989 cited in Genet 1998:30). In general the messages described in textbooks and teaching materials imply that females cannot play a role out side tradition. This shows that the sex biased textbooks and teaching materials are discouraging the enrollment of females in education.

Several political and institutional factors may constrain females' participation in education. The political will to tackle the problems on non-participation and non-enrollment of girls is a key factor in improving educational outcomes of all children (Odaga and Heneveld 1995:45). To support the above idea Conway and Bourque (1993:10) stated that improvement in women's status is least dependent upon their ability to mobilize political activities as well as educational achievement. Nevertheless political consciousness or its lack is closely linked to educational content. Policy makers can interpret and analyze the political and economic consequence of women's access to education. So political will and recognition of the attainment of girls' education remain important in boosting female enrollment rate.

In several sub-Saharan Africa Countries the capacity to finance and manage the education sectors is increasingly under threat. The fiscal crisis and the inadequate public support are the two major issues in education sector (Odaga and Heneveld 1995:45). When coming to Ethiopian context, most schools are suffering from financial management problems. The budget allocated by the government cannot reach the schools on time. It must be recognized that there is a need for a serious concerted commitment to increase and spread education in the population in general and among women in particular. To state the policy goals is easy, but the problem lies on how to exercise the actual implementation and how to understand in connection with the country's context (Conway and Bourque 1993:24).

Regarding this point the recent review of education reforms and policies across the sub-Saharan African countries indicated their limited effectiveness due to lack of implementation or partial implementation with no appreciated effect (Craig, 1991; Fuller and Haste, 1992; Psacharoplous 1990 cited in Odaga and Heneveld, 1995:46). Policies aimed at enhancing female education have no value if there is no implementation. In developing countries, equality is a long-term goal advanced upon wherever people are enfranchised. It is always

rendered to a distance goal because of shortage of resources and persistent cultural patterns (Conway and Bourque, 1993:25).

According to the Transitional Government of Ethiopia's Education and Training Policy (MOE 1994:7) and its strategy document, the Government will provide support to raise the participation of women in education. However, despite the efforts made by the Government, the enrollment rate of females is lower than that of males. Similarly the Constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (Article 35 sub-article 6, 1995:93) states "women have the right to full consultation in the formulation of national development policies, designing and execution of projects, and particularly in case of project affecting the interest of women". As a result, institutions for women's affairs, at various levels were established in almost all regions of Ethiopia. Their contribution to reduce factors affecting female's participation in education as well as in other issues was low.

Socio-cultural customs and beliefs influence decision to enroll girls in school. From this point of view, Herz and others (1991:251) stated that girls are expected to have special physical protection. Traditionally they often demand especial concern for privacy and social reputation. In some societies there is a cultural belief that females must be secluded from direct confrontation of other members of the society during puberty stage. Hence, girls' enrollment rate in schools is low. Findings of the study made in sub-Saharan Africa, revealed that religion is one of the factors, which affect females' school entrance. Hyde (1993:113) observes that in Northern Nigeria education of girls was hampered due to screening of Muslim women from "strangers" both in rural and urban areas. The main cause for this screening seems that Muslim parents want to prevent their daughters from schooling in order to avoid the influence of other religions. In some cases people prefer Islamic education for their daughters in fear that western education may promote values and behavior, which are contrary to their cultural norms. Similarly, the study made in Nepal revealed that, religion has negatively affected the participation of females in education

(Kasaju and Manandhur, 1985:328). The findings of the study made in Ghana indicated that demand for education varies according to the religious differences of parents (Canagarajush and Coulombe, 1997 cited in Kane 2004:74). The study further indicated that Christian parents believe that all children should go to school than non-Christian parents who favor sending only sons or none. In view of these schools, Christianity stresses the importance of literacy, since literacy reduces the significance of local beliefs, and thus favors females' schooling.

Furthermore in some places, especially among Muslim society, women of the elite families receive much or all of their schooling at home. In this society girls are forbidden to come to the monastery and temple schools (Bowman and Anderson 1982:11). This shows that parent's obligation is to keep their daughters at home and prepare them for maternal responsibility rather than sending them to school. Before the Derg regime education system of Ethiopia was predominantly religion oriented to train the masculine to serve at the religious and state /governmental/ organizations such as where the church and the Mosque where women were not allowed to involve in this responsibilities (Befekadu 1998:129). This shows that religion is one of the factors that affect female school entrance.

Regarding the impact of early marriage on female participation in education, several studies affirmed that it has a considerable share in retarding the participation of females in education. In the developing countries, parents are positive about marriage and feel that girls are born to marry and to have children. According to UNESCO (2003:123), where female autonomy is unstable, early marriage is used as a means of securing daughters' futures. Data from India for 1996 show that 38 percent of girls aged 15-19 were married. In rural areas of Albania and Tajikistan it is not uncommon for poor families to endorse the early marriage of girls to lighten the family's economic burden. Similar study in Ethiopia and in some countries in West Africa revealed

that marriage at 7 or 8 is not uncommon. In some cases girls are reported to be able to carry on their education even after moving to their in-laws household (Rose 2003 cited in UNESCO 2003:124). Hence marriage becomes one of the reasons for girls to leave school.

According to Almaz (1991:6), in some part of Ethiopia, about 43 percent of the girls were married between 11 and 15 years of age and about 7 percent were married when 10 or 11 years old. In view of many scholars, such early marriage brings forward not only the time of motherhood but also hinders their schooling. In this regard, Hyde (1993:16) states that the young age females' marriage in much of African countries make marriage an important reason for girls poor entry to secondary or higher institutions or leave before completing the cycle. Review of studies in developing countries showed that in countries where girls are married at early age school enrollment of females was lower (Bowman and Anderson 1982:27). Engagements of females in marriage at early age result in low females' participation in education. In Ethiopia too where early marriage is practiced, it would be one of the reasons for the low enrollment of females in education.

Concerning the parental and family attitudes to females' participation in education, Hyde (1993:112) stated that the wish to protect daughters from undesirable influences appears strongest in areas that are still very traditional. Similarly Bowman and Anderson (1982:15) noted that a few of the females attend school in areas where traditional attitudes such as protection of daughters from foreign influences were strong.

A study in India indicated that enrollments of females was lower in communities where social expectation of the roles and obligations of women has traditional bias (Conway and Bocrgue 1993:17) Alemtsehai (1985:32) found that the major barrier for females' education in Ethiopia was traditional views, which reflects that girls have a place in the home and hence sending them to

school is considered as a waste of time and money. Findings of the study made in Bangladesh also indicate that the only acceptable role of females is to be wives and mothers. As a result, they are trained for these purposes from their early stage instead of attending school (Assefa 1991:13). Bouga (1996:107) stated that girls are voluntary or involuntary victims of stereotypes inherited from previous generation. Certain parents in both rural area and sub-urban centers think girls need not be provided with schooling because women's ultimate natural duty and goal is getting married and producing children. Many developing societies view girls' education as an option between marriage and motherhood. The assumption is that formal schooling does not prepare girls adequately for their traditional role as mothers and wives and thus, it were felt that they could be prepared for these roles at home. Theses were some of the causes for low girls enrollment in education.

Parent's worry about wasting money and time on educating girls who are likely to get pregnant or become part of another family due to marriage results in loss of parental investment in females education (Davison, 1993; Davison and Kanyuka, 1992, cited in Odaga and Heneveld 1995:20). King (1991:11) found that in some societies custom dictates sons to take responsibility for their parents while girls marry into their own families at an early age. Kane (2004:62) states that when girls are married they tend to forget their parents and would want their husband to become king rather than even close relative. Thus the attitude of parents that consider girls as families of others due to marriage can affect the participation of females in education.

Parent's attitudes towards unwanted pregnancy of their daughters can affect females' participation in education. The finding of a study in rural Zimbabwe indicated that school pregnancy was the great problem that disappoints parents who pay school fees to daughters, and influence them to give priority to the boys. Pregnancy emerges as a major cause for adolescent schoolgirls leaving school. Fear of pregnancy is another reason why parents

remove their daughters from school as they approach or reach puberty (Odaga and Heneveld 1995:36). Similar study in Cameroon suggests that community's experience with schoolgirl's pregnancies may negatively affect the prospects for educating young girls. In Mozambique, urban girls are more likely to leave school because of pregnancy than rural girls. A study of schoolgirls' pregnancy in Kenya indicated that annual average of 10,400 girls leave school because of pregnancy. Unwanted pregnancy is a major problem of many African countries that affects females' participation in education.

The girls become pregnant by schoolboys, teachers or other civil servants who did not follow the customary rules on marriage. The men did not marry the girls as they viewed such marriage as an obstacle to their careers (Odaga and Heneveld 1995:36). The increasing indications of significant levels of illegal abortions, particularly in urban areas and related health risks for young women, have threatened parents send to their daughters to school. With regard to HIV/AIDS, it has become evident that men prefer young girls as sex partners because of the perception that they are AIDS free. This is particularly worrying development because due to the harsh economic situation, in many African countries, schoolgirls are trading sex for money (Odaga and Haneveld 1995:37). Many of the young girls who engaged in such sexual activity are not aware of the risks associated with unsafe sex. The abject poverty in which many families find them selves, and the temptation for young girls to use sex to generate an income or finance to their education, flies in the face of moral standards that forbid premarital sex (Palme 1993 cited in Odaga and Heneveld 1995:38). The official penalty for schoolgirl's pregnancy is very high in most sub-Saharan African countries and this may be one of the causes for low females' participation in education.

Girls' participation in education is also affected by their labor demand by parent (to help at home). According to the World Bank (1991:26), through out most of sub-Saharan Africa and south Asia, the heavy work burden of rural

women may force them to keep their daughters at home to help with care of younger siblings, time consuming tasks on the farm, and such household chores as cleaning, cooking and collecting fuel. Most girls from poor families spend substantial amount of time running the household. Study by UNESCO (2003:122) states that in Ethiopia, Guinea and Tanzania girls are occupied with domestic work, such as looking after siblings, preparing and cooking food, cleaning the house, and fetching water and fire wood are reasons for leaving school early. According to Kane (2004:68) and Hyde (1989:25) findings, most parents do not prefer sending their daughters to school in fear of losing support at home. Females are seen simply as some one who will stay with them for a while and leave them when they get married. Until they leave home, it is felt that they have to help their mothers by doing household chores that will prepare them for their eventual role as wives and mothers. Hence if the family decides to send only two or three of its children to school, daughters will be the one to be denied priority. Even if girls work at home it interferes with the academic achievements of the girls who have already acquired access to education since it requires an extra time, which would be devoted for studying (Alemtsehai 1985:25). In general, the daughters' labor demand of parents for household work can affect females' participation in education.

Parents may have poor knowledge of the benefits of educating their daughters. According to King (1991:11) parents who are not aware of the benefit of education are intergenerational, and in fact accumulate over time. Or families may not appreciate the benefits of education. A country where the "suitableness" of more highly educated women to be good wives is held in doubt. The same study found that highly educated women's possibilities for marriage become limited. Parents find it hard to understand the benefits of education when curricula are irrelevant to the mother-wife role or contradict the value they want to teach their children (King 1991:11). These cultural considerations vary widely among and within countries and it differ in parental education level and hence affect females' school enrollment.

Parental education and cultural factors may also cause families to differ in the priority they place on schooling children and their perceptions of the appropriateness of child labor (World Bank 2004:19). Parents' education has an important influence on gender differences in education. Studies indicate that the more education parents have, the more they value formal education for their daughters. Parents' education measures the degree to which parents are open to influences other than tradition. Also parents' education serves as a limited measure of family income or wealth when more direct measures are not available (Hill and King 1993:32). The studies made to find the relationship between parental education and daughters school enrollment indicate that daughters of illiterate parents have less opportunity to go to school (Bowman and Anderson 1982:28). For example, the study conducted in Ghana indicated that female students in secondary school are more likely than their male counterparts to come from families with more education (King and Hill 1993:31). The study conducted in Indonesia revealed that enrollment rates of daughters whose parents are literate, is higher than enrollment rates of daughters, of illiterate parents (Kasaju and Mandhar 1985:326). A reason offered for such differences is that literate parents recognize the importance of education for the daughters and are willing to make sacrifices for this purpose than less educated or illiterate parents. In other words literate parents have better awareness of the advantages of education of daughters than illiterate parents. As a result they give equal opportunities of education for their children.

Even though many scholars agree on the opinion that parents' literacy affect females' schooling, the educational background of parents especially mothers has a bearing on the academic achievement and participation of female students (Genet 1998:33). According to Hill and King (1993:33), and Hyde (1993:113), African women bear large part of the burden of educating their children. Their own level of education and command of resources are important

factors in their ability to keep their children in school. The studies showed that households headed by educated females are more likely to send girls as well as boys to school and to keep them there longer than households headed by uneducated females or by males. This suggests that mother's education has key influence on the participation of daughters in schooling. Perhaps, the mothers also serve as role models to their daughter

CHAPTER THREE

3. DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA

This section describes the regional, zonal and specific study woreda profile in terms of physical, social and political issues.

3.1 Locations and Topography

Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Region is one of the nine Regional states of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. It is located in the Southern and South Western Parts of the country, bordering with Kenya in the south, the Sudan Republic in the south west, Gambella Region in the north west and Oromiya Region in the north and east. The capital City of the Region is Awassa, which is 275 Km South of Addis Ababa.

The region has an area of about 112,343 Sq Km and accounts for 10% of the total area of Ethiopia. For administrative purposes the Region was divided into 13 zones /with 96 woredas/, 8 special woredas and 19 towns administered by municipalities.

The region has undulating land features dissected twice both by the Omo-Ghibe basin and Rift Valley Lakes basin in western Central and east- Southern part of the region. Its elevation variation ranges from 376 meters above sea level at Lake Rudolf to 4207 meters above sea level at mount Guge in the Gamu Gofa zone (TAMRA TSEGA 2001). The region has immense ecological and cultural diversity ranging from arid to Semi-arid. The amount and distribution of rainfall varies from place to place. Its intensity, duration and amount increase from south to northeast and northwest. The mean annual rainfall ranges from 400-2200 mm. The mean annual temperature ranges from 15oc-30oc.

3.2 Populations and Settlement Structure

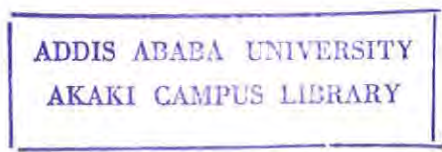
The total Population of the region is about 14,085,007 (CSA 2004) making it the third most populous region in the country preceded by Oromiya and Amahara regions. The annual Population growth is about 3.3%.

Table 1:

Population of SNNPR by Zones & Special Woredas

No	Zone	Total Population			Area in Sq km	Density
		Male	Female	Both		
1	Guraghe	805955	864463	1670418	6286.59	265.7
2	Hadiya	707031	717235	1,424,266	3,978.14	358.0
3	Kamibata Timbaro	365449	367157	732606	1460.17	501.7
4	Gediyo	387,585	386,536	774,121	1,329.39	582.3
5	Sidama	1,410,423	1,366,505	2,776,928	6,832.85	406.4
6	Gamo Gofa	731,124	737,752	146,8876	12003.79	122.4
7	Bench maji	221,824	220,923	442,747	23,442.716	18.9
8	Kefa	394750	409802	804552	10610.65	75.8
9	Sheka	91245	90546	181.791	2128.6	85.4
10	Debub omo	223,483	220,972	444,955	22,360.79	19.9
11	Wolayta	783307	799926	1583233	4537.53	348.9
12	Dawuro	179685	187989	367674	4695.01	78.3
13	Silte	214511	219377	433888	1705.63	254.4
1	Yem sp.	43405	43,572	86,977	666.25	130.5
2	Burju sp.wo	26,352	26,809	53,160	1,319.85	40.3
3	AmaroSp.wo	66,282	66,026	132,308	1,534.07	86.2
4	Konso SP.wo	103,842	108,413	212,255	2,276.25	93.2
5	Derashie Sp.	60,345	62,320	122,674	1,526.41	80.4
6	Basketo SP	22,675	22,999	45,674	420.94	108.5
7	Konta SP.	34,167	36,611	70,778	2,253.76	31.4
8	Alaba SP.	127,067	128,067	255,127	973.76	262.0
Total		7,000,999	7,084,008	14,085,007	112,343.19	125.4

Sources CSA 2004, PP-41-43



The distribution of the Population by residential place shows that 7.2 percent of the populations inhabit urban areas while 92.8% residents inhabit rural areas. More than 56 indigenous ethnic groups with their distinct languages live in this region (SEPDA 1998). The languages that these ethnic groups speak belong to the broad language families of Omotic, Cushitic, Semitic and Nilotic.

