THE RELEVANCE OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM TO THE FUTURE ROLES OF RURAL GIRLS IN THE SILTI AREA: ITS IMPACT UPON THEIR DROPOUT

A THESIS PRESENTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES, ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT FOR THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE DEGREE MASTER OF ARTS IN CURRICULUM

BY

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JUNE 1997

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Profound thanks are due to Dr. Abebe Bekele, my thesis advisor, for his unfailing encouragement, guidance, constructive comments and useful suggestions. Indeed without his unreserved dedication, the development and completion of this study would have been impossible.

I am also very much indebted to Guragae Development Programme - Irish Aid (Ethiopia) - for the financial support of this study.

I owe my gratitude to Ato Kedir Ligbicho, Ato Sileshi Chaka, Ato Fikadu Worku, W/t Alewiya Hassen, W/t Sinday Tesfaye and Ato Getachew Kebede, Ato Dereje Getaneh whose encouragement and assistance enabled me to pursue the study enthusiastically.

I appreciate Ato Semon Shukre, Ato Maruf Gebeyaw, Ato Miftah Awol, Ato Hussien Bamud, Ato Getachew Melaku and the people working in Silti, Dalocha, and Lanfuro Woreda Education Bureaus for their unreserved help during my field work.

I am very much obliged to express my indebtedness to W/ro Tsehay Mekonnen, Ato Mulugeta Tuji, Ato Sileshi Zeleke, Ato Lawgalet Tuji and Ato Bayafers Tamene who in various ways rendered their constant help and encouragement throughout my graduate study.

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ABSTRACT

One of the major functions of the school curriculum is to provide the knowledge, skills and experience which are relevant to the contexts of the actual life of the students. In view of this, the purpose of this study is to examine the relevance of the primary school curriculum to the future roles of rural girls in the Silti area and to assess its impact upon their dropout.

To this effect 21 rural primary schools were selected as sources of information from three woredas that are inhabited by Silti people. Within these schools all the teachers, school directors, and female students of grades 3 through 6 were taken as actual sources of information. In addition, from the neighbouring villages of the sample schools, a total of 324 parents and community members were included in the sample population. Questionnaire, interview and classroom observation were the data collection instruments used in the study.

The results of the study identified marriage as the only practically available status of life to which the largest majority of female graduates and dropouts from rural Silti primary schools are joining. Yet the results reveal the mismatch between what the girls are exposed to in their primary school curriculum and most of the major roles which the girls are required to play in their married life. The centralized nature of the primary school curriculum and teachers' failure to utilize the major instructional considerations that are essential for the enrichment of the meaningfulness of the lessons taught are the two prominent reasons for the irrelevance of the curriculum to the purpose under-discussion. Moreover the results of this study have identified curricular irrelevance as one of the three major reasons (next to early marriage and intensive labour at home) for the dropout of rural Silti girls from primary schools.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1. The Problem

1.1 Background to the Problem

In many countries of the world the general aims of education emanate from three basic concerns. The first is that education is recognized as a basic human right which should be accessible to all citizens irrespective of sex, colour, and economic status. Second, today's schools are expected to develop the all round potential of individuals paying due attention to their intellectual, moral, physical and personality development. And finally, education is conceived as the primary agent of social, economic, cultural, and political transformation of the society (MOE, 1982: 4). However, practice has revealed that the education system of many developing countries has failed to meet the aims mentioned above. This is so, because, among other things, the education system in these countries is characterised by a very low female participation (UNESCO- UNICEF, 1987:17; World Bank, 1990:29).

The participation of women in all aspects of life of the society is very essential for a smooth and continuous development.

The evidence obtained from third world countries shows a close link between women's education and socio-economic development and between the size of the

education gender gap and national development. It has also been discoverd that a country with a large gender gap in education will have lower economic production and experience worse indicators of social welfare than a country with a smaller gender gap in education (King and Hill,1993:6).

Moreover, a World Bank report on 120 countries indicates that nations that have invested heavily in female primary education in the past benefit through higher economic productivity, lower infant and maternal mortality, longer life expectancy for both men and women, and lower fertility rates than countries that have not achieved as high education levels for women (World Bank, 1990:18).