According to the 1994 Population and Housing Census results of Ethiopia, the largest religious group is Protestant (34.8%), followed by Orthodox Church (27.6%) in SNNPR. Muslim and traditional religion comprises 16.7%, and 15.4% respectively. Catholic, others and not stated religions constitute 3.0%, 2.4% and 0.1% respectively.

3.3 Administrative System

The Federal Constitution of 1995 has established a federal system of governance in Ethiopia assigning extensive responsibility to the regional state government. The new institutional structure has strong implication for managements of the development process, while the Federal Government retains responsibility for overall national policies and strategies. A key decision on development and policy implementations in the regions is now with in the competence of the regional state governments (Fed.Neg.Gaz. 1995).

The council members ratified the regional constitution of SNNPR. According to Article 45 (1) and Article 49 (1) of the Constitution the legislative body of the SNNPR state is the regional counsel. Its accountability is to the masses that gave it the representation as a proxy. According to Article 45 (1), the regional state is organized in zones, special woredas and kebeles. The state council may organize other administrative hierarchies and determine their powers and duties, (SNNPRS 2001).

3.4 Economic Activity

The economy of the SNNPR is mainly based on agriculture. Peasant farmers grow inset (false banana), cereals, pulses and oilseeds. Coffee, fruit, tobacco, sisal and cotton are grown as cash crops. This region provides up to 40% of the national coffee product for export. Animal husbandry is wide spread among the subsistence farmers. The challenge to increase agricultural out put is to harness the many rivers for irrigation and lakes for fisheries (SEPDA 1998).

3.5 Specific Study Areas

Dawuro zone is one of the 13 Zonal Administration Councils in SNNPR. The Zone has a total area of 4,695.01Sq km land bordering Wolayta in the east, Kamibata-Timbaro in the west, Konta Special woreda in the north, Oromiya region in the northwest and Gamu Gofa in the south. According to CSA's 2004 data the total population of the zone is 367,674, out of which 179,685 are male and 187,989 are female.

The 1994 population and housing census results of Dawuro zone show that the largest religious group was traditional (48.6%) followed by Orthodox Christians (33.8%) and protestants (16.6%). Muslim, other, Catholic and not stated religions were 0.4%, 0.4%, 0.2% and 0.04%, respectively (CSA: 1996). This shows that most of the people are traditional religion followers.

The Zone is comprised of 5 woredas: Esera, Gena Bosa, Loma, Mareka and Tocha. Dawuro Zone Administrative town is Tercha, which is located in Mareka woreda. Tercha Town is found in south western part of Ethiopia at a

distance of 512 km from Addis Ababa, 282 km from Awassa, 144 km from Jimma, and 117 km from Wolayta Soddo.

The specific study area of this research is Tocha woreda, which is one of the five woredas of the Dawuro zone. Kechi, its administrative town is located at a distance of 34 km from Tercha. Tocha woreda consists of 29 peasant kebeles and one urban kebele. The woreda covers an area of 1,838.60 sq.km. The weather condition of Tocha woreda is divided into three: Dega, which has an annual rain-fall ranging from 1200_1600 ml; Woinadega, which has an annual rain-fall ranging from 1000_1200 ml; and Kola which has an annual rain-fall range from 600-800 ml. Its average altitude ranges from 1300_3200 meters above sea level. The ecological division of the woreda is 50 % Dega, 30% Woinadega, and 20% Kola. Regarding topography of this woreda, 60% of the land is mountainous, 20% is gorge, and 20% is plateau.

The total population of Tocha woreda is 124,594 of which 60,600 are males and 63,994 are females both in the rural and urban areas. Out of this 95.5% live in rural areas and their major occupation is farming. The rest, 4.5% live in urban area. Their occupation comprises of trading, office works and other miscellaneous activities. The land is fertile and produces varieties of agricultural products such as inset, barely, wheat, beans and pea in the Daga and the Woinadega regions; teff, maize, banana, sorghum and cotton in the Kolla region. Enest is the main food crop of the woreda. The majority of the indigenous people belong to the Dawuro nationality.

Tocha woreda has only labor based dry weather road. Heath coverage of Tocha woreda is 47% in 2004. There are 4 clinics and about 15 "tena kelas" (health station), which are governmental. There are two private pharmacies and one government health center. According to the new educational structure, there are 12 first cycle primary, 4-complet primary, one first cycle secondary schools and two "community skills-training centers". When we compare the

total population with the above social services in the woreda, the social service is at low level. Apart from the poor social service, lack of all weather roads, rugged topography, and scattered settlement are other problems to that society.

Improvement of the basic social services in this woreda is of utmost importance, including serious intervention for female participation in education. The attitude and belief of the people toward education in general and girls' education in particular should, be changed in order to increase females' school enrollment and bring about socioeconomic development.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRATION OF THE DATA

In this chapter the results of the study on factors affecting females' participation in education are presented. The findings focus mainly on the enrollment of females in 2nd cycle primary and 1st cycle secondary schools of Tocha woreda. Accordingly the relationship between female participation and over all educational enrollment rates is treated. The data collected from female students, school principals, and teachers and focused group discussion with female students' parents' are analyzed and interpreted after each table.

4.1. Characteristics of Respondents

A sample population of 212 female students were randomly selected out of 1061 female students in the four complete primary 2nd cycle schools and one 1st cycle secondary school. 12 female teachers, 5 school principals and 6 woreda educational officials were selected by availability sampling. 19 male teachers and 56 female students' parents were selected by simple random selection method. A questionnaire was distributed to 260 respondents out of which 209 or 84.27 percent were female students, 26 or 10.48 percent were school principals and male teachers and 10 or 4.03 percent were female teachers. On the other hand 8-focused group discussions were held with 56 female students' parents at four complete primary schools, two from each. One focused group discussion was held with 6 woreda educational officials.

Table 2:

Back Ground Information of School Principals and Teachers Respondents

No	Item	Respondents
1	Schools	
	A. Kechi complete primary school	7
	B. Tocha complete primary school.	10
	C. Wara complete primary school	7
	D. Aba complete primary school	6
	E. Tocha 1 st cycle secondary school	6
	Total	36
2	Sex	
	A. Male	26
	B. Female	10
	Total	36
3	Educational level	
	A. 12 th grade	-
	B. 12+ TTI	29
	C. Diploma	7
	D. Degree	-
	Total	36
4	Work position in school	
	School principals	5
	Teachers	31
	Total	36

As indicated in Table 2, the number of female teachers is very few. These contradicts the view that presence of more female teachers could have been a strategy to encourage females' participation in education apart from providing positive role models to young girls particularly in rural areas.

As can be seen from the table above, the qualification of 29(80.5%) teachers is TTI graduates, of 7(19.4%) is diploma graduates and there is no degree holder. The educational and training policy requires as a standard for the 2nd cycle primary school diploma holders and degree holders for 1st cycle

secondary school. But when we see from the data teachers who were trained in primary 1st cycle are assigned to teach at the primary 2nd cycle as well as in secondary 1st cycle. This shows that there are many teachers who are under qualified and yet are forced to teach at the 2nd cycle primary and secondary schools. Regarding the school principals all of them were male. By qualification 3 of them have diploma and the other two have TTI level qualification.

Table 3: Background Information on Female Student Respondents

No	Item	Respondents
1	School A. Kechi complete primary school B. Tocha complete primary school C. Wara complete primary school D. Aba complete primary school E. Tocha 1 st cycle secondary Total	27 38 39 32 73 209
2	Age A. 14 and below years B. 15-18 years C. 19-22 years D. 23 and above Total	50 145 11 3 209
3	Education level A. 5 th grade B. 6 th grade C. 7 th grade D. 8 th grade E. 9 th grade F. 10 th grade Total	25 36 25 50 34 39 209
4	Marital status A. Married B. Single C. Divorced Total	18 189 2 209
5	Religion A. Orthodox B. Muslim C. Protestant D. Traditional belief Total	157 - 50 2 209

The educational levels of the parents were as follows

- A. Father educated 92 Uneducated 117
- B. Mother educated 57 Uneducated 152

1. Fathers education level: 1-6 grades: 49; 7-8 grades: 15; 9-12 grades: 17; 12 grade and above are 11.

2. Mothers' education level: 1-6 grades: 39; 7-6 grades: 9; 9-12 grades: 16; 12 grade and above are only 3.

The female students under study were selected from grade 5 _10. The age of the majority of students ranged between 15-18 years. This shows us that most students are over aged according to the age standard for primary (7-14) ages for 1st cycle secondary (15-16) ages. This age is a period when an adolescent faces a lot of emotional problem. This has its own negative influence on the females' participation in education, such as male harassment, the need for male friends, etc.

When we see the marital status of female student respondents, 189 or 90.43 percent were single, 18 or 8.61 percent were married and 2 or 0.95 percent were divorced, and 18% female students were engaged for marriage before completing their secondary education. This practice was one of the reasons for low enrollment of females in education.

Concerning the type of religion of female student respondents, 157 or 75.11 percent were Orthodox Church followers, 50 or 23.92 percent were protestant and 2 or 0.95 percent were followers of traditional belief.

Concerning the educational backgrounds of the parents of female students, 117 or 55.98 were from uneducated fathers 92 or 44.01 percent were from educated fathers, 152 or 72.72 percent were from uneducated mothers

and 57 or 27.27 from educated mothers. Regarding the level of education of fathers, those who were from grade 1-6 were 49 or 23.44 percent, 7-8 grades were 15 or 7.17 percent, 9-12 grades were 12 or 5.74 percent, 12 and above were 11 or 5.26 percent. As to mothers' education 1-6 grades were 39 or 18.66 percent, 7-8 grades were 9 or 4.30 percent, 9-12 grades were 6 or 2.87 percent, and 12 and above were 3 or 1.43 percent respectively. From this we can deduce that most of female students' parents are uneducated. So that parent's education has an important influence on females' participation in education.

Knowing the general trend of females' participation at national, regional, zonal and woreda levels is very important. It is already stated that researchers have the opinion that female participation in education affects the achievement of enrollment target. The studies so far made in Ethiopia concerning females' education and educational statistics invariably indicate that female enrollment at all level of education is low.

Ethiopia would probably have the problem of achieving the intended Millennium Development Goal 3, which says that we should promote gender equality and empower women. Target 4 is eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and at all levels of education no later than 2015. Thus, it seems logical to assume that one of the major reasons why Ethiopia could not achieve the enrollment target is due to low female participation in education. The problem is wide in rural and sub-urban areas like the woreda where this research was conducted.

It is vital to know the Gross enrollment ratio at national, regional and zonal levels before we conclude that low female participation in education has affected the achievement of the enrollment target. Gross enrollment ratio is defined as proportion of enrollment, irrespective of age, out of the corresponding school age population. This is probably the most widely used indicator of access or participation in developing countries as the quality of

data classified by age is in question. In most cases this figure includes under or over age students that the result can be higher than 100%. Normally, the age of students in grades 1–8 have to be 7-14 with the starting age at grade 1 being seven, while for grades 9-10 it has to be 15-16 years. Hence, it is said to be a crude measure of coverage. Table 4 presents the primary (1-8) gross enrollment ratios by regions (2003/04).

Table 4:

Primary (1-8) Gross Enrollment Ratios by Regions (2003/04).

No	Region	Enrollment	GER (%)		Both (%)
			Boys	Girls	
1	Tigray	665,991	80.6	80.6	80.6
2	Afar	36,890	17.3	11.3	14.8
3	Amahara	2,215,849	65.4	58.2	61.8
4	Oromiya	3,673,631	86.8	58.3	72.7
5	Somali	123,541	19.4	10.0	15.1
6	Benish. Gumuz	120,528	120.0	80.2	100.5
7	SNNPR	2,095,791	88.7	59.5	74.2
8	Gambella	44,390	137.9	73.2	106.6
9	Harari	29,071	117.8	90.4	104.5
10	Dire Dawa	47,741	93.0	73.0	83.2
11	Addis Ababa	489,215	136.1	148.8	142.6
Total		9,542,638	77.4	59.1	68.4

Source EMIS-MOE (2005), P.25

In 1996 E.C./2003-04/ the primary school (grade 1-8) age population of the Country was estimated to be 13,950,688. Of this 9,542,638 were enrolled in primary schools, regular and evenings programs. As a result, the primary GER at national level has become 68.4% and when disaggregated by gender it is 59.1 for girls and 77.4% for boys. The gap is wide between males and females at national level. Regional comparison shows that Addis Ababa (142.6) has the highest participation rate while Afar region has the lowest (14.8)

As can be seen from Table 4, the regions that had performed well in female participation were Addis Ababa, Harari, Tigray and Benishangul Gumuz, the performance being about 148.8, 90.4, and 80.6 and 80.2% Gross enrollment ratio, respectively. On the other hand, the least female participation rates were observed in Somale and Afar region. This is, may be because the two regions are pastoral ones, and they move from place to place and that there is no access to schooling compared to other regions.

The number of school age child, for the age group 7-14, in SNNPR was estimated to be 2,810,000 in 1996 Ethiopian academic year. Out of which 2,081,179 (74.1%) was enrolled in the regular and evening programs of the primary education. As a result the primary GER at regional level was 74.1% and when it is disaggregated by gender it is 59.3 for girls and 88.6% for boys. Also the gap is wide by 29.3 percentage points between boys and girls at regional level. Table 5 presents growth enrollment ratio of SNNPR by zones and special woredas disaggregated by sex.

Table 5:**Primary (1-8) Gross Enrollment Ratio of SNNPR by Zone and Special Woreda (2003/04)**

No	Zone	Enrollment	GER		Both
			Boys	Girls	
1	Guraghe	240840	91.4	70.6	80.9
2	Hadiya	211209	86.3	62.4	74.2
3	Kambata Tamibaro	128993	89.5	71.1	80.2
4	Yem special woreda	14563	88.4	79.8	84.1
5	Burji special woreda	6981	70.0	55.9	63.0
6	Gediyo	99471	88.1	42.0	65.3
7	Amaro special woreda	17972	73.1	52.2	62.8
8	Sidama	387050	84.4	55.4	70.4
9	Konso special woreda	18598	68.1	22.3	45.1
10	Gamo Gofa	184879	80.2	51.4	66.0
11	Bench Maji	75514	129.8	58.3	95.2
12	Kefa	114905	92.3	61.6	77.4
13	Sheka	37656	132.9	101.3	117.1
14	Debub Omo	34052	51.0	26.5	39.2
15	Wolayita	242954	86.2	60.3	73.2
16	Derashie special woreda	11670	69.1	29.1	48.9
17	Dawuro	54847	85.0	62.2	73.8
18	Basketo special woreda	5658	88.0	41.5	64.3
19	Konta special woreda	9238	89.5	53.8	72.4
20	Silte	124730	96.7	63.8	80.0
21	Alaba special woreda	30400	130.1	52.2	92.0
	Total	2081179	88.6	59.3	74.1

Source: Plan, project and information service SNNPREB (2005), p.5

As indicated in Table 5, Sheka zone has the highest participation rate (117.1%), followed by Bench Maji (95.2%), Debub Omo Zone (39.2%) has the lowest, preceded by Konso and Derashie special woredas (45.1% and 48.9% respectively). When we look at girls participation from Table 5 Sheka zone scored the highest (101.3%) followed by Yem special woreda (79.8%) and Kambata Tamibaro zone (71.1%). Konso special woreda has the lowest (22.3%) followed by Debub Omo zone (26.5%) and Derashie special woreda (29.1%). These least female participation rates were observed in two special

woredas and Debub Omo zone. May be this is due to their traditional and cultural condition. This area population is mainly postural and Semi-pastoralists. As we know in pastoral areas, schools are not available, and females have more burdens of house hold activities and others.

Dawuro zone school age population for the age group 7-14 in the year 1996 E.C was estimated to be 74,307, out of which 54847(73.8) was enrolled in the regular and evening programs of the primary education. Table 6 shows the gross enrollment ratio of Dawuro zone disaggregated by sex.

Table 6

Primary (1-8) Gross Enrollment Ratio Dawuro Zone (2003/04)

No	Woreda	Enrollment	GER		Both %
			Boys	Girls	
1	Mareka	12445	78.4	60.6	69.6
2	Gena Bossa	11445	87.1	71.9	79.6
3	Loma	12821	82.2	59.4	70.9
4	Esera	7700	94.8	64.1	79.9
5	Tocha	10436	87.9	56.8	72.8
	Total	54847	85.0	62.2	73.8

Source: SNNPREB,(2005) (pp 28-30)

As indicated in Table 6, Gena Bossa and Esera woredas have the highest participation rate (79% each). Mareka woreda has the lowest (69.6%). Regarding females' participation, Gena Bossa has the highest female participation rate compared with other woredas. Tocha woreda where this research was conducted has the lowest female participation compared with other Dawuro zone woredas. This may be, because of factors mentioned above like economic, cultural, rugged topography of the woreda and other factors that can affect females' participation in education.

Table 7:**Secondary (9-10) Gross Enrollment Ratio by Regions (2003/04).**

No	Region	Enrollment	GER		Both (%)
			Boys	Girls	
1	Tigray	54,877	37.3	23.6	30.5
2	Afar	3,007	5.4	4.5	5.0
3	Amahara	122,565	20.0	11.4	15.7
4	Oromiya	250,908	30.9	14.6	22.9
5	Somali	6,434	4.1	2.3	3.3
6	Banish. Gumuz	7,511	39.5	16.9	28.4
7	SNNPR	121,458	28.0	11.8	20.0
8	Gambella	2,858	46.4	10.4	28.9
9	Harari	5,239	88.0	57.0	72.5
10	Dire Dawa	6,933	56.1	39.1	47.2
11	Addis Ababa	104,186	96.2	78.8	86.6
	Total	685,976	28.2	15.9	22.1

Enrollment includes both regular and evening students

Source: EMIS -MOE (2005), p.25

In 1996 E.C. (2003-04), the first cycle of secondary (9-10) school age population (15-16) of the Country was estimated to be 3,099,000, out of which 685,976 were enrolled in first cycle secondary schools regular and evening programs. As a result, the secondary 1st cycle GER at national level was 22.1% and when disaggregated by gender it is 15.9 for girls and 28.2% for boys. Regional comparison shows that Addis Ababa (86.6%) has the highest participation rate, while Somali Region had the lowest (3.3%).

As can be observed from Table 7, the regions that had performed well in first cycle secondary female participation are Addis Ababa, Harari Dire Dawa and Tigray, the performance being about 96.2, 57.0, 39.1 and 23.6%. Gross enrollment ratios respectively. On the other hand, the least female participation rates in first cycle secondary school (9-10) were observed in Somali and Afar regions.

In 1996 E.C (2003-04) the first cycle secondary (9-10) school aged population of SNNPR was estimated to be 622,070. Out of this 116147 were enrolled in first cycle of secondary school regular and evening Programs. Table 8 shows the gross enrollment ratios of SNNPR, disaggregated by sex.

Table 8:

Secondary (9-10) Gross Enrollment Ratios of SNNPR by Zone and Special Woreda (2003/04)

No	Zone	Enrollment	GER		Both (%)
			Boys	Girls	
1	Guraghe	10932	22.46	7.86	14.80
2	Hadiya	14924	30.23	13.53	21.89
3	Kambata Tamibaro	10505	36.75	16.71	26.68
4	Yem special woreda	705	22.76	11.86	17.39
5	Burji special woreda	519	36.76	9.66	23.45
6	Gediyo	5291	21.76	9.75	16.42
7	Amaro special woreda	929	23.35	3.67	13.71
8	Sidama	21975	24.68	10.69	18.30
9	Konso special woreda	887	16.17	3.21	9.77
10	Gamo Gofa	12332	23.91	13.13	18.67
11	Bench Maji	2341	16.40	8.92	12.94
12	Kefa	3889	15.11	7.84	11.83
13	Sheka	1960	34.99	14.54	25.16
14	Dehub Omo	1304	8.79	4.58	6.86
15	Wolayita	18132	28.34	14.09	21.59
16	Dershie special woreda	836	23.92	7.51	15.68
17	Dawuro	4092	33.68	13.04	24.04
18	Basketo special woreda	336	27.54	12.22	19.89
19	Konta special woreda	326	14.28	4.73	9.63
20	Silte	2390	10.51	1.84	6.15
21	Alaba special woreda	1542	23.57	7.98	16.02
	Total	116147	24.11	10.59	17.61

Source: SNNPREB (2005) p (28-30)

As indicated in Table 8, the secondary 1st cycle GER at regional level was 17.61%, and when disaggregated by gender it is 10.59% for girls and 24.11% for boys. Zonal and special woredas comparison shows that Kambata Tamibaro and Sheka zones have the highest enrollment ratios whereas Silte and Dehub Omo zones have the least enrollment ratios compared with the other zones and

special woredas. Female students' participation rate in secondary 1st cycle schools of Kambata Tamibaro and Sheka zone is the highest: 16.71 and 14.54% respectively. Silite, Konso special woreda and Amaro special woreda have the least female participation rates: 1.84, 3.21 and 3.67% respectively. This may be due to socio- economic, cultural, school environment a related factor that could affect females' participation in education.

In 1996 E.C (2003-04) Dawuro Zone's first cycle secondary (9-10) school age population (15-16) was estimated to be 15,883. Out of this, 4,092 were enrolled in first cycle of secondary schools. Table 9, shows the gross enrollment ratio of Dawuro zone, disaggregated by sex.

Table 9:

Secondary (9-10) Gross Enrollment Ratio of Dawuro Zone (2003/04)

No	Woreda	Enrollment	GER (%)		Both (%)
			Boys	Girls	
1	Mareka	1546	59.24	22.13	40.67
2	Gena Bossa	1309	42.73	11.89	27.17
3	Loma	294	25.08	5.60	15.64
4	Tocha	943	25.24	9.97	17.51
	Total	4092	38.81	12.93	25.76

Source SNNPREB (2005), (pp 28-30)

As indicated in Table 9, the secondary 1st cycle GER at Dawuro zone level was 25.76 and when disaggregated by gender, it is 12.93% for girls and 38.81% for boys. When we look at Dawuro zone GER ratio, Mareka woreda has the highest participation rate while Loma and Tocha woredas have the least participation rate. Regarding the females enrollment ratio, Mareka woreda has the highest enrollment ratio where as Loma has the least. The research area, Tocha woreda, has 9.97% GER ratio for females and following the least woreda, Loma.

In general, the participation of females is relatively higher at primary than secondary education and in some regions than in others. This could be because the education and training policy gives due emphasis to primary education (grades 1 to 8). Universal primary education is envisaged by the year 2015 (in 10 years). As could be observed from tables 2-9 the participation rate of females, at all levels of education are low and would require vast resource mobilization to implement what is planned. Therefore in an effort to increase the participation of females in education, it seems necessary to find out why this is so.

The general trends of Tocha woreda enrollment, promotion, repetition and dropout of female students are shown in Table 10 follows.

Table 10:

Trend of Enrollment, Drop out, Promotion and Repetition of Female Students in Tocha Woreda from 1992-1996 E.C.

E.C Year	Registered		Drop out		Promoted		Repeater	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1992	4644	2412	832	564	3368	1455	444	393
1993	4497	2502	866	582	3213	1561	418	366
1994	5873	3230	1331	763	3962	1965	580	502
1995	6332	3635	1535	873	4135	2318	662	444
1996	6942	4186	1716	1002	4988	3021	238	163
Total	28288	15972	6280	3784	19666	10320	2342	1868

As show in Table 10, in each year, the enrollment and promotion of female students is nearly by half less than that of male students (males 63.91% to females 36.09%). When we look at the promotion rate of male students in five years it totaled, to 69.52%, while that of female students totaled to 64.61%. So the promotion rate of female students is also less than that of male students.

The number of female students who repeated in five years period was 15.32%, while that of males was 10.64%. This also reveals that from the small number of females who participate; most of them are subject to repetition. From this data, it is possible to infer that there are several factors that affect female students' participation in education in Tocha woreda. The following tables show some of the major factors affecting female students' participation in education.

The findings of the study also indicate that admission or access to schooling is a discriminatory factor between boys and girls. That is 229 or 93.4 percent of the respondents affirmed that there is no equal chance to enter school for girls and boys.

Table 11:
Children's Chance to Enter School

No	Items	Responses	No, of Respondents	Percentage
1	Do boys and girls have equal chance to enter school?	Yes	16	6.53
		No	229	93.47
		Total	245	100.00
2	If your response to question number "1" is No, who gets more chance?	Boys	229	100
		Girls	----	----
		Total	229	100

As shown in the above Table 11, most of the respondents have said that there is no equal chance for boys and girls to enter school. About 93.47 percent of the respondents have responded that boys have more chance to enter school in the first place. It is obvious that the relative schooling outcomes for girls and boys are heavily determined by whether parents send them

to school. Concerning this, during focused group discussion more of female students' parents affirmed that they give first chance of education for their sons' than daughters. They want their daughters' labor more than their education. This demonstrates clearly that discrimination in access to schoolings is sharply concentrated on girls. The research area was one of the remotest parts in southern Ethiopia's Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Region. The parents do not have much awareness about the benefits of educating females. Most of the students' parents are poor and they want their children's labor, especially that of girls for household activities. This implies that poverty is one factor, which negatively affects girls' access to and participation in education.

On the other hand, school costs such as house rent, food supply cost, stationery or material cost, books rent and schooling fees are the major factors that influence parents willingness to educate their daughters. These are also some of the major reasons for low female participation in education. Table 12 presents respondents view concerning the effect of school costs on girls schooling.

Table 12:***The Influence of School Cost on Parents' Willingness to Educate Their Daughters.***

No	Items	Responses	No, of Respondent	Percentage
1	Do you think that school costs influence parents' willingness to educate their daughters?	a. Yes b. No c. I am not certain	202 40 3	82.45 16.32 1.23
2	If your response to question No. 1 is "Yes" which of the following costs are not affordable for daughters who come from poor families?	a. House rent and food supply b. Stationery or material cost c. Books rent d. Schooling fees e. Different from above	185 10 4 3 -	91.58 4.95 1.48 1.49
		Total	202	100

As indicated in Table 12, for the first item the majority, i.e. 82.45 percent of the respondents replied that school costs negatively influence parents' willingness to educate their daughters. This shows that house rent, food supply cost and stationery or material cost are the major reasons that made parents not send their children to school, particularly girls. This conforms to King and Hills (1993-24) finding which says that when the expected return to sending daughters to school do not exceed the cost of doing so, female education as an investment becomes unattractive to parents. Daughters will then be educated only to the extent that parents are willing to accept low economic returns.

Sending girls to school entails direct and opportunity costs, which are prohibitive to families', particularly poor families and rural families.

With respect to the second item in Table 12, 91.58 percent of the respondents replied that living house rent and food supply cost, among others, highly affect females' participation in education. This is because most female students in this woreda live out side their families to learn their 2nd cycle primary and 1st cycle secondary education. Thus they spend money for house rent and food supply. Other costs like stationery or material cost, book rent, schooling fees have less influence in females' education. In addition to the above-mentioned economic factors, students were asked if there were others factors. Thus, 12 of the respondents replied that cost of school uniform also affects females' participation in education.

Finally regarding financial constraints, girls are more likely than boys to be held back or be withdrawn from school. Literature suggests that girls from better off homes, who live in urban areas, are more likely to enroll and remain in school for longer than those from poorer homes and rural areas. In the research areas, where the overall enrollments are low, the gender gaps in participation are wider. So direct costs of schooling are one of the main causes for non-attendance and early dropout of girls from school.

Child labor is indispensable to the survival of some households, and schooling represents a high opportunity cost to them. The importance of child labor for agriculture, domestic and marketing tasks has-been well documented. However when it comes to childcare, girls are more likely to be involved than boys, and girls in the rural areas spend more time working than those in urban areas. Thus this is one of the major reasons for low female participation in education. Table 13 presents respondents' view concerning the effect of household activities on females' education

Table 13:

The Effect of Household Activities on Females' Education.

Item	Responses	No. of Respondents	Percentage
From your past experience who was engaged more in household activities?	a. Males	-	
	b. Females	245	100
	Total	245	100

As indicated in Table 13, 100% of the respondents and all of the focus group members of female students' parents affirmed that females are more engaged in household activities. This shows that females are important for domestic or household work and by doing this they reduce the families' expense that can be paid for the maidservants. Girls in research area and in fact in almost every where in rural areas work more than boys, regardless of whether they are in school, and whether adult women are present and working in the household or not. This has implications, not only for costs but also for dropout and repetition rates, performance and achievement. This can affect females' participation in education.

In relation to the above item, respondent were asked as to what kind of work females are engaged in more? For this open ended question, the majority of respondents replied that females are engaged in work like cooking food, collecting firewood, washing clothes, fetching water, taking care of children, grinding, preparing Enset for food, working in the farms, looking after cattle, and income generating activities for their families and themselves. Because of the above reasons parents are interested in engaging their daughters in doing home activates rather than sending them to schools. The perception of the benefit is that educating the daughters is less important than they benefit from what the girls do in the household. So the above facts show that poor parents

often invest less on their daughters' education. This goes in conformity with the result obtained by Kane (2004), UNESCO (2003), and others.

Long distance to school has a bigger impact on girls than on boys for a variety of reasons. In some places young girls are not considered to be ready for travel as early as young boys. Older girls may be subject to harassment and even when the trip is safe the direct costs may be high and the time lost traveling is more costly to girls' work than to that of boys.

The location of primary 2nd cycle and secondary schools were dispersed in the research area. Such dispersion of schools entails distance to school. Distances of school can negatively affect females' participation in education. This has been clearly shown in Table 14.

Table 14:

The Effect of Distance of School on Females' Participation in Education

Item	Responses	No_ of respondent	Percentage
Do you think that schools especially grade 5-8 and 9-10 in your area are located on reasonable distance to all students home?	a. Yes	-	-
	b. No	245	100
	c. I am not certain	-	-
	Total	245	100.00

As can be seen from the table, 100% of the respondents indicated that primary and 2nd cycle secondary schools are not near students' home or village. Therefore the long distance girls often have to travel to get school is also a deterrent to their participation and achievement in school, particularly in rural areas. This goes in conformity with the result obtained by David (1993), World Bank (1991), and Kane (2004). The negative effects of long distance between

home and school on the participation of girls in education are indicated in Table 15.

Table 15:

The Effects of Long Distance Between Home and School on the Participation of Girls in Education.