It has been revealed, however, that the participation rate of females in the education of Africa, Asia and Latin America for the first half of the 1980s was 38 percent, 26 percent, and 18 percent respectively,(UNESCO-UNICEF, 1987: 72). This is a very low participation rate when compared to the developed world which was 76 percent (Sivored, 1986: 38).

It has been mentioned before that one of the salient features of the education systems of developing countries is the low rate of female participation in education. To this Ethiopia is not an exception. For instance, Ethiopian girls' enrolment out of the total percentage of school age population for the years 1980-1985 was 10.2 percent for

kindergarten, 17.7 percent for primary school, 9.8 percent for Junior secondary school and 8.6 percent for senior secondary school (MOE, 1989: 21).

In fact this low rate of female participation in education is not a new phenomenon to Ethiopia. Since the inception of modern education in Ethiopia in 1908, there has been a remarkable gap in enrolment between male and female (Tadesse, 1974: 17). Indeed it is not only that females' participation in education has been very low, it is also true that their participation rate has been diminishing as they go to the upper level of education (Ibid).

Generally it has been said that females' participation in education in many countries is lower than their male counterparts. This low participation rate can, partly, be explained by higher rates of dropout among the girls (Hyde, 1989: 18). It has also been supported by Bown (1990: 67) who found out that about 40 percent of the female students who commence primary school in least developed countries are unlikely to complete four years of schooling. Similarly Brimer and Paul (1971: 173) have reported high dropout rate among the girls of rural schools in the developing world.

Studies made in Ethiopia have also reported higher dropout rate among girls (Kaypaghian, 1960: 87, MOE, 1988: 23, Adane, 1991: 82). In a similar study, Ayalew (1993: 8) has also discovered a higher dropout rates, in all grades except grades seven and eight, among girls than boys. Hence, it is not only that a very few female students

are attending schools, it is also clear that a sizeable proportion of those few female attendants are likely to leave the schools at any time of the academic year. Thus, any attempt to raise the participation rate of females in education should primarily focus on reducing their dropouts (King and Hill, 1993: 6). This is so, because girls school withdrawal perpetuates the vicious circle of women's under representation in the education system (Ibid).

Girls drop out from schools has been studied by many authorities. Many of these studeis have identified a number of factors that are responsible for high female dropouts from Ethiopian Schools. Among the factors which have commonly been singled out, the major ones are poverty, parental opposition towards formal education, academic failure, and intensive labour at home; (Tadess, 1974:18). Likewise Tsion and Wanna (1994:48) have indicated that girls weak participatrion and early dropout from schools is mainly due to parental opposition towards modern education. Moreover Yelfign et.al.(1995: 43) has discovered parental reluctance in educating daughters than sons in Cheha district. However, recent study made by Abebe in Borena-Negelle has reported equal parental concern for all children irrespective of their sex when it comes to the provision of access to education (Abebe,1996:46).

Nevertheless, most of the studies cited above have discovered the strong parental opposition towards daughters education. What is more important is, however, to pinpoint the underlying factors that cause parents' reluctance to girls education. Studies

made in traditional societies regarding the causes for the parents' reluctance to educate their daughters have revealed three parental arguments which referred to the costs of schooling. First, it has been reported that in areas where girls contribute a great deal to the family labour force, parents may feel that sending girls to schools means losing an essential component of the labour force, which implies a high opportunity cost of girls' schooling (Papanek; 1985: 23; King and Hill, 1993: 26). Second, in traditional society where a mother plays a key role in training her daughter about household chores and maternal responsibility, parents may feel that girls who go to school are forgoing important house hold training that is indispensable for their married life (Desai, 1987: 14; Smock, 1981: 11). Third, in traditional societies the socio-cultural factors such as norms delineating the societal, economic, and familial roles of women strongly influence parents' decision by imposing a heavy cost on a non-conformity behavior which is perceived as the outcome of girls' formal schooling (Taddese, 1974: 102, Khan, 1986: 22). It is quite clear that the parents arguments are facts which must be dealt with and gradually changed, for it is the parent, and not the girl, who makes the final decision on daughters schooling, especially in the early school years. With regard to this, UNESCO (1975: 82), after having made an experimental studies in Nepal, Cot d'Voure, and Chilli, has suggested that any attempt to broaden educational opportunities for girls and women and to encourage them to take advantage of their education, be it in the formal education system or outside of it, must include a conscious and continuing strategy to convince the parents and the community about the worth of girls education and to sustain positive attitude. Thus creating a favourable climate of schooling

(confidence building) in rural parents and the girls themselves is found to be the primary strategy in order to increase rural girls enrollment, reduce their dropout, and raise the practical benefits of girls education. To this end, the development of a curriculum which is relevant to the most probable career or prospect of life of rural girls is recommended (UNESCO, 1975: 83-86; Bushra, 1988: 36).