Item	Response	No .of response	Perce ntage
If your response to question [in table 14] is “No” what are the effects of long distance between home and school on the participation of girls in education?	a. Because of their parents’ poverty they face shortage of money to pay for food and house rent.	154	62.86
	b. Because of fear of parents missing their daughters.	26	10.61
	c. Because parent’s are unwilling to send their daughters to distant schools.	65	26.53
	d. Different from the above	-	-
	Total	245	100.00

As indicated in Table15 the respondents were asked the reasons that may make female students unable to attend distant school. Accordingly, 154 (62.86%) respondents responded that parents’ poverty is the first reason. Sixty-five (26.53%) indicated that parents’ unwillingness to send their daughters to distant school, and only 26 (10.61%) considered parents fear of missing their daughters to be another reason. At focused group discussion with females students' parents indicated that the reasons to hold back their daughters from school were expressed to be that girls are weaker than boys and unable to walk long distance, fear of forced male harassment during the long travel to school because the research area was hilly or up and down sided topography and

forest converge, fear of HIV/ AIDS and lack of money to afford their house rent and food supply cost. In general parents worry about their daughters' safety. This reveals that parents' poverty and long distance of schools are the major problems that make female students not attend in distance schools. So the distance of school inversely related to girls schooling, that is the shorter the distance to schools, the greater the likelihood that girls will attend.

The promotion of female teacher has been recommended as a strategy to encourage girls' education. The advantage of this is that apart from providing positive role models to young girls, particularly in rural areas, parents feel at ease about their daughters' safety by the presence of female teachers. Thus the presence of more female teachers in schools has positive effect on female participation in education. Table 16 presents respondents' opinion concerning the presence of more female teachers in schools.

Table 16:

Effect of Presence of More Female Teachers in School on Female Students Education.

Item	Response	No. of respondents	Percentage
Do you think that the presence of more female teachers in schools have positive effect on female students education?	a. Yes	209	85.31
	b. No	11	4.49
	C.I am not certain	25	10.20
	Total	245	100.00

As can be seen from the Table 16 above, 209 or 85.31 percent of the respondents replied that the presence of more female teachers in school has a positive effect on female student participation in education. On the other hand, 25 or 10.20 percent replied that they are not certain of the positive effect of the

presence of female teachers on female students' education. The rest (11 or 4.49 percent) replied that the presence of more female teachers does not have a positive effect. From this, one can deduce that the presence of female teacher encourages the participation of female students in education. Looking at enrollments, the ratio of female teachers and students in teachers training institutions and colleges of teacher education in the country is necessary. Table 17 presents enrollment and the number of teacher in teachers training institutions.

Table 17:

Enrollment and Teachers in Teacher Training Institutions (1996 E.C)

No	Name of the institution	Enrollment	Teachers
1	Gambella	290	49
2	Assela	630	27
3	Gonder	159	20
4	Adwa	1,492	22
5	Arba Minch	662	47
6	Bonga	526	20
7	Debre Birhan	338	31
8	Dessie	326	48
9	Harar	271**	16
10	Metu	556	20
	Total	5,250	300
	Females	2,607	14
	Female Ratio (%)	49.66	4.67

- Regular program (10+1); ** Gonder & Harar data are of 1995 E.C

Source: EMIS-MOE (2005). P.125

As indicated in Table 17, the ratio of females' teacher trainees was 49.66 percent. This shows us that the new educational and training policy takes affirmative action to increase the number of female teachers in primary schools. For future the number of female teacher will increase but now in many remotest rural areas the number of female teachers is very few. This will affect the participation of females in education. The ratio of female teachers in teacher training institution is 4.67%. This ratio also discourages the moral of female

trainees. What role models do they set to female students? Table 18 presents the enrollment and number of teacher in the colleges of teacher education at national level.

Table 18:

Enrollment and Teachers in the Colleges of Teacher Education (1996 E.C)*

No	Institution's Name	Enrollment	Teachers
1	Abbi Addi	684	44
2	Mekele	1,111	42
3	Gambella	88	49
4	Gonder	710	42
5	Kotebe	481	88
6	Hossana	602	32
7	Awassa	1,016	62
8	Dessie	484	48
9	Adama	1,733	66
10	Jimma	1,764	71
11	Nekemte	1,187	60
12	Robe	1,111	65
	Total	10,971	669
	Females	4,294	46
	F. Ratio (%)	39.14	6.88

Regular program (10+3); Abbi Addi teachers' data is of 1995 E.C

Source: EMIS- MOE (2005). p. 125

As indicated in Table 18, the ratio of females' enrollment in the colleges of teachers' education was 39.14%. It is known that, according to the new education and training policy, the graduates of teacher colleges are assigned to teach primary 2nd cycle and secondary 1st cycle. As we review the previous trends of female teachers in primary 2nd cycle and secondary school, they are very few in number. The ratio of female students in the above table is also less than that of males. Table 19 presents female teacher ratio of SNNPR.

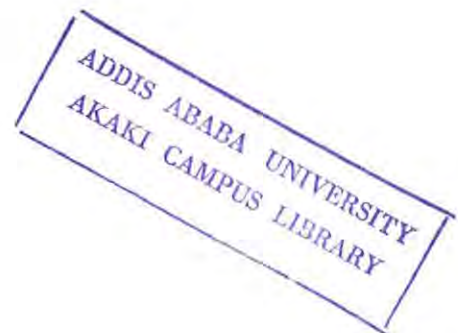


Table 19**Female Teacher Ratio of SNNPR 2003/04**

No	Zone	Grade 1-8				Grade 9-10			
		Male	Female	Total	% F	Male	Female	Total	%F
1	Guraghe	1966	877	2843	30.8	191	17	208	8.2
2	Hadiya	2124	669	2793	24	232	17	249	6.8
3	Kamibata Tamibaro	1886	502	2388	21	154	23	177	13
4	Yem special	244	65	309	21	17	1	18	5.6
5	Burji special	152	52	204	25	17	1	18	5.6
6	Gediyo	1307	394	1701	23.2	104	7	111	6.3
7	Amaro special	284	118	402	29.4	21	1	22	4.5
8	Sidama	3698	1172	4870	24.1	256	26	282	9.2
9	Konso special	348	127	475	26.7	38	1	39	2.6
10	Gamo Gofa	2128	800	2928	27.3	223	17	240	7.1
11	Bench Majj	915	437	1352	32.3	48	4	52	7.7
12	Kefa	1559	625	2184	28.6	65	1	66	1.5
13	Sheka	637	241	878	27.4	40	1	41	2.4
14	Debub Omo	678	336	1014	33.1	23	-	23	0
15	Wolayta	2496	544	3040	17.9	221	15	236	6.4
16	Derashie special	322	100	422	23.7	29	1	30	3
17	Dawuro	627	168	795	21.1	60	1	61	1.6
18	Basketo	82	37	119	31.1	11	1	12	8.3
19	Konta special	155	33	188	17.6	6	1	7	14.3
20	Silte	889	277	1166	23.8	55	7	62	11.3
21	Alaba special	275	111	386	28.8	25	2	27	7.4
22	Awassa Town Administration	529	244	673	36.3	139	25	164	15.2
	Total	23201	7929	31130	25.5	1975	170	2145	7.9

Source: SNNPREB (2003/4) PP 28-30.

As indicated in Table 19, the number of female teachers in SNNPR is less than that of male teachers. The ratio of female teachers was 25.5 and 7.9% for primary and secondary schools respectively. The number of female teachers in primary schools is relatively higher than that of secondary school in south.

The proportion of pupils who leave the school varies from grade to grade. Dropout, leaving a school before completing a particular cycle or level of education is also wastage of resources. Table 21 presents the opinion of the teachers, principals and female students regarding students' dropout.

Table 21

Students Dropout Rate

Item	Responses	No. of response	Percentage
Whose dropout seems higher to you?	Male	78	31.84
	Female	141	57.55
	I don't know	26	10.61
	Total	245	100

As can be seen from Table 21, 141 or 57.55 percent of the respondents affirmed that the dropout rate of females is higher. These evidences show that dropping out has negative impact on females' participation and their persistence through out educational level. This goes in conformity with the result obtained by King and Hill (1993), World Bank (1991), and PHRD (1996). Besides, in the same table 78 or 31.84 percent responded that male drop out is higher.

When we compare females persistence rate in educational level, 73.88 of the teachers principals and female students indicated that most females' complete primary first cycle (1-4) grades (Table 22).

Table 22: The Level of Education that Most Female Complete

Item	Responses	No. of responses	Percentage
Which level of education do most females complete?	A. 1-4 grades	181	73.88
	B. 5-8 grade	60	24.49
	C. 9-10 grade	4	1.63
	D. 11-12 grade	-	-
	Total	245	100

This may indicate that most of females dropout from school before they join primary second cycle and secondary schools. As was indicated in Table 10, less females promotion and low persistent rate of female in education levels can result in low female participation in primary 2nd cycle and secondary schools.

Most literature suggest that teachers' attitudes, behavior and teaching practices and special supports have perhaps the most significant implications for females' persistence, achievement, and participation in education. Table 23 presents concerning teachers' special support to female students.

Table 23

Level of Teachers' Provision of Support to Female Students

Item	Response	Number of responses	Percentage
At your school especial support teachers give to female students is	A. High	148	60.41
	B. Medium	82	33.47
	C. Low	15	6.12
	Total	245	100

As indicated in Table 23, when asked how much especial support teachers give to female students 148 or 60.41 percent of the respondents indicated that teachers give high support to female students. During focus

group discussion with female students' parents, they affirmed that school principals and teachers give special support to their daughters' education. Especial supports include tutorial class and discussion with parents about the importance of girls' education. This may go against the result obtained by Odaga and Heneveld (1995), and UNESCO (2003). Eighty-two or 33.47 percent of respondents responded that teachers give medium support to female students, and only 15 or 6.12 percent responded that teachers give low support to female students.

According to the new education and training policy, the Ethiopian education system can be divided in to 1st cycle primary, 2nd cycle primary, 1st cycle secondary and 2nd cycle secondary or preparatory class; 4,4,2,2. To implement this policy, in the research woreda, some primary 2nd cycle school grades were downgraded from 1-6 to 1-4 and others were upgraded to 1-8. In Tocha woreda 8 primary 1-6 schools were downgraded to 1-4 grades. This may affect female's participation in education. Table 24 presents the effects of downgrading from 1-6 grads to 1-4 grades on females' participation in education.

Table 24:
The Effect of Downgrading of Grade 1-6 Grades to 1-4 Grades on Females' Participation in Education.

Item	Responses	Number of responses	Percentage
According to new education and training policy, some primary schools are down graded from grade 1-6 to 1-4. Did it affect females' participation in education?	A. Yes	226	92.2
	B. No	18	7.3
	C. I am not certain	1	0.4
	Total	245	100

As indicated in table 24, 226 or 92.2 percent of the teachers, principals and female students responded that the downgrading of some primary school grades from grade 1-6 to 1-4 negatively affect females participation in education. The reason is connected with distance of complete primary school; in that the parents can't afford school cost such as house rent and food supply cost. Female students' parents also affirmed that their daughters or girls are not mature to travel long desistance to get complete primary schools. The topography of the research area is bad to walk because there are mountains and hills. The population in the woreda is sparsely populated with a scattered settlement. In general the closing of 5th and 6th grades in some schools can affect females' participation in education.

The presentation of gender bias in textbooks and instructional materials can also have a negative impact, perpetuating gender stereotypes concerning behavior, roles and occupation. Table 25 presents gender bias in textbooks and teaching materials.

Table 25: Perceptions Regarding Textbooks and Teaching Material Gender Bias

No	Item	Responses	No. of Responses	Percent age
1	Do you think that expression and examples found in many textbooks and teaching materials represent male and female characters equally?	a. Yes b. No c. I am not certain Total	56 187 2 245	22.86 76.33 0.81 100.00
2	If your response to question No. 1 is "No", among the following, by which one can it be described?	A. Males are active and strong whereas females are passive and weak B. In given examples males are more frequently mentioned than females Total	153 34 187	81.82 18.18 100

In Table 25, the majority that is 187 or 76.33 percent of the teachers, principals and female students replied that the expressions and examples found in many textbooks and teaching materials do not represent males and females equally. They are more inclined towards males. Besides, in the same table, 153 or 81.82 percent responded that textbooks and teaching materials represent males as active and strong, while females are depicted as passive and weak and ones guided by males. Again 34 or 18.18 percent responded that in textbooks and teaching materials, the examples given are most of the time males than females (be it human beings or animals). This shows that textbooks and teaching materials demonstrate gender biases that discourage girls from thinking of themselves as good student as boys. This result seems to substantiate the fact that textbooks and teaching materials have pronouns of sex bias UNESCO (2003), World Bank (1991) Kalia and (1982). This can negativity affects the participation of females in education.

Several political and institutional factors also constrain female participation in education. The political will to tackle the problems of non-participation and non-enrollment of girls is a key factor in improving educational out comes of all children, and especially for girls' participation in education. Table 26 present respondents' view regarding effort of political and administrative bodies to increase females' participation in education.

Table 26:

Opinions Regarding the Efforts to Increase Females' Participation in Education.

Item	Responses	No. of Responses	Percentage
The effort of political and administrative bodies, especially woman's affairs office, to increase females' participation in education is	A. High	49	20
	B. Medium	41	16.73
	C. Low	155	63.27
	Total	245	100

As indicated in Table 26, the majority that is 155 or 63.27 percent of the teachers, principals and female teachers replied that the effort of political and administrative bodies, especially women affairs, to increase females' participation in education is low. Most of female students' parents affirmed that woreda government bodies do not discuss their daughters' educations except the school principals and teachers. In the research area, in Aba complete primary school, three girls were married by abduction or "telefa" in 2003/04 academic year. The government bodies did not take measures on those abductors. This shows that political, administration and women's affair's contribution in females' participation in education is low. So political will and recognition of the importance of education for all girls, remains a key factor in boosting female enrollment.

Parents' religion is one of the factors, which affect females' school entrance. Table 27 presents effect of parents' religion on daughters schooling.

Table 27

Opinions on the Effect of Parents' Religion on Daughters' Schooling.

Item	Responses	No. of responses	Percentage
Does parents' religion affect daughter's schooling?	a. Yes	174	71.1
	b. No	67	27.3
	c. I am not certain	4	1.6
	Total	245	100

Concerning the effects of parents' religion on daughter schooling in Table 27, 174 or 71.1 percent of the participants responded that parents' religion affects female participation in education. This may support the view that religion is a determinant of females' participation in education as indicated by Hyde (1989), Kasaju and Mandhar (1985), and Bowman and Anderson (1982).

As can be seen in Table 27, 67 or 27.3 percent of the respondents believed that parents' religion does not affect daughters' schooling. The type of parents' religion, which affects females' education, is indicated in Table 28.

Table 28

Type of Parents' Religion, Which Affect Daughters' Education

Item	Responses	No. of responses	Percentage
The daughters of which religion followers participated less in education?	A. Orthodox church	5	2.9
	B. Muslim religion	2	1.2
	C. Protestant religion	6	3.4
	D. Traditional beliefs	161	92.5
	Total	174	100

As indicated in Table 28 regarding the type of religion the followers of which have lower participation of girls in education, the majority, i.e., 161 or 92.5 percentage of the respondents replied that it is among traditional belief followers. This shows that the area that the study covered was previously dominated by traditional belief like "kalicha" (كاليتا). Most followers of "kalicha" do not send their daughters to schools. Kalicha encourages early marriage, and discourages female education. They believe that the duty of female is to get married and give birth. So we can see that socio-cultural customs and belief highly influenced girls' enrollment in education.

Early marriage is used as a means of securing daughter's futures. This massively impedes the educational progress of girls. Table 29 presents respondents' view regarding the effect of early marriage on females' schooling.

Table 29**Opinions on the Effect of Early Marriage on the Participation of Females in Education**

Item	Responses	No. of respondents	Percentage
Does early marriage hamper females' schooling?	a. Yes	245	100
	b. No	-	-
	c. I am not certain	-	-
	Total	245	100

As can be seen from Table 29, 100 percent of the respondents affirmed that early marriage prohibited females' participation in education. This confirms the finding that early marriage retards the participation of female in education (UNESCO 2003, Almaz 1991, Hyda 1993, Bowman and Anderson 1982).

Concerning the age at which most females get married, in the research area, the majority i.e. 198 or 80.8 percent of the respondents said that female get married at 15-18 years of age. Table 30 presents the age at which most females get married at the research area.

Table 30**The Age at Which Most Females Get Married**

Item	Age	No of Respondents	Percentage
From your experiences and observation, at which age do most female get engaged in marriage?	10-12	6	2.4
	13-14	32	13.1
	15-18	198	80.8
	12-20	9	3.7
	Above 20	-	-
	Total	245	100

The ages of 15-18 years, when most girl children get married, is the time when girls are supposed to be enrolled in primary and secondary schools. In such circumstances there is no doubt that the participation of females would be lower at these levels of education.

In general, the differences in the participation of females in the various levels of education could be explained by the availability of schools, low pass rates, high dropout rate and early marriage. Table 31 presents Judgment of the respondents concerning parents' attitude towards daughters' education

Table 31: Parent's Attitude Towards Females' Education

Item	Parents do not want to educate daughters	Responses and%							
		Agree		Uncertain		Disagree		Total	
1	Because of marriage educated females become part of another family	137	55.92	26	10.61	82	33.47	245	100
2	Because parents worry their daughters may get to unwanted pregnancy before completing their schooling	128	52.24	17	6.94	100	40.82	245	100
3	Because families believe that women's natural duty is getting married and producing children	127	51.84	25	10.20	93	37.96	245	100
4	Because families demand for daughters labor	139	56.73	15	6.12	91	37.14	245	100
5	Because of the unwillingness to send their daughters far away from them	144	58.76	21	8.58	80	32.65	245	100
6	Because most parents have poor knowledge of the benefits of educating their daughters	157	64.08	19	7.76	69	28.16	245	100
7	Because parents' education promotes daughters schooling	223	91.02	5	2.04	17	6.94	245	100
8	Because mothers' education has stronger effect on their daughters' schooling than fathers'	226	92.24	8	3.27	11	4.49	245	100

As shown in Table 31, for item 1, 137 or 55.92 percent of respondents agreed that parents do not want to educate their daughters, because, due to marriage, educated females become part of another family. These ideas go with Canway and Boesqu (1993), and Alemtshaie (1987) that the major barrier for females' education was traditional views, which reflects that girls have to be placed in the home. During focus group discussion some female students' parents said "we don't want to educate our daughters equal with male. We give priority to our sons". They reason out that investment in females' education was wastage because of the marriage. This attitude can affect the participation of females in education. On the other hand, 82 or 33.47 percent of the respondents disagreed and 26 or 10.61 percent were uncertain about for not educating their daughters.

For item 2, 137 or 55.92 percent of the respondents agreed that, parents do not want to educate daughters because parents worry that their daughters may get in to unwanted pregnancy before completing their schooling. In focus group discussion too, most of female students' parents affirmed that they worry about unwanted pregnancy, spread of HIV AIDS, abduction or (telefa), and sexual harassment that their daughters may face. This result seems to substantiate the fact that fear of pregnancy is another reason why parents remove their daughters from school as they approach or reach puberty (Odaga and Heneveld 1995). In this study, 100 or 40.82 percent of the respondents disagreed, and 17 or 6.94 percent were uncertain to the above attitude.

As indicated in Table 31 for item 3, 127 or 51.84 percent of the respondents agreed that parents do not want to educate daughters because they believe that women's natural duty is getting married and give birth. In focus group discussion also some parents, especially mothers affirmed that they could prepare their daughters to get married. They reported teaching them how to perform household activities which would be useful when they get

marriage rather than sending them to formal education. Marriage is one of the reasons for girls to leave schools. This goes with the argument that the only acceptable role of females is to be wives and mothers (Assefa 1991 Boya 1996). However 93 or 37.96 percent of the respondents disagreed and 25 or 10.20 percent were uncertain to the parents' attitude.

Parental need for females' labor contributions is one of the major reasons for low participation of females in education. According to this, in Table 31 item 4, 139 or 56.73 percent of the respondents agreed that parents do not want to educate daughters because of their demand for daughters' labor. In the focus group discussion female students' parents affirmed that their demand for daughters' labor is higher than for males' labor. The daughters perform house hold activities such as preparing food, collecting fire wood, fetching water, boiling coffee, preparing "areke" or "tella" to sell after school. This goes in conformity with the result obtained by (World Bank 1991, UNISCO 2003, Kane 2004), and other researchers who have the opinion those low-income parents want their daughters' labor more than high-income parents. Hence, few female students from poor families participate in education. In general the labor demand of parents can affect females' participation in education. In the same table 91 or 37.14 percent of the respondents disagreed and 15 or 6.12 percent were uncertain about the attitude.

As indicated in Table 31, item 5, 144 or 56.73 percent of the respondents agreed that parents do not want to educate daughters, because of the unwillingness to send their daughters far away from them. In focus group discussion female students' parents also agreed that they do not want to send their daughters far away from them because they fear of abduction or "telefa", unwanted pregnancy, the spread of HIV/ AIDS and sexual harassment during travel to school and the stay in far or distant schools. Most of the girls that live far away from schools and who walk long distance only discouraged from schooling because their parents are worried about their daughters' security on

travel to and from schools. So parents' unwillingness to send their daughter far away from them was one of the factors that affect females' participation in education. 80 or 32.65 percent of the respondents disagreed and 25 or 10.20 were uncertain about the attitudes.

Cultural considerations vary widely among and within countries and it differs in parental education level and have affected females' school enrollment. As we can see in Table 31, item 6, 157 or 64.08 percent of the respondents agreed that parents do not want to educate daughters because most parents have poor knowledge of the benefits of educating their daughters. This view goes with the argument that parents find it hard to understand the benefits of education when curricula are irrelevant to the mother wife role or contradicts the value they want to teach their daughters (King 1991). On the other hand 69 or 28.16 percent of the respondents disagreed and 19 or 7.76 percent were uncertain about the attitude.

Evidences indicate that parents' illiteracy negatively affects the participation of female in education, while parents' literacy promotes their daughters schooling. According to this view, in Table 31, item 7, 223 or 91.02 percent of the respondents agreed that parents' education promotes daughters' schooling. This goes with the argument that the more education parent has the more they value formal education for their daughters' (Hill and King 1993). The result of study by Bowman and Anderson (1982) indicates that daughters of illiterate parents have less opportunity to go to school. According to this view providing literacy education for parents seems to have valuable contribution in an effort to increase females' participation in education.

The educational background of parents, especially of mothers has a bearing on the academic achievement and participation of female student. Regarding this as indicted in Table 31, item eight, 226 or 92.24 percent of the respondents agreed that the mothers' education has stronger effect on their

daughters' schooling than that of the fathers'. This goes in conformity with the result obtained by Hill and King (1993), and Hyde (1993) that educated females are more likely to send their girls as well as boys to school and to keep them there longer than households headed by uneducated females or male. This suggests that mothers' education has key influence on the participation of daughters in schooling.

A question was posed regarding the measures they think promote females' participation in education? It was mentioned by the respondents that measures such as giving more job opportunities for females than males (188), preventing early marriage (168), making parents aware of the importance of females education (156), constructing living house and subsidizing their food supply cost for those who come from distant places (146), and increasing the number of female teachers in schools (141) would promote females' participation in education. This study affirms that socio- economic factors, cultural factors, school environment related factors and factors mentioned above appear to be serious factors to that affect females' participation in education.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. Summary, Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1 Summary and Conclusion

The study was intended to examine the extent of females' participation in education and factors affecting females' participation in education in Tocha woreda, primary second cycle and first cycle secondary schools. In order to achieve the purpose of this study, basic questions were raised regarding the factors affecting females' participation in education and the relationship between females' participation and overall educational participation rate. Questions were also raised as to what the major causes for low females' participation in education were.

Documents of the Ministry of Education, SNNPREB and Central Statistics Authority were consulted to gather information on the number of female students enrolled at national, regional, zonal and woreda levels, and the number of school age population. In addition to this, questionnaires were distributed to 209 female students, 26 teachers, school principals and 10 female teachers. Furthermore, 8 focused group discussions were held with 56 female students' parents at four complete primary schools, two for each, and 1 focused group discussion with 6 woreda educational office officials to gather information on factors contributing to low female participation in education.

The data obtained were analyzed using percentage and ratio as statistical tool. Thus the analysis made warrant the following major findings and conclusions

1. Many teachers who are teaching in Tocha woreda second cycle primary and first cycle secondary school are under qualified. This contradicts with new educational and training policy, which proposes for 2nd cycle primary

school diploma holders and for 1st cycle secondary schools degree holders.

2. Most female students are over aged or in adolescence period in which they face a lot of emotional problems and most of them have uneducated parents.
3. The regions, zones and woredas that have female participation rate higher than the average of national female participation rate have also the over all educational participation rate higher than the national ratio and they might not have a problem in achieving the Millennium Development Goal 3: Target 4. On the other hand, the regions, zones and woredas, which have lower female participation rate than the national female participation average, have the overall educational participation rate lower than the national ratio. These are the regions, zones and woredas that would probably have a problem in achieving the Millennium Development Goal 3: Target 4.
4. The participation rate of female was higher at the primary 1st cycle than at primary 2nd cycle and secondary levels of education. In other words, the participation of females in education decreases as the level of education advances from lower to higher levels. The variation in the participation of females between primary 1st cycle and 2nd cycle primary and secondary level of education is due to the fact that there are more primary 1st cycle schools than primary 2nd cycle and secondary schools.
5. The enrollment ratio of female student is two times less than that of male students, and females are more susceptible to repetition.
6. The direct schooling cost of parents to their daughters such as the living house rent and food supply cost are the major hindrances to female

students' participation in 2nd cycle primary and secondary schools of Tocha woreda. This is because in Tocha woreda there are 29 kebeles, but there are only four complete primary schools and one first cycle secondary school. For those who came from other kebeles to get 2nd cycle primary school and secondary schools, their parents must pay living house rent and food supply cost.

7. The causes of female child labor are multidimensional. Female child labor is the cumulative effect of economic, social, political factors as well as school related factors. Female child labor is also closely associated with low income and their parents' illiteracy. All of them have implications on female students' dropout, repetition and low performance and achievement in education.
8. The problems female students encounter in school environment includes long distances from home to school and back home. The cost of food and living house rent, lack of role model female teachers, the closing down of 5th and 6th grades in some primary schools, and the inclusion of examples in text books (contents and pictures) that demonstrate low status to females were reported to be factors affecting female students' participation in primary 2nd cycle and secondary school of Tocha woreda.
9. Abduction or "telefa", early marriage and parents' type of religion, especially traditional belief were reported as contributors to the low female students' participation in primary 2nd cycle and secondary schools of Tocha woreda.
10. Parents' attitude has an impact on participation of females in education. A large number of parents believe that women's natural duty is getting married and give birth. Parents also worry that their daughters may get in to unwanted pregnancy before completing their schooling. On

the other hand, poor knowledge of the benefits of educating their children and parents' illiteracy were reported to be the main reasons for the low female participation in education. Furthermore, a great majority of the respondents have supported the view that parents' literacy promotes their daughters' schooling.

11. Finally, the home related factors that affect female students' education are domestic chores, lack of study time, and low living standards of their parents. It seems that all the factors indicated as socio-economic, socio-cultural and school environment problems were the critical factors that hindered female students' participation in 2nd cycle and 1st cycle primary and secondary schools of Tocha woreda.

5.2. Recommendations

Based on the major findings and conclusions the following recommendations are suggested.

1. To increase the number of qualified teachers in Tocha woreda, the education office in collaboration with the Dawuro Education Department and SNNPR Education Bureau should recruit more qualified teachers. In addition, it is essential to give more in service training opportunities for under qualified teachers and give some incentives for qualified teachers to be motivate and to work longer time in the woreda.
2. In order to make the society and parents aware of the benefit of educating females, it is good to conduct workshops and seminars with parents, religious leaders in the woreda at Kebele level. It is also important to broadcast through mass media the problem of female students and their solutions adequately. So that girls can aspire for and work toward continuing their education and benefit from their education.
3. The major factor in influencing the achievement of the enrollment target described in Millennium Development Goal 3: Target 4, as mentioned above, is female participation in education. Thus, in a country like Ethiopia with growing school age population and a large number of children still out of school, maximum attention should be paid to females' school enrollment. In other words, emphasis to female enrolment is necessary not only to ensure the educational opportunities but also to promote the achievement of the enrolment target described in MDGs. In view of this, it seems helpful to set clearly the proportion of females that should be enrolled, while making general guidelines for enrollment.



4. The observed percentage of females' participation in primary 2nd cycle and secondary level of education is very low. This low female participation rate at the mention levels will set the stage for low female participation at the tertiary level. This will, in turn, pave the way for low female participation in the labor force of modern sectors and high status occupation. In order to stop this problem and to find a means that helps to get ride of the causes for low female participation at primary 2nd cycle and secondary schools, policy makers and concerned bodies should take measures to reverse the problem. To reduce the long distance to schools and the problem of living house rent and food supply cost for female students building 2nd cycle primary and secondary schools at reasonable distances or bringing girls to a place where the schools are available is crucial. In addition, preparing project proposals and finding funding agencies to build boarding houses near primary 2nd cycle and secondary schools would be highly beneficial.
5. Income generating activities are the best means of combating child labor in general and female child labor in particular. Schemes like revolving funds and credit facilities based on feasibility studies should be arranged for targeted groups. Diversification of the economy is also another way of increasing income at least for self-sustainces of the household. Providing grinding mills in rural areas, making mechanisms or simplest ways of preparing Ensent for food, improving home technologies and other possible means of intervention are necessary to minimize the incidence of female child labor exploitation as main factor affecting females' participation in education.
6. In order to reduce school environment related problems of female students, there should be an effort to increase role model female teachers, recruit more female teachers, give more in-service training opportunities for under qualified female teachers, and up grading the

schools which were degraded to 1st_4th grades. Besides teachers, school principals, concerned government' bodies should offer especial support to female students to reduce dropout rates. The schools must also review repetition and expulsion policies, improve achievements, and review learning materials for gender bias. Furthermore, educational managers should be given gender sensitivity training and workshops.

7. In the study area, Tocha woreda, in Aba complete primary school, abduction (telefa) was indicated to be the major problem to females' participation in education. So the woreda administration, women' affaires office and police office, in collaboration with kebele administration should take serious measures on abduction and early marriages.

8. Finally, to increase the participation of females in education the following additional measures are important: Supporting positive policies and public expenditure programs, eliminating forms of discrimination that restricts girls' attendance, providing informal or alternative forms of education. On top of these, subsidizing uniforms, dropping uniform requirement, alleviating poverty, providing school feeding programs, subsidizing school materials, improving home technologies, ensuring equal division of labor for both sexes, providing family planning education services, reducing hidden cost and girls' dependence on males for money, and involving parents in school administration will help for the increment of females' participation in education.