Concerning the same issue (Mbilinyi, 1969: 26-31; Khatun, 1979: 12; Kaypaghian, 1960: 69) have all reported that rural girls low enrollment rate and high rate of withdrawal from schools could be counteracted by making the curriculum a means through which an adequate view of the women's roles at home and in the society could be created. To this end, it has been suggested that making the contents of primary school curriculum more related to the context of rural life and including more practical skills should be the major strategy to raise the practical benefits of girls' education so that it is not only that the new ones are attracted but also those girls who are already in the system are encouraged to continue learning. With these in mind, this study assesses the relevance of the primary school curriculum to the future roles of rural girls in the Silti area and examines its impact upon their dropout rates.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Like their sisters in other parts of the country the vast majority of rural girls in the Silti area are illiterate. According to the report issued by Silti Woreda Education

Office, it is not only that a very few rural Silti girls are attending primary schools, it is also true that a sizeable proportion of these girls leave the schools before the end of the cycle (Silti Woreda Education Office, 1994: 4-5).

It is quite observeable that many primary schools are established in Silti area since 1980s. Yet as experiences in some developing areas have witnessed, increasing the number of rural schols alone could not guarantee a desirable size of participation among rural girls unless it is accompanied by a relevant school curriculum that is appropriate to meet the actual demands of rural life to which rural Silti girls will be encountering in their future living. Thus, this study attempts to investigate the relevance of the primary school curriculum to the future roles of rural girls in the Silti area and its impact upon their dropout rates. More specifically the objectives of this study are:

- to identify the most probable career(s) or prospect of life to which the majority of rural Silti area school girls will join.
- to investigate the instructional attempts made by primary school teachers in enriching the relevance of the curriculum to the contexts of the life of rural Silti girls.
- to examine the correspondence between the activities carried out in the primary schools and the duties and responsibilities which are evolved from rural Silti girls' future career or prospect of life.

- to assess the perceived relevance of the primary school curriculum (as it is perceived by rural Silti parents) to the future roles of rural Silti girls.
- to examine the impact of curricular irrelevance to the rate of rural girls primary school dropout in Silti area.
- to indicate some measures for improving the curriculum in light of the demands of the actual life of rural Silti girls.

With these objectives, then, the study will attempt to find answers for the following research questions:

1. Which career(s) or prospect of life do most of primary school girls in the rural Silti area join?
2. Do the activities carried out in the primaryschools correspond with the duties and responsibilities that are evolved from the most probable future career or prospect of life of rural Silti girls?
3. How effective are the instructioal activities in enhancing the meaningfulness of what is learned in the classroom to the contexts of life of rural Silti girls?
4. Does curricular irrelevance contribute to rural Silti girls withdrawal from primary schools?

1.3 Significance of the Study

It is quite reasonable to believe that, in an area where girls have practically no access to modern sector jobs, in a society where parents (the exclusive decision makers on their daughters schooling) are tied with traditional values and norms, studying the appropriateness of the curriculum to the actual demands of life of rural Silti girls could indicate the causes for the discrepancy that may exist between the activities in schools and the contexts of rural life to which rural Silti girls will be entitled in their future life. Consequently, it could suggest possible alternatives for narrowing this gap and, thus, for raising the practical benefits of rural girls' education. On the other hand, the outcomes of this study may indicate some curricular measures which could raise the aspiration of rural Silti parents for their daughters' schooling.

Moreover, the new education and training policy encourages the various regions to construct their own curriculum that best fits the socio-economic and cultural settings of each region. Basically, the construction of a curriculum for local use presupposes a thorough investigation of local demands and needs. The outcomes of this study are, therefore, expected to give the bases and general directions for addressing the actual demands of rural Silti girls in the would be local curriculum.