REFERENCES

- Assefa Beyene (1991), *Female Participation and Performance in Rural Primary Schools in Ethiopia*: Addis Ababa: UNICEF/ SIDA
- Alemsehai Zeleke (1985), *A Critical Analysis of the Problems of Women's Education in Ethiopia*, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for obtaining the degree of master of art in development studies, Iss The Hague
- Almaz Zewdie (1991), "Women in Primary and Secondary Education" *Gender Issues in Ethiopia*. Addis Ababa: Institute of Ethiopian studies AAU
- Befekadu Zeleke (1998), Promoting Girls Basic Education in Rural Areas of Oromiya; Quality of Education in Ethiopia : Visions for the 21st Century, Institute of Educational Research, Addis Ababa University.
- Bouga, Alponsine (1996), Obstacles to Women's Intellectual Development: Stereotypes of Sexual Discrimination, *UNESCO-Africa Six Monthly Journal* No. 13, Dakar Regional Office.
- Barbara, Herz K. Subbarao, Massoma, Habib and Laura Raney (1991), *Letting Girls Learn Promising Approach in Primary and Secondary Education*, World Bank, Washington D.C.
- Bowman, M.J. and Anderson, C.A. (1982). The Participation of Women in Education in Third World; *Women's Education in the Third World: comparative perspectives*. Ny: State University of New York.
- CSA (2004), Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia Central Statistical Authority Statistical Abstract (2003)
- _____ (1996), *The 1994 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia Results for Southern Nations Nationalities and Peoples Region, Volume 1, Part, 1* Addis Ababa: CSA

- Conway, J. K. and Bourque C. S. (1993), *The politics of women's education Perspectives form Asia, Africa and Latin America* University of Michigan USA.
- David, Miriam (1993), *Parents, Gender and Educational Reform*, Cambridge.
- Dejnozka, E (1984), *Educational Administration Glossary*. London: Green wood Press.
- Federal Negaret Gazeta, (1995), *the constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia*, Addis Ababa.
- Good, C.V. (1973), *Dictionary of Education*. New York. Mac Graw Hill Book Company.
- Genet Zewdie, (1998), *women in Education: A study of the Academic performance and participation of female students in the high schools of Addis Ababa region* IER FLAMBEAU volume 6 number 1.
- Hyde K.A.L (1989), *Improving women's education in sub- Saharan Africa* A review of the literature Washington D.C. The World Bank.
- _____ (1993), *Sub -Sahara Africa Women's education in developing Countries Barriers, Benefits and policies* world Bank Washington D.C.
- King, Elizabeth M. and Aunne, Hill (1993), *Women's Education in Developing Countries: An Overview, Women Education in Developing Countries Benefits and Policies*, World Bank, Washington D.C.
- Kalia, Narendara Nath (1982), *Images of Men and Women: in Indian Books, Woman's Education in the Third World: Comparative perspectives*, State University of New York, USA.
- Kasaju, prens and T.B. Mandhar (1985), "Impacts of parents literacy an school enrolment and retention of children the case of Nepal". *Issues in planning and implementing national literacy programes* Parise UNESCO.

- King, E. M (1991), *Educating Girls and women investing in Development* World Bank Washington D.C.
- Kane, E. (2004), *Girls' Education in Africa Region Human Development Sectors*. The World Bank, Washington D.C.
- Kelly, P.G. and Elliott, M. (1982), *Orientation to wards the study of and Women's Educations in the third world comparative perspectives*, state University of New York.
- Konjit, K. (1995), *Female Education in Ethiopia past and present trends an overview* CERTWID /IDR, Addis Ababa. (Unpublished).
- Junge, Barbara and Mekelich Giodey (1998), *Gender Role Models Quality of Education in Ethiopia: Vision for the 21st Century*, Institute of Educational Research, Addis Ababa University.
- MOE (2005), *Education statistics Annual Abstract 1995 E.C./2003/04/* Addis, Ababa, EMIS- MOE.
- _____ (1994), *Transitional, Government of Ethiopia Education and Training policy of Ethiopia*, Addis Ababa EMPDA.
- MEDaC/WAO (2001), *Gender perspective Guide line/checklist for Program/project planning in Ethiopia* Addis Ababa.
- Odaga, Adhiambo and Heneveld, Ward, (1995), *Girls and schools in Sub Saharan Africa: from Analysis to Action*, World Bank Washington D.C.
- Page, G Terry and J, B Thomas (1977), *International Dictionary of Education* Kogan Page London.
- PDHRE (2004), *Women and education file://A/PDHRE %20 women %20 and %20 Education htm*, the People's movement for human right's Education, New York..
- PHRD (1996), *Ethiopia Social sector studies Education Sector REVIEW policy and Human Resources Development project* Addis Ababa.
- Schaffner, A.J. (2004), *The Determinants of schooling investment among primary school Aged children in Ethiopia Human Development sector Africa Region*. The World Bank. Washington D.C.

- SNNPREB (2005), *Education Statistics Annual Abstract 1996 E.C.*
(2003/04) SNNPR Education Bureau Awassa.
- Seyoum, T. (1996), Attempts at Educational Reform in Ethiopia a Top-Down or a bottom-up Reform? *Ethiopia Journal of education* Volume XVI, Number 1, 1-37.
- _____ (1986), The Education of Women In Ethiopia a Missing Piece in the Development Puzzle, *Ethiopia Journal of Education* , Volume 10 No.1.
- SEPDA (1998), South Ethiopia Peoples Development Association, Special Fund Raising Programme Brusher.
- SNNPRS (2001), The Revised Constitution of The Southern, Nations, Nationalists and Peoples' Regional State.
- Tiker, I. And Baramsen, B.M. (1976), *Women and world development overseas Development council.*
- TAMRA TSEGA (2001), South Nations Nationalities And Peoples Region Investment Bureau, No.4.
- World Bank (1990), *Primary Education: A World Bank Policy Paper*, Washington D.C: The World Bank.
- _____ (1991), *Women in Development:: A Progress Report on the World Bank Initiative.* Washington: The World Bank
- _____ (1998), *Implementing the Ethiopian National Policy for Woman,* Washington D.C.
- _____ (2004), *World Development Report.* Washington: The World Bank
- UNDP (2001), *Human Development Report*, Washington D.C. UMOP.
- UNESCO (2003), *Gender and Education For All the leap to equality EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003/4* France.
- _____ (1983), *Equality of educational opportunity for girls and women* , Paris UNESCO.
- Zanden, J.W.V. (1997), *The Social Experience: An Introduction to Sociology.* Mic Graw-Hill Book Company.

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
POST GRADUATE PROGRAMME**

INSITUTE OF REGIONAL AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

Questionnaire for primary 2nd cycle and 1st cycle secondary school female students of Tocha Woreda.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather information on factors affecting females' participation in education in primary 2nd cycle and secondary 1st cycle schools of Tocha Woreda in Dawuro zone. Thus you are kindly requested to be considerate in answering the questions. Your cooperation in answering the questionnaire is highly appreciated.

Note

- A. Any of your information or suggestions will be kept secrete and used for research purpose only.
- B. Do not write your name on the questionnaire
- C. Give appropriate answer to the following question by writing in space provided by marking "X" in the box.

BACK GRAUND OF FEMALE STUDENTS

1. Give short answers for the following questions

a. Name of your school _____

b. Age

1). 14 Years and below

2). 15_18 year

3). 19_22 years

4). 23 years and above

C. Education level _____

d. Marital status: married single divorced

e. Religion Orthodox Muslim protestant

traditional belief

2. At the place where you live, do boys and girls have equal chance to enter school? A) Yes B) No

3. If your response to question number 2 is "no" who gets more chance?

A) Boys B) Girls

4. Do you think that school costs influence parents' willingness to educate their daughters? A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

5. If your response to question number 4 is "yes" which of the following cost are not affordable for girls who come from poor families

A) House rent and food supply cost

B) Stationery and material cost

C) Books rent

D) Schooling fees

E) Different from above _____

6. From your past experience who was engaged more in house hold chores?

A) Males B) Females

7. If your response for question number 6 was "females" what kind of work were they engaged in?

A) _____

b) _____

c) _____

D) _____

8. Do you think that schools, especially grades 5-8 and 9-10 in your area are located on reasonable distance to all students home?

A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

9) If your response to question number 8 is "No", what are the effects of long distance between home and school on the participation of girls in education?

A) Because of their parents poverty they face shortage of money to pay for food and house rent.

B) Because of fear of parent missing their daughters.

C) Because parents are unwilling to send their daughters to distant schools

D) Different from the above. _____

10) Do you think that the presence of female teachers in schools has positive effect on female student enrollment and achievement?

A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

11) Whose dropout rate is higher for this academic year?

A) Male B) Female C) I do not know

12) Which level of education that most females complete?

A) 1- 4 grades B) 5- 8 grades

C) 9-10 grades D) 11-12 grades

13) Special support teachers give to female students is

A) High B) Medium C) Low

14) Do you think that expressions and examples found in the textbooks and teaching materials represent male and female characters equally?

A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

15) If your response for question number 14 is "No", among the following by which one can it be described?

A) Males are active and strong where as females are passive and week.

B) In given examples males are more frequently mentioned than females

16) According to new education and training policy some primary school are down graded from 1_6 to 1_4, Did this reduces female participation in education? A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

17) The effort of political and administrative bodies especially that of woman's affaires office to increase female participation in education is;

A) High B) Medium C) Low

18 Does parents' religion affect daughters schooling?

A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

19) If your response to question number "18" is "Yes" daughters of which religion followers are affected more?

A) Orthodox Church B) Muslim religion

C) Protestant religion D) Traditional beliefs

20) Does early marriage hamper females schooling in your area?

A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

21) From your experiences and observation, at which age do most female get engaged in marriage?

A) 10 -12 years old

B) 13 -14 years old

C) 15 – 18 years old

D) 19 – 20 years old

E) 20 and above

22. The following statements are expressing parents' attitude that affect female's participation in education. Indicate your opinion on the extent to which these attitudes play a role in your context by making "X" mark corresponding to the following statements.

Attitude of Parents Towards Educating Their Daughter.

Item	Parents do not want to educate daughters	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree
22.1	Because in cause of marriage educated females become part of another family					
22.2	Because they worry that their daughters may get to unwanted pregnancy before completing their schooling					
22.3	Because families believe that women's natural duty is getting married and bearing children					
22.4	Because families demand for daughters labor					
22.5	Because unwillingness to send their daughters far away from them					
22.6	Because most parents have poor knowledge of the benefits of educating their daughters					
22.7	Parents' education promote daughters schooling					
22.8	Mothers education stronger effect on their daughters' schooling than fathers'					

23. Which of the following measures do you think would increase females participation in education.(Making more than one choice is possible)

A) Giving more job opportunities for females than males.

B) Constructing living house and subsidizing their food supply cost for those who come from long distant place.

C) Expanding schools at an average distance.

D) Prohibiting early marriage

E) Increasing number of female teachers in school.

F) Making parents aware of the importance of females' education.

24) If you have additional comments, suggestions and recommendations on females' education you are welcome.

Thank you!

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
POST GRADUATE PRORAME**

INSITUTE OF REGIONAL AND LOCAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

Questionnaire for teachers and school principals.

. The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather information on factors affecting females' participation in education in primary 2nd cycle and secondary 1st cycle schools of Tocha Woreda in Dawuro zone. Thus you are kindly requested to be considerate in answering the questions. Your cooperation in answering the questionnaire is highly appreciated.

Note

- A. Any of your information or suggestions will be kept secrete and used for research purpose only.
- B. Do not write your name on the questionnaire
- C. Give appropriate answer to the following question by writing in space provided by marking "X" in the box.

TEACHERS AND SCHOOL PRINICIPALS BACK GRAUND

a. Name of school _____

b. Sex Male Female

c Education level

1) 12th 2) 12+TTI 3} Diploma 4) degree

d. Your position in school _____

1.1 The following table should be filled only by school principals

Trend of Enrollment Drop out, Promotion and Repetition Of Female Students In Tocha Woreda From 1992-1996 E.C.

E.C Year	Registered		Drop out		Promoted		Repeater	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1992								
1993								
1994								
1995								
1996								
Total								

2. At the place where you live, do boys and girls have equal chance to enter school? A) Yes B) No

3. If your response to question number 2 is "no" who gets more chance?

A) Boys B) Girls

4. Do you think that school costs influence parents' willingness to educate their daughters? A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

5. If your response to question number 4 is "yes" which of the following cost are not affordable for girls who come from poor families

A) House rent and food supply cost

B) Stationery and material cost

C) Books rent

D) Schooling fees

E) Different from above _____

6. From your past experience who was engaged more in house hold chores?

A) Males B) Females

7. If your response for question number 6 was "females" what kind of work were they engaged in?

- A) _____
- b) _____
- c) _____
- D) _____

8. Do you think that schools, especially grades 5-8 and 9-10 in your area are located on reasonable distance to all students home?

- A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

9) If your response to question number 8 is "No", what are the effects of long distance between home and school on the participation of girls in education?

A) Because of their parents poverty they face shortage of money to pay for food and house rent.

B) Because of fear of parent missing their daughters.

C) Because parents are unwilling to send their daughters to distant schools

D) Different from the above. _____

10) Do you think that the presence of female teachers in schools has positive effect on female student enrollment and achievement?

- A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

11) Whose dropout rate is higher for this academic year?

- A) Male B) Female C) I do not know

12) Which level of education that most females complete?

A) 1- 4 grades B) 5- 8 grades

C) 9-10 grades D) 11-12 grades

13) Special support teachers give to female students is

- A) High B) Medium C) Low

14) Do you think that expressions and examples found in the textbooks and teaching materials represent male and female characters equally?

- A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

15) If your response for question number 14 is "No", among the following by which one can it be described?

A) Males are active and strong where as females are passive and week.

B) In given examples males are more frequently mentioned than females

16) According to new education and training policy some primary school are down graded from 1_6 to 1_4, Did this reduces female participation in education? A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

17) The effort of political and administrative bodies especially that of woman's affaires office to increase female participation in education is;

A) High B) Medium C) Low

18 Does parents' religion affect daughters schooling?

A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

19) If your response to question number "18" is "Yes" daughters of which religion followers are affected more?

A) Orthodox Church B) Muslim religion

C) Protestant religion D) Traditional beliefs

20) Does early marriage hamper females schooling in your area?

A) Yes B) No C) I am not certain

21) From your experiences and observation, at which age do most female get engaged in marriage?

A) 10 -12 years old B) 13 -14 years old

C) 15 - 18 years old D) 19 - 20 years old

E) 20 and above



22. The following statements are expressing parents' attitude that affect female's participation in education. Indicate your opinion on the extent to which these attitudes play a role in your context by making "X" mark corresponding to the following statements.

Attitude of Parents Towards Educating Their Daughter.

Item	Parents do not want to educate daughters	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree
22.1	Because in cause of marriage educated females become part of another family					
22.2	Because they worry that their daughters may get to unwanted pregnancy before completing their schooling					
22.3	Because families believe that women's natural duty is getting married and bearing children					
22.4	Because families demand for daughters labor					
22.5	Because unwillingness to send their daughters far away from them					
22.6	Because most parents have poor knowledge of the benefits of educating their daughters					
22.7	Parents' education promote daughters schooling					
22.8	Mothers education stronger effect on their daughters' schooling than fathers'					

23. Which of the following measures do you think would increase females participation in education.(Making more than one choice is possible)

A) Giving more job opportunities for females than males.

B) Constructing living house and subsidizing their food supply cost for those who come from long distant place.

C) Expanding schools at an average distance.

D) Prohibiting early marriage

E) Increasing number of female teachers in school.

F) Making parents aware of the importance of females' education.

24) If you have additional comments, suggestions and recommendations on females' education you are welcome.

Thank you!

1. ከዚህ በታች ሳሉ መረጃዎች መልስሽን ግለጩ?

ሀ. የት/ቤቱ ስም ----- ለ. የክፍል ደረጃሽ -----

ሐ. ዕድሜ 1) ከ14 ዓመት በታች 2) ከ15-18 ዓመት

3) ከ19-22 ዓመት 4) 23 ዓመት በላይ

መ. የጋብቻ ሁኔታ 1) ያገባች 2) ያላገባች 3) የተፋታች

ሠ. ሀይማኖት 1) ኦርቶዶክስ ተዋሕዶ 2) ኦስልምና

3) ፕሮስታንት 4) ባህላዊ እምነት

5. ሌላ ከሆነ ይጻፍ-----

ረ. የወላጆችሽ የትምህርት ሁኔታ 1) አባት የተማረ ያልተማረ

2) እናት የተማረች ያልተማረች

የተማሩ ከሆኑ:- የአባትሽ የክፍል ደረጃ -----

የእናትሽ የክፍል ደረጃ -----

2. አንቺ በምትኖረበት አካባቢ ወንዶችና ሴቶች ልጆች እኩል ት/ቤት የመግባት ዕድል አላቸው?

ሀ. አዎ አላቸው ለ. የላቸውም ሐ. አላውቅም

3. ለ2ኛ ተራ ቁጥር የሰጠሽው ምላሽ የላቸውም ከሆነ ማን የበለጠ ት/ቤት የመግባት ዕድል አለው?

ሀ. ወንዶች ልጆች ለ. ሴቶች ልጆች

4. ለልጆች ትምህርት የሚወጣ ወጪ የወላጆችን ሴት ልጆቻቸውን ት/ቤት የማስገባት ፍላጎት የሚቀንስ ይመስልሻል?

ሀ. አዎ ለ. አይቀንስም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም

5. ለ4ኛ ተራ ቁጥር የሰጠሽው ምላሽ «አዎ» ከሆነ ከሚከተሉት የት/ቤት ወጪዎች የትኛው ወጪ ከድሃ ቤተሰብ ለወጡ ሴት ልጆች አዳጋች ይመስልሻል?

ሀ. ለማደሪያ ቤትና ቀለብ የሚከፈል ወጪ

ለ. ለጽሕፈት መሣሪያዎች ወጪ

ሐ. የመጽሐፍት ዋጋ ወይም ኪራይ

መ. የት/ቤት መዋጮ ወይም ክፍያ

ሠ. የተለየ ካል ይጠቀስ -----

6. ካለሽ ልምድና ዕውቀት አንጻር ከሚከተሉት መካከል በቤት ውስጥ ሥራ ቡዙውን ጊዜ የሚጠመዱት የትኞቹ ናቸው?

ሀ. ወንዶች ለ. ሴቶች



7. ለ6ኛ ተራ ቁጥር የሰጠሽው ምላሽ ሴቶች ከሆነ በይበልጥ ሴቶች የሚያተኩሩት ሥራ የትኞቹ እንደሆኑ በዝርዝር ጥቀሽ?

- ሀ. _____
- ለ. _____
- ሐ. _____
- መ. _____

8. በአካባቢሽ የሚገኙ ት/ቤቶች በተለይም ከ5-8 እና ከ9-10 ያሉ ክፍሎች ለሁሉም ተማሪዎች በአማካይና ከመንደራቸው በማይርቅ ቦታ ላይ ነው የሚገኙት?

- ሀ. አዎ ለ. አይደለም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም

9. ለ8ኛ ተራ ቁጥር የሰጠሽው ምላሽ አይደለም ከሆነ በት/ቤቱ መራቅ ምክንያት ሴት ተማሪዎች ትምህርታቸውን እንዳይከታተሉ ምክንያት ሊሆኑ የሚችሉት?

- ሀ. የወላጆች ደሃ ከመሆን የተነሣ የቤት ኪራይ የቀለብና የሌሎች ነገሮች ወጪ መክፈል ያለመቻል
- ለ. የወላጆች ልጆቻቸው እንዳይጠለፉ መፍራት
- ሐ. ሩቅ ሄደው እንዳይማሩ የወላጆች ፈቃደኛ ያለመሆን
- መ. የተለየ ካል ይጠቀስ _____

10. በት/ቤት የሴት መምህራን ቁጥር መጨመር የሴት ተማሪዎች ቁጥር እንዲጨመር ምክንያት ይሆናል ብለሽ ታምኛለሽ?

- ሀ. አዎ ለ. አይሆንም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም

11. ከትምህርት ቤትሽ በዚህ ዓመት ትምህርት ካቋረጡት ተማሪዎች መካከል የሚበዙት?

- ሀ. ወንዶች ናቸው ለ. ሴቶች ናቸው ሐ. አላውቅም

12. በአንቺ ግምት የትኛውን የትምህርት ደረጃ ወይም ክፍል ነው ብዙ ሴቶች የሚያጠናቅቁት:-

- ሀ. ከ1-4ኛ ክፍል ለ. ከ5-8ኛ ክፍል
- ሐ. ከ9-10ኛ ክፍል መ. ከ11-12ኛ ክፍል

13. መምህራን ለሴት ተማሪዎች የሚሰጡት ድጋፍ ምን ያህል ነው?

- ሀ. ከፍተኛ ለ. መካከለኛ ሐ. ዝቅተኛ

14. በአብዛኛው የትምህርት መጻፍትና የትምህርት መረጃ መሣሪያዎች ውስጥ የሚጠቀሱት አባባሎችና ምሳሌዎች የሴትና የወንድ ያታ እኩልነት ተዋዕኦ በጠበቀ መልኩ ነው?

- ሀ. አዎ ለ. አይደለም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም



-97-

15. ለ14ኛ ተራ ቁጥር የሰጠሽው ምላሽ «አይደለም» ከሆነ ከዚህ በታች የተጠቀሱት በየትኛው የሚገለጽ ነው?

ሀ. ወንዶች ጠንካራና ንቁ ሴቶችን ግን ደካማና በወንዶች ትዕዛዝ ብቻ የሚንቀሳቀሱ አድርጎ የሚያሳይ

ለ. በሚሠጡት ምሳሌዎች ላይ የወንድ እንስሳም ሆነ ሰው የሚበዛ ሲሆን የሴት ግን ያነሰ

ሐ. የተለየ ካለ ይጠቀስ -----

16. በአዲሱ የትምህርት ፖሊሲ መሠረት አንዳንድ ት/ቤቶች ከ1-6 የነበሩ ክፍሎች ወደ 1-4 ክፍሎች ዝቅ ማለት የሴቶች ትምህርት ተሳትፎን?

ሀ. ይቀንሳል ለ. አይቀንስም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም

17. በየመዋቅሩ ያሉት የፖለቲካም ሆነ የመስተዳደር አካላት በተለይ የሴቶች ጉዳይ ጽ/ቤት የሴት ተማሪዎች ቁጥር በት/ቤት እንዲጨምር የሚያደርጉት አስተዋጽኦ እንዴት ነው? ሀ. ከፍተኛ ለ. መካከለኛ ሐ. ዝቅተኛ

18. ወላጆች የሚከተሉት የሃይማኖት ዓይነት በሴቶች ልጆቻቸው ትምህርት ላይ ተፅዕኖ ይኖረዋል ብላሽ ታምኛለሽ?

ሀ. አዎ ለ. የለውም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም

19. ለ18ኛ ተራ ቁጥር የሰጠሽው ምላሽ «አዎ» ከሆነ የየትኛው ሀይማኖት ተከታይ ልጆች ናቸው ብዙውን ጊዜ ት/ቤት የማይገቡት?

ሀ. የአርቶዶክስ ተዋህዶ እምነት ተከታዮች

ለ. የእስልምና ሃይማኖት ተከታዮች

ሐ. የፕሮቴስታንት እምነት ተከታዮች

መ. የባህል እምነት ተከታዮች

ሠ. የተለየ ካለ ይጠቀስ -----

20. በልጅነት ዕድሜ የሚፈጸመው ጋብቻ የሴት ልጆችን ትምህርት ያሰናክላል?

ሀ. አዎ ለ. አያሰናክልም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም

21. ካለሽ ልምድና ዕውቀት አኳያ በአካባቢሽ አብዛኛን ጊዜ ሴቶች ጋብቻ የሚፈፀሙት

ሀ. ከ 10-12 ዓመት

ለ. ከ13-14 ዓመት

ሐ. ከ15-18 ዓመት

መ. ከ19-20 ዓመት

ሠ. ከ20 ዓመት በላይ



አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ
ድህረ ምረቃ ፕሮግራም
የክፍለ ሀገራዊና አካባቢ ልማት ጥናት ክፍል

ለርዕሰ መምህራንና መምህራን የተዘጋጀ መጠይቅ

የዚህ መጠይቅ ዓላማ በዳውሮ ዞን ቶጫ ወረዳ በሚገኙ ሙሉ 1ኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶችና በቶጫ መካከለኛ 2ኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤት በሌት ተማሪዎች ትምህርት ተሳትፎ ላይ የሚያጋጥሟቸውን አበይት ችግሮች በማጥናት የመፍትሔ ሐሳቦችን ለመጠቀም መረጃ ለመሰብሰብ ነው። ስለሆነም ለጥናቱ ስኬታማነት ይረዳ ዘንድ መጠይቆቹን በጥሞና በመመልከትና ትክክለኛ መረጃ በመስጠት እንዲተባበሩን በትህትና እጠይቃለሁኝ።

ማሳሰቢያ

1. የሚሰጡት ማንኛውም መረጃና አስተያየት በሚሰጡበት የሚያዝና ለዚህ ጥናትና ምርምር ሥራ ብቻ እንደሚያገለግል አስቀድሜ ለመግለጽ እወዳለሁ።
2. በዚህ መጠይቅ ስም መጻፍ አያስፈልግም።
3. መጠይቁን ለመሙላት ምርጫ በሰጡት ቦታ (X) ምልክት በማስቀመጥና ክፍት ቦታ ባለበት ደግሞ መልሱን በጽሑፍ በመሙላት ያሳዩ።

1. ከዚህ በታች ላሉ መረጃዎች መልስዎን በአጭሩ ቢገልፁ::

ሀ. የት/ቤቱ ስም _____

ለ. የታ ወንድ ሴት

ሐ. የትምህርት ደረጃዎ

1) 12ኛ 2) 12+ TTI

3) ዲፕሎማ 4) ዲግሪ

መ. በት/ቤቱ የሥራ ድርሻዎ _____

1.1. በርዕስ መምህራን ብቻ የሚሞላ:- የትምህርት ቤትዎ ተማሪዎች ሁኔታ ለመማር የተመዘገቡ፣ ያለፉና የወደቁ::

ዓ.ም	የተመዘገቡ		ያቋረጡ		ያለፉ		የወደቁ	
	ወንድ	ሴት	ወንድ	ሴት	ወንድ	ሴት	ወንድ	ሴት
1992								
1993								
1994								
1995								
1996								
ድምር								

2. እርስዎ በሚኖሩበት አካባቢ ወንዶችና ሴቶች ልጆች እኩል ት/ቤት የመግባት ዕድል አላቸው? ሀ. አዎ አላቸው ለ. የላቸውም

3. ለ2ኛ ተራ ቁጥር የሰጡት ምላሽ የላቸውም ከሆነ ማን የበለጠ ት/ቤት የመግባት ዕድል አለው? ሀ. ወንዶች ልጆች ለ. ሴቶች ልጆች

4. ለልጆች ትምህርት የሚወጣ ወጪ የወላጆችን ሴት ልጆቻቸውን ት/ቤት የማስገባት ፍላጎት የሚቀንስ ይመስልዎታል?
ሀ. አዎ ለ. አይቀንስም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም

5. ለ4ኛ ተራ ቁጥር የሰጡት ምላሽ «አዎ» ከሆነ ከሚከተሉት የት/ቤት ወጪዎች የትኛው ወጪ ከድሃ ቤተሰብ ለወጡ ሴት ልጆች አዳጋች ይመስልዎታል?

ሀ. ለማደሪያ ቤትና ቀለብ የሚከፈል ወጪ

ለ. የጽሕፈት መሣሪያዎች ወጪ

ሐ. የመጽሐፍት ዋጋ ወይም ክራይ

መ. የት/ቤት መዋጮ ወይም ክፍያ

ሠ. የተለየ ካለ ይጠቀስ _____

6. ካለዎት ልምድና ዕውቀት አንጻር ከሚከተሉት መካከል በቤት ውስጥ ሥራ በዙውን ጊዜ የሚጠመዱት የትኞቹ ናቸው?

ሀ. ወንዶች ለ. ሴቶች



7. ለ6ኛ ተራ ቁጥር የሰጡት ምላሽ ሴቶች ከሆነ በይበልጥ ሴቶች የሚያተኩሩት ሥራ የትኞቹ እንደሆኑ በዝርዝር ይጥቀሱ?

- ሀ. _____
- ለ. _____
- ሐ. _____
- መ. _____

8. በአካባቢዎ የሚገኙ ት/ቤቶች በተለይም ከ5-8 እና ከ9-10 ያሉ ክፍሎች ለሁሉም ተማሪዎች በአማካይና ከመንደራቸው በማይርቅ ቦታ ላይ ነው የሚገኙት?

- ሀ. አዎ ለ. አይደለም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም

9. ለ8ኛ ተራ ቁጥር የሰጡት ምላሽ አይደለም ከሆነ፣ በት/ቤቱ መራቅ ምክንያት ሴት ተማሪዎች ትምህርታቸውን እንዳይከታተሉ ምክንያት ሊሆኑ የሚችሉት?

- ሀ. የወላጆች ድሃ ከመሆን የተነሣ የቤት ኪራይ የቀለብና የሌሎች ነገሮች ወጪ መከፈል ያለመቻል
- ለ. የወላጆች ልጆቻቸው እንዳይጠለፉ መፍራት
- ሐ. ሩቅ ሄደው እንዳይማሩ የወላጆች ፈቃደኛ ያለመሆን
- መ. የተለየ ካለ ይጠቀስ _____

10. በት/ቤት የሴት መምህራን ቁጥር መጨመር የሴት ተማሪዎች ቁጥር እንዲጨመር ምክንያት ይሆናል ብለው ያምናሉ?

- ሀ. አዎ ለ. አይሆንም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም

11. በትምህርት ቤትዎ በዚህ ዓመት ትምህርት ካቋረጡት ተማሪዎች መካከል የሚበዙት? ሀ. ወንዶች ናቸው ለ. ሴቶች ናቸው

12. በእርስዎ ግምት የትኛውን የትምህርት ደረጃ ወይም ክፍል ነው ብዙ ሴቶች የሚያጠናቅቁት:-

- ሀ. ከ1-4ኛ ክፍል ለ. ከ5-8ኛ ክፍል
- ሐ. ከ9-10ኛ ክፍል መ. ከ11-12ኛ ክፍል

13. መምህራን ለሴት ተማሪዎች የሚሰጡት ድጋፍ ምን ያህል ነው?

- ሀ. ከፍተኛ ለ. መካከለኛ ሐ. ዝቅተኛ

14. በአብዛኛው የትምህርት መጻሕፍትና የትምህርት መረጃ መሣሪያዎች ውስጥ የሚጠቀሱት አባባሎችና ምሳሌዎች የሴትና የወንድ ያታ እኩልነት ተዋፅኦ በጠበቀ መልኩ ነው ብለው ያምናሉ?

- ሀ. አዎ ለ. አይደለም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም



15. ለ14ኛ ተራ ቁጥር የሰጡት ምላሽ «አይደለም» ከሆነ ከዚህ በታች የተጠቀሱት በየትኛው የሚገለጽ ነው?

ሀ. ወንዶች ጠንካራና ንቁ፣ ሴቶችን ግን ደካማና በወንዶች ትዕዛዝ ብቻ የሚንቀሳቀሱ አድርጎ የሚያሳይ

ለ. በሚሠጡት ምሳሌዎች ላይ የወንድ እንስሳም ሆነ ሰው የሚበዛ ሲሆን የሴት ግን ያነሰ

ሐ. የተለየ ካለ ይጠቀስ -----

16. በአዲሱ የትምህርት ፖሊሲ መሠረት አንዳንድ ት/ቤቶች ከ1-6 የነበሩ ክፍሎች ወደ 1-4 ክፍሎች ዝቅ ማለት የሴቶች ትምህርት ተሳትፎን?

ሀ. ይቀንሳል ለ. አይቀንስም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም

17. በየመዋቅሩ ያሉት የፖለቲካም ሆነ የመስተዳደር አካላት በተለይ የሴቶች ጉዳይ ጽ/ቤት የሴት ተማሪዎች ቁጥር በት/ቤት እንዲጨምር የሚያደርጉት አስተዋጽኦ እንዴት ነው?

ሀ. ከፍተኛ ለ. መካከለኛ ሐ. ዝቅተኛ

18. ወላጆች የሚከተሉት የሃይማኖት ዓይነት በሴቶች ልጆቻቸው ትምህርት ላይ ተፅዕኖ ይኖረዋል ብለው ያምናሉ?