1.4 Delimitation

The relevance of any curriculum is appraised on the basis of the social, economic, cultural, and psychological settings (backgrounds) of the society. Thus a curriculum which is relevant for one particular group of people may be irrelevant for another group of people. Taking this into account, the scope of this study is limited to Silti area in which the people have a relatively homogeneous social, economic, psychological, cultural, religious, and linguistic background.

This study is further delimited to rural area, for the roles of rural and urban girls (women)are rather different.

1.5 Limitation of the Study

Attempt was made to obtain five years data on the enrollment and dropout patterns in the sample schools. However, the records of the pre-1983 E.C.(before 1990/91) were completely missed or destroyed during the civil war. Besides, the sample schools didn't have a reliable enrollment and dropout data for the 1984 and 1985 E.C.(1991/92 and 1992/93) academic years. This was so, because until the end of 1985 E.C. a stable educational programme had not been reestablished in most rural schools of the Silti area. For these reasons the patterns of enrollment and dropout were examined on the basis of two years data.

Moreover, there is no social or government institution that provides a statistical information about the size of rural Silti primary school female graduates or dropouts who join any career or patterns of life available at their disposal. Nevertheless, the investigator has employed different techniques in identifying the most likely career or prospect of life that accommodates most of rural Silti area primary school graduates and dropouts.

In rural Silti area there was a scarcity of trained observants who could assess the instructional activities to the satisfaction of the demands of the study. For this reason the instructional activities were observed and assessed by the investigator. This might have reduced the reliability of the results obtained from the observations due to personal bias and other related intervening variables.

1.6 Operational Definition of Terms

Career

It is the type of activity or status of life upon which one is engaged as a way of making a living, regardless of whether or not it generates an explicit income.

Curricular Relevance

It is the quality of the curriculum that indicates whether or not the curriculum deals with the basic, actual, and meaningful aspects of all areas of the learner's life.

Dropout

It is an incidence of pupil's school leaving before completing an education cycle he/she is enrolled.

It is a curriculum which is constructed locally with the aim of meeting the actual needs and interests of the learners, without violating the universal standard.

Urban Area

An urban area is a town with 2,000 or more inhabitants (Ethiopian Mapping Agency, 1981: 39).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 The Essence of Curricular Relevance

Results of curriculum research indicated that curriculum planning should take into account the following factors: the nature and needs of the individual learner, the nature of the learning process, the nature of contemporary society, and the roles individuals and groups must perform in their society (NEA, 1963: 9). From this statement it becomes obvious that the needs of the learner and the society are important bases upon which the curriculum is designed. In relation to this Lewy (1977: 51) has pointed out that the major reason for examining the critical changes in society is to ensure that the needs of the society will be met interms of what young people entering a particular section of the society must know in order to cope with their home and work lives. Assuming that most of the major requirements of the society are identified, and assuming that the resultant specification of objectives and selection of content reflect these needs, then it is possible to say that the curriculum is relevant to the needs of the learners entering the society at various points (Alberty and Alberty, 1966: 220-22).

The movement for curricular relevance has started in USA during the late 1960s. Disciplinarity as the ruling doctrine for curricular development was abandoned by the late 1960s in favour of curricular relevance as a response to the rising social protest and dissatisfaction (Tanner and Tanner, 1980: 66). For instance, Phoenix retreated from his

- Adding to existing courses topics of concern to students and to the society.
- Providing educational alternatives as a response to the demand for freedom of choice.
- Including in the curriculum out-of-school activities of a social-service nature.
- Designing new courses or programmes of socially relevant character.

In a nutshell, relevance is one of the qualities of a good curriculum which closes the gap between the school curriculum and the life experience which the learner encounters out of the school.

2.2 The Education of Girls in a Rural Context

The question of relevance in the education of girls has been debated for long. There is no consensus among educators on what should the curriculum deal with so that it will address the educational needs of all students, irrespective of their gender difference and social Origin (King and Hill, 1993: 265). This difference could be partly attributed to the variation in the definition of roles of girls and boys in the society. In other words, there is culturally determined ways of defining the roles of women and men in a given society at a particular time. The process by which gender specific activities or roles are determined and shaped is called gender structuring (Davison, 1992: 455).

Gender structuring is the means by which a society orders relations of production, reproduction, and distribution between females and males. Thus it is not only a biologically determined phenomenon. It is also a social construction (Ibid).

Gender structuring is one of the principal sources of variation among different social groups in defining curricular relevance for girls. In a traditional society the role expected of a girl both as a daughter and as a future wife and mother is a profoundly cultural role. Thus parents weight the return from their daughter's schooling interms of its adequacy to implant and develop these roles in the girls, both in their immediate form, which includes essential family work, and interms of the more distant aims (ECA, 1993: 31). For instance, after evaluating the educational program in Tanzania, parents in rural areas recommended that "Since our daughters have little access to secondary schools or government offices, they need to be given skills that will be usefull back home." (Mbilinyi, 1969: 49).

Similarly, a national survey of attitudes and school achievement among students in Botswana found strong support for the nations that women should be primarily responsible for domestic work and, thus, their education should be restricted to domestic skills (Duncan, 1989: 8). It has also been suggested that, since education is perceived as an investment in the future economic well-being of the individual and the family, parents will most likely see education as more relevant if it is related to the girls' present and future social and economic needs(MOE, 1994: 11).

The persistence of traditional ways of thinking has meant that not only is the academic oriented education of girls viewed with suspicion and considered immoral, but from a utilitarian stand point is considered useless and irrelevant to the roles girls are expected to play (UNESCO, 1975: 37). Thus, traditional society needs the education of girls to be more practical with training in feminine skills of household production, child care, and nutrition in accordance with culturally defined spheres of female activity (Sandrin and Ray, 1981: 62).

Likewise, Bown (1990: 25) has indicated that inspite of the variation in the status of females in different societies, girls are expected to play their traditional roles as wives and mothers, for they belong to the traditional social group. And parents need the schools to prepare girls for these roles only. Thus, in this context, any attempt to render education more relevant to rural girls' immediate and future roles should primarily focus on a program which includes practical work in gardening, resource utilization, animal husbandry, house keeping, child care, nutrition, health, family planning and other domestic routines (Achola, 1990. 86).

Meanwhile the World Bank report cited in Tietjen (1990: 40) pointed out that in some developing countries the discussion about curriculum reform to make content more relevant and to ensure greater responsiveness to skill development needs is generally translated, in the case of girls, into domestic skills that are inadequate for entry

into the wage market or for self-employment. Supporting this view, Schultz (1988: 34) has remarked that although accepting the fact that women's first responsibility is to their families, a large number of women are involved in agriculture and home industries. Thus, it follows that in setting up objectives for the education of women, the main objective should be not only to prepare girls for the one future status they are expected to occupy, but to visualize their life patterns as a succession of phases in which its emphasis is on different preoccupations and main interests. In relation to this,for instance, experience has shown that even in a remote rural village women play a great role in rural commerce, selling products of home industries in the local market. An exposure to basic bookkeeping and marketing procedures in their primary education would, therefore, enable girls to undertake these small scale operations more efficiently. This will raise their independent economic contribution to family revenues, thereby developing their decision making power and social status. Therefore, the practical aspect of the curriculum should give consideration, among other things, to the rudiments of bookkeeping and skill development in domestic industries (UNESCO, 1975: 84-87).

It has been mentioned earlier that the traditional roles of girls and their roles in a modern society vary greatly. Sometimes these two sets of roles contradict each other. As a result, there is no universal agreement in determining the roles to be cultivated in the school. Regarding this Shultz (1988: 16) has indicated that although complete reliance on modern and strange elements without screening their relevance to the actual

condition could not be supported, the notion of retaining repressive traditional values in an educational system could not be commendable either.

From the discussions made above it is possible to not that the roles of women are both in and out of their home, and school girls in rural areas, the great majority of whom will stay in their locality and assume marriage and family responsibilities, need to get the type of education that prepares them for their present and future life. To this end attempt has been made to identify the major roles of rural girls on which the curriculum for rural schools should emphasize. (UNESCO, 1975: 290; Seyoum, 1986: 17; Jabre, 1988: 16; MOE, 1994: 4-6; Ministry of Labour and Social Affair, 1994: 33). The roles which have been identified by these authorities and organizations include:

- Assuming family food security
- Improving family health and hygiene
- Planning the desired family size
- Assuming children's mental development and education
- Earning and controlling income and other economic assets
- Preserving the environment and natural resources
- Acting collectively and organizing interest groups
- Assuming community and family leadership roles.