ሀ. አዎ ለ. የለውም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም

19. ለ18ኛ ተራ ቁጥር የሰጡት ምላሽ «አዎ» ከሆነ የየትኛው ሀይማኖት ተከታይ ልጆች ናቸው ብዙውን ጊዜ ት/ቤት የማይገቡት?

ሀ. የኦርቶዶክስ ተዋህዶ እምነት ተከታዮች

ለ. የእስልምና ሃይማኖት ተከታዮች

ሐ. የፕሮቴስታንት እምነት ተከታዮች

መ. የባህል እምነት ተከታዮች

ሠ. የተለየ ካለ ይጠቀስ -----

20. በልጅነት ዕድሜ የሚፈጸመው ጋብቻ የሴት ልጆችን ትምህርት ያሰናክላል?

ሀ. አዎ ለ. አያሰናክልም ሐ. እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም

21. ካለዎት ልምድና ዕውቀት አኳያ በአካባቢዎ አብዛኛውን ጊዜ ሴቶች ጋብቻ የሚፈፀሙት

ሀ. ከ 10-12 ዓመት

ለ. ከ13-14 ዓመት

ሐ. ከ15-18 ዓመት

መ. ከ19-20 ዓመት

ሠ. ከ20 ዓመት በላይ



22. ከዚህ ቦታ ላይ ያሉት ዐረፍተ ነገሮች የሚያመለክቱት የቤተሰብ/የወላጆች/ሁኔታና አመለካከት በሴቶች ትምህርት ተሳትፎ ላይ የሚያሳድረውን ተጽዕኖ ሲሆን የእርስዎ አመለካከት ከእነዚህ ጋር እንዴት እንደሆነ «በጣም እስማማለሁ»፣ «እስማማለሁ»፣ «መወሰን ያስቸግራል»፣ «አልስማማም» እና «በጣም አልስማማም» በማለት በተሰጡት አመራጮች መካከል በአንዱ «X» ምልክት በማድረግ ሐሳብዎን ይግለጹ፡፡

ተ.ቁ	ወላጆች በሴት ልጆቻቸው ትምህርት ላይ	በጣም እስማማለሁ	እስማማለሁ	መወሰን ያስቸግራል	አልስማማም	በጣም አልስማማም
22.1	ወላጆች ሴቶች ተምረው በጋብቻ ምክንያት የሌላ ቤተሰብ አባል ስለሚሆኑ እንዲማሩ አይፈልጉም					
22.2	ወላጆች ሴቶች ልጆቻቸው ትምህርት ከመጨረሻቸው በፊት ባልተፈለገ እርግዝና ይወድቃሉ በሚል ፍርሃት እንዲማሩ አይፈልጉም					
22.3	ወላጆች የሴቶች ተፈጥሮ ግዴታ ባል ማግባት፣ ልጅ ወልዳ ማግደግ ነው ብለው ስለሚያምኑ ሴቶችን ለማስተማር አይፈልጉም					
22.4	ወላጆች ከሴቶች ልጆቻቸው የጉልበት አገልግሎት ስለሚፈልጉ ትምህርት ቤት ማስገባት አይፈልጉም					
22.5	አብዛኞቹ ወላጆች ሴቶች ልጆቻቸው ለትምህርት ከእነሱ ርቀው እንዲሄዱ አይፈልጉም					
22.6	አብዛኞቹ ወላጆች የሴቶች ልጆቻቸውን መማር የሚያስገኘውን ጥቅም አይረድም					
22.7	የወላጆች መማር የሴት ልጆቻቸውን ትምህርት ቤት የመግባት ዕድል ያስፋል					
22.8	ከአባት ይልቅ የእናት መማር የሴት ልጆቻቸውን የመማር ዕድል ያስፋል					

23. ከሚከተሉት ድጋፎች መካከል የትኛው ድጋፍ ለሴቶች ቢሰጥ የሴቶች የትምህርት ተሳትፎአቸውን ከፍ ማድረግ ይቻላል ብለው ያምናሉ፡፡ (ከአንድ በላይ መልስ መስጠት ይቻላል፡፡)

- ሀ. የሴቶች ሥራ የማግኘት እድላቸውን ከወንድ በተሻለ ሁኔታ ማስፋት
- ለ. ከርቀት ቦታ ተመላልሰው ለሚኖሩ ሴት ተማሪዎች የማደሪያ ቤት ሰርቶ መስጠትና በተቻለ መጠን የቀለብ ወጪዎችን መደገም
- ሐ. ት/ቤቶችን በአማካኝ ቦታዎች መሥራት
- መ. በልጅነት ዕድሜ የሚደረገውን ጋብቻ መከላከል
- ሠ. የሴት መምህራን ቁጥር በት/ቤት ከፍ ማድረግ
- ረ. ወላጆች የሴቶች መማር የሚኖረውን ጠቀሜታ እንዲረዱ ማድረግ

24. ስለልጃገረዶች/ሴቶች ትምህርት ሁኔታ ተጨማሪ አስተያየት ካለዎት ይግለጹ

ስለትብብራችሁ በድጋሚ አመሰግናለሁ፡፡

APPENDIX C1

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ድህረ ምረቃ ፕሮግራም የክፍለ ሀገራዊና አካባቢ ልማት ጥናት ክፍል

ለሴት ተማሪ ወላጆች የቡድን ውይይት የቀረበ የቃል መጠይቅ

የውይይቱ ዓላማ በዳውሮ ዞን ቶጫ ወረዳ በሚገኙ ሙሉ 1ኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶችና በቶጫ መካከለኛ 2ኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤት በሴት ተማሪዎች ትምህርት ተሳትፎ ላይ የሚያጋጥማቸውን አበይት ችግሮች በማጥናት የመፍትሔ ሐሳቦችን ለመጠቀም መረጃ ለመስብሰብ ነው።

1. እናንተ ከወንድ ልጆቻችሁና ከሴት ልጆቻችሁ መካከል ትምህርት ቤት በቅድሚያ ለማስገባት የምትፈልጉት የትኞቹ ነው? ለምን?
2. የልጆች የትምህርት ቤት ወጪ ሲታይ ብዙ ወጪ አውጥቶ ለማስተማር የምትፈልጉት ወንድ ልጆቻችሁ ወይስ ሴቶቹን ነው?
3. ከወንድና ከሴት ተማሪዎች የትምህርት ቤት ወጪ ብዙ ወጪ ያስወጣል ብለው የሚገምቱት የትኛው ነው?
4. ከወንዶችና ሴት ልጆቻችሁ የቤት ሥራውን እንዲያከናውኑ የምትፈልጉት የትኞቹን ነው?
5. በአካባቢዎ ያሉት ትምህርት ቤቶች ለሁሉም ተማሪዎች አማካይ ቦታ ላይ ናቸው ብለው ይገምታሉ?
6. ሴት ልጆቻችሁ ከቤተሰብ ተለይተው እሩቅ ቦታ ሄደው እንዲማሩ ያላችሁ ፍላጎት እንዴት ነው?
7. ሴት ልጅ እርቃ ሄዳ ብትማር ምን ችግር ይገጥማታል ብላችሁ ታስባላችሁ?
8. በአዲሱ የትምህርት ፖሊሲ መሠረት አንዳንድ ትምህርት ቤቶች ከ1-6 ክፍሎች ወደ 1-4 ዝቅ ማለታቸው በሴቶች ትምህርት ተሳትፎ ላይ ጫና አለው ወይ?
9. በየደረጃው ያሉት የፖለቲካም ሆነ የመስተዳድር አካላት ለሴቶች ትምህርት ያላቸው ትኩረት እንዴት ነው?
10. የእናንተ ፍላጎት ሴት ልጆችን በትምህርታቸው ወደፊት እንድትገፉ ወይስ ባል እንድታገባ ነው የምትፈልጉት?
11. ሴት ልጅ ብትማር ምን ጥቅም ታስገኛለች ብላችሁ ታምናላችሁ?
12. የወላጆች መማር ወይም ያለመማር በሴት ልጆቻችሁ ትምህርት ጥሩ ወይም መጥፎ ተፅዕኖ ይኖራል ወይ?
13. የሴት መምህራን ቁጥር በትምህርት ቤት መጨመር ለሴቶች ልጆች ትምህርት መከታተል ጥሩ ነው ብላችሁ ታስባላችሁ?
14. ሴቶች ልጆች ትምህርታቸውን እንዳያቋርጡ መምህራን ከእናንተ ከወላጆች ጋር ይመካከራሉ ያበረታታሉ ወይ?
15. ሴቶች ልጆች ትምህርታቸውን እንዳያቋርጡ ምን ድጋፍ እንዲደረግላቸው ያስፈልጋል?

ስለሰጣችሁኝ አስተያየት አመሰግናለሁ።

Appendix C

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ድህረ ምረቃ ፕሮግራም የክፍለ ሀገራዊና አካባቢ ልማት ጥናት ክፍል

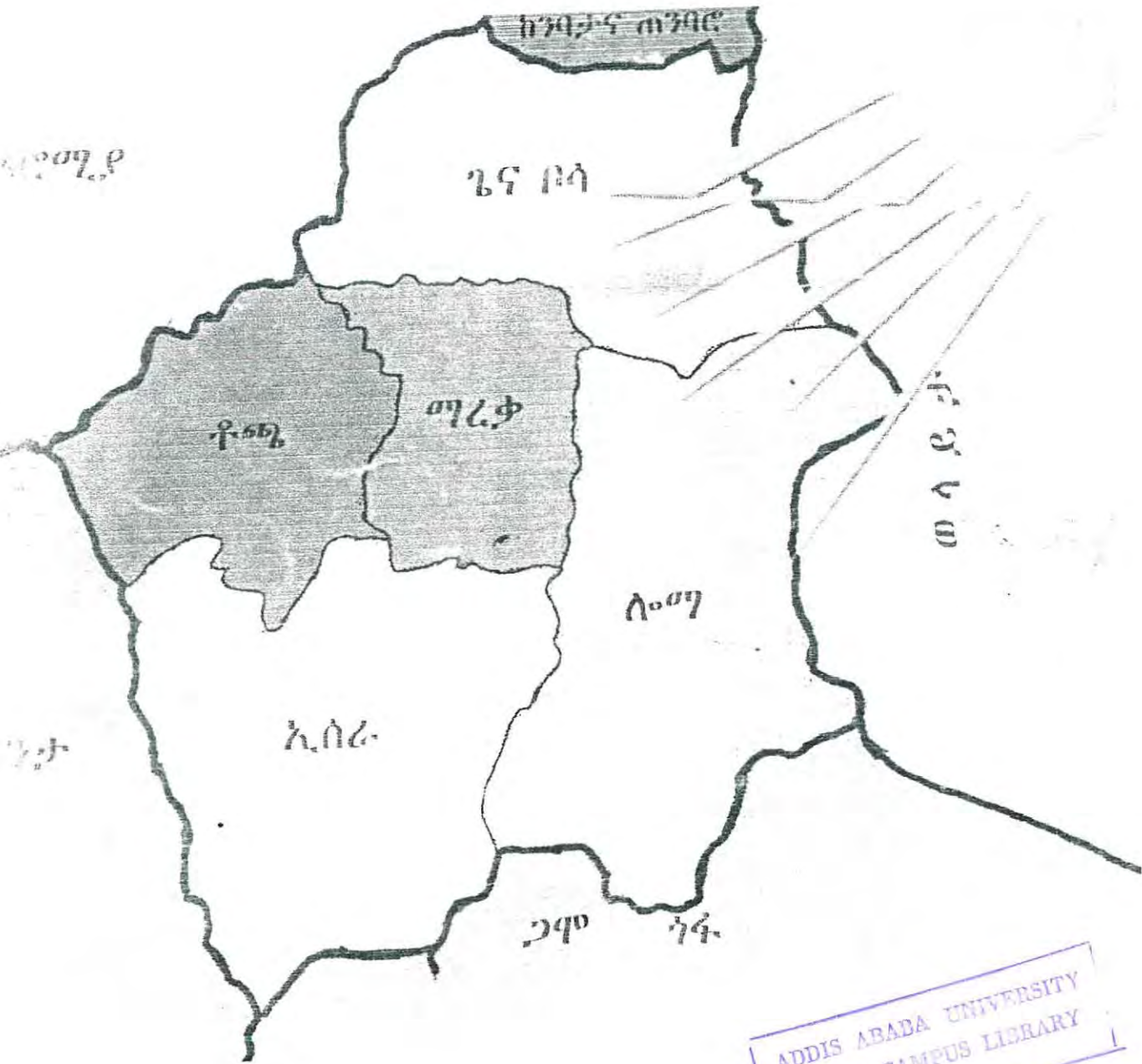
ለቶጫ ወረዳ ትምህርት ቤቶች ጽ/ቤት ባለሙያዎች የቡድን ውይይት የቀረበ የቃል መጠይቅ

የዚህ ውይይት ዓላማ በዳውሮ ዞን ቶጫ ወረዳ በሚገኙ ሙሉ 1ኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤቶችና በቶጫ መካከለኛ 2ኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤት በሴት ተማሪዎች ትምህርት ተሳትፎ ላይ የሚያጋጥማቸውን አበይት ችግሮች በማጥናት የመፍትሔ ሐሳቦችን ለመጠቀም እንዲረዳ መረጃን ስለመስብሰብ ነው።

1. ካላችሁ ልምድና እውቀት አንጻር ወንዶችና ሴቶች ልጆች እኩል ትምህርት ቤት ገብተው የመማር እድል አላቸው? ለምን?
2. የትምህርት ቤት ወጪ ሲታይ ወላጆች ብዙ ወጪ አውጥተው ለማስተማር የሚፈልጉት ወንዶችን ነው ወይስ ሴቶችን? ለምን?
3. በወረዳው ለተማሪዎች ከፍተኛ ወጪ የሚባሉት የትኞቹ ናቸው?
4. በወረዳው ያሉ ትምህርት ቤቶች ለሁሉም ተማሪዎች አማካኝ ቦታ ላይ ናቸው?
5. ካላችሁ ልምድ ወላጆች ሴቶች ልጆቻቸውን ሩቅ ትምህርት ቤት ልከው የማስተማር ሁኔታ እንዴት ነው?
6. ካላችሁ ልምድ አንጻር ሴቶች ልጆች ከወላጆች ተሳይተው ሲማሩ የተከሰቱ ችግሮችና ሊከሰቱ ይችላሉ የሚባሉትን በዝርዝር ቢገልጹ?
7. በአዲሱ የትምህርት ፖሊሲ መሠረት አንዳንድ ትምህርት ቤቶች ከ1-6 ክፍሎች ወደ ከ1-4 ዝቅ ማለታቸው በሴቶች ትምህርት ተሳትፎ ላይ የፈጠረ ችግር አለ ወይ? ካለስ ምን ምን አይነት ችግሮች ናቸው?
8. የሴቶች መማር ጠቀሜታን በተመለከተ የህብረተሰቡ አመለካከት እንዴት ነው?
9. የሴት መምህራን ቁጥር በትምህርት ቤት መጨመር የሴቶች ተማሪዎች ቁጥር እንዲጨምር ያደርጋል ወይ?
10. በወረዳው ውስጥ የሴቶች ትምህርት ተሳትፎ አበይት ችግሮች የተባሉት ምንድን ናቸው? ለነዚህ ችግሮች ጽ/ቤቱ የወሰዳቸው እርምጃዎችስ ምንድን ናቸው?
11. የወረዳው ት/ቤቶች ጽ/ቤት ሴት ተማሪዎች ትምህርታቸውን እንዳያቋርጡ ለማድረግ በትምህርት ቤቶችና በወላጆች መካከል ያለው ግንኙነትና እገዛ እንዴት ነው?
12. ሴት ተማሪዎች ትምህርታቸውን እንዳያቋርጡና እንዲበረታቱ ምን ምን ድጋፍ ቢደረግላቸው ይሻላል?

ስለሰጣችሁኝ አስተያየት አመሰግናለሁ።

የዳውሮ ዞን ካርታ



ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
 AKAKI CAMPUS LIBRARY