At this juncture it is desirable to note that the roles mentioned above should not be considered as the only roles of rural girls on which school curriculum should focus. Education may (should) lead rural girls to assume jobs in modern sectors and government offices, though this could remain to be impractical for the largest majority of girls in traditional society.

2.3 Barriers to the Education of Rural Girls in the Developing World

Although there are so many variables that hinder the education of rural girls, due to the nature of this study, the following discussion will be limited only to curricular and socio-economic variables.

2.3.1 Curricular Irrelevance as a Barrier to Girls' Education in a Rural Context

The availability of educational options in an area does not guarantee utilization. Families may be reluctant or refuse to make use of the available schools (Bown, 1990: 21). In traditional society, for it is the parents who give the final decision on every aspect of the life of their daughters, rural girls have little power to decide about their schooling. Therefore the free school in their village may be inaccessible for girls (Kelly and Elliot, 1982: 12).

Whether schooling of a daughter is deemed worthwhile will be influenced by perceptions or expectations of the effects of schooling on jobs, on acquisition of a better husband, on the quality of domestic life, on the daughter's personality development and on the well-being of her children (ECA, 1993: 28). Therefore, the decision to send a daughter to school, in traditional families, flows from a diverse set of expectations about the effect of schooling upon her adult life. And only under certain conditions will these expectations lead to substantial schooling for girls, even where boys attend in large numbers (Hyde cited in King and Hill, 1993: 113).

An examination of the state of education in some sub-Saharan African countries indicates that the great majority of rural children who attend school gain no more than a trasient smothering of general knowledge, which has little value except for the rare few who have the chance to go to secondary schools (Shultz, 1988: 103). Likewise Tilak (1987: 42) has found out that the existing formal schools of many developing countries have divorced rural children, girls and boys alike, from their communities, ignore their culture, inculcate unsuitable attitudes related to urban life, and fail to encourage an understanding of the environment in which they will grow up and live. The same view has been shared by Shalon et.al (1971: 55) who said that African women, who were first sent to school, received an inadequate and inappropriate education. They imitated the Europeans and tried to behave like the white ladies. Once educated, a girl thought that she no longer had to wash clothes or learn to be a good cook. As a result, parents are saying that education of girls is a failure.

Very recently a study made in HO rural village (India) has revealed that there exists perceived polarity between school and home interms of their content (activities) and interms of their motivation. Based on the findings it has been concluded that the problem of dropout from HO village elementary schools is largely explained by the perceived polarity between home and school (Singh, 1995: 193-194).

In general both the actual relevance and the perceived relevance of the curriculum affect parental decisions to educate or not to educate daughters, and they also affect the rate of dropouts among rural girls.

Curricular irrelevance arises from many sources. In some instances the deviation of the goals of education from the actual needs and problems of the learner and the society results in an irrelevant curriculum. In other words one of the sources of irrelevance in the curriculum of developing countries is the diserpancy between the intention of the schools and the demands of the society upon the schools (Urevbu, 1991: 127).

The purpose of education in many African countries is to offer the child academic knowledge with the intent of preparing him for the next level of education. This purpose meets the needs of the minority who succeed in moving on to higher levels

of education, rather than the needs of the great majority who will remain in the rural village (Shalon et.al., 1971: 52).

Another source of curricular irrelevance is an importation of foreign educational experience without attempting to adapt it to the actual conditions of the developing countries (Aeth, 1978: 12-14; Lewy, 1977: 283). It has been described that the gap between the activities of the school and the demands of real life becomes very wide in several cases where educational programs are prepared by foreign experts or are merely translations of foreign programs without considering the local needs and problems (Lewy, 1977: 253). This has been proved true in several countries. If we take the case of Ethiopia, curriculum development has been subject to foreign influences. Indeed it has been due to the indiscriminate importation of foreign educational experience that Ethiopian education is criticized as being irrelevant to the needs of the country (Tekeste, 1991: 74). In this connection Aklilu has said the following:

> "we are in a state of curriculum crisis. We are in a crisis interms of curriculum perhaps because we are in the dark as to what should constitute curricula for our schools. All we have done is probably get text books from Britain or the United States and at best change the name of London to Addis Ababa or perhaps miles to kilo-meters; but interms of thinking of the concept and its meaningfulness and its relevance to the child who lives in a certain situation, I think basically this has not taken place." (Aklilu, 1968: 8).

The views of Aklilu were shared by Tadesse (1974: 15) and Meaza (1958: 139). Most often imported curriculum does not prepare students for the type of roles they are sought to portray. Instead, the product of such programs will be ignorant of themselves and their surroundings (Gettegno, 1958: 140).

Where a centralized curriculum is used, the disparity among regions and localities is one of the sources of curricular irrelevance (Bowman and Anderson 1982: 23). In a centralized education system, curriculum is designed on the basis of nationally formulated goals. Such a curriculum does not take into account the local ecosystem, cultural and religious values, occupational opportunities and the learning experience of students (Ibid).

Nevertheless it appears that parents of different societies could employ different criteria in appraising the relevance of a given curriculum to the roles of their daughters, depending on the nature of the established roles and the modes of socialization pertaining to the roles in question. In industrially advanced society where the socialization of girls emphasized on the modern labour market and to the supposedly modern way of life. Thus, the relevance of a given curriculum to the roles of these girls is judged interms of its appropriateness to the kind of knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, and norms which are demanded by the modern labour market and the patterns of life in the existing modern culture. (Gordon, 1969: 4).

On the other hand, in a traditional society where the socialization of girls emphasizes the acceptance of the predominant sex roles, with marriage and family as the ultimate goals of women, parents may judge the relevance of a given curriculum in terms of its appropriateness to the kind of knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, and norms which their daughters need to develop in order to meet the demands of a married life in the rural context (Iners Bustillo, cited in King and Hill, 1993: 194). In other words, parents in such society consider the education of their daughters relevant if only schooling is viewed as a positive factor for marriage (King and Hill, 1993: 34). In relation to this rural parents in Bangladesh were asked what they want their daughters to learn in school; the large majority wanted to see child care, cooking, and handicraft in the curriculum. This is consistent with the roles anticipated for girls when they marry (Khan, 1993: 228).

However the employment of either of the criterion (appropriateness to the modern labour market and modern culture or to the traditional roles of a married woman) as a measure of curricular relevance with particular reference to rural girls has been critcized. While the application of the former criterion is criticized for its departure from the actual contexts of rural life and for its ignorance to the most probable career or prospect of life (marriage) which the large majority of rural girls are supposed to join (Bown, 1990, 25-26), whereas the employment of the latter criterion has been criticized for its gender stereatypic orientation (Tietijen, 1990: 40).

2.3.2 The Social, Economic, and Cultural Barrier to the Education of Rural Girls

The socio-economic and cultural barriers to the education of rural girls include parental attitude towards the education of daughters, early marriage, the demand for child labour and others. The following section will discuss each of these factors.

Although the returns to schooling go primarily to the students, the decision and the resources for schooling usually come from the parents, especially in the early school years. Thus the perception of parents may be the key factor. It has been widely understood that parents, in the traditional rural areas have misgivings about girls' education. They fear that education may encourage unwanted attitudes, making daughters bold enough to defy them over a whole range of culturally significant norms and practices. Thus, education may be seen by traditional parents as engendering cultural norms and as having little to do with the demands of the real vocation that awaits the daughter, that of becoming a responsible wife and mother (ECA, 1993: 30). With regard to this, a study made in Pakistan has discovered that in culturally conservative environments early marriage and the importance of preserving a girl's good reputation lead to widespread withdrawal of girls from school at puberty (Khan,1986:14). Similar study made in sub-Saharn Africa has indicated that the wish to protect daughters from undesirable influences appears strongest in areas that are still

traditional (Hyde, 1993: 113). The assertiveness, self-esteem, and belief in gender equality that education may faster in women were found to have threaten traditional families in Egypt (King and Hill, 1993: 152). Likewise, Kaypaghian (1960: 102), after interviewing parents in Ethiopia, has reported that 95 percent of the respondents perceived formal education as a threat to their daughters' conformity with the traditional ways of life.

Whether parents demand education for their daughters is determined not only by their attitudes and values but also by their assessment of the cost and the outcome of educational choices. According to El-Sanabary (1985: 31), under certain circumstances, parents may feel that the anticipated returns on their investment in a daughter's education do not justify the expected cost, and they will prefer marriage for their daughters. In other words, whether it is a personal or family decision school attendance and persistence is influenced by perceptions about current costs and future benefits. The decision maker weights the benefits, net of costs, from family resources on education against the net benefits of keeping the girls out of school (King and Hill, 1993: 23). In relation to this a study made in developing countries has discovered a negative relationship between the opportunity cost of girls' schooling and the number of years of schooling (Resenzusig and Evenson, 1977: 23).

Besides the opportunity cost of schooling, parents in traditional society may feel that their daughters will forgo home-based training if they attend schools (King and Hill,

1993: 26). In a traditional society where girls assume marital life relying on knowledge and skills imparted by their mothers, then the cost of attending formal schools includes not only the opportunity cost of current time but also the missed traditional training at home (Ibid).

Moreover, parents in traditional society are found to have different perceptions regarding the education of their sons to that of their daughters. A study made in Bangladesh revealed that 91% of the heads of rural households wanted their sons to go on to school, whereas only 61% wanted their daughters to do so (Khan, 1986: 22). In a similar vein, Yelfign et al (1995: 43) has reported that the majority (81%) of the parents interviewed in Cheha (Guragae Zone) want their sons to complete tertiary level education while only 47% wanted their daughters to complete the same level. In contrast to these, however, a study made in Borena-Negelle has discovered no parental favouritism towards any gender group regarding the provision of access to education (Abebe, 1996: 48).

Nontheless, one of the explanations to the parents' differential favouritism, according to King and Hill (1993: 115), is that even if the costs are the same for the education of sons and daughters, parents in rural areas tend to perceive the returns as greater in the case of boys. In addition to this, parents' perception of the superior intellectual competence of males to females is found to be a factor for their decision in favour of sons' education (Yates, 1982: 139). Generally, in rural areas, girls are

regarded as intellectually inferior to boys. This perceived intellectual inferiority of girls is often given as a justification for their alienation from the educative system of rural society (Chabuad, 1979: 14).

Early marriage is another constraint which hinders the education of rural girls. The age at which girls first marry varies from region to region and society to society. For instance, it has been found out that the average age of African women at the time of their first marriage is lower than in any other region of the world (Lecoh, 1990: 476). A recent report made by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs showed that in rural areas of Ethiopia girls marry at the average age of 13.5 and men at 21.5 (Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, 1993: 1). Moreover the age difference between men and women at the time of their first marriage is greater in traditional society than in advanced regions. In all African countries men enter into marital union much later (6.3 years later) than do women (Lecoh, 1990: 476-77). In Ethiopia, the average age difference is found to be 8 years (Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, 1993: 1). This age differential may in part be explained by the difficulty experienced by young men in amassing a bride wealth and in establishing the economic bases and shelter for the forthcoming family (Lacoh, 1990: 478).

Some research findings have identified early maritage as one of the major causes for the low school enrolment and high dropout rate of rural girls. According to Hyde (1993, 116) marriage affects the persistence of primary school girls in societies where

betrothal takes place at a very young age. In one traditional village in India early marriage was found to have explained 43 percent of the dropout cases among girls (Kelly and Elliot, 1982: 342). Similarly, among the factors for not sending girls to schools, in Ethiopia, marriage accounts for 39 percent (MOE, 1995: 1). These findings are consistent with the recent finding obtained in Cheha (Guragae Zone) which revealed marriage as one of the three main causes for girls' primary school dropout (Yelfign et.al, 1995: 60). Yet Adane (1991: 173) has reported an insignificant effect of early marriage on the rate of girls' primary school dropout in Bahir Dar Town. This inconsistency, however, could be explained by the relatively longer years of age at which urban girls first marry.

Finally it is important to note that, as early marriage causes rural girls' primary school withdrawal; in turn, primary school dropout is found to have facilitated rural girls' early marriage (Bowman and Anderson, 1982: 19). In other words, if a rural girl happens to leave her primary schooling, because of any reason other than early marriage, the probability that she will marry soon is very high, for marriage is the most probable prospect of life for a dropout girl in rural area. With regard to this a study made in sub-Saharan Africa has found out a positive correlation between the age at which girls first marry and the number of years spend in schools (Laurs-lecoh, 1990: 488). It appears therefore that there are common causes for both early marriage and early school leaving (Bowman and Anderson, 1982: 19).

Another barrier to the education of rural girls, which usually affects the decision of traditional parents regarding their daughters' education, is long distance between school and home. It has been found out that the effect of long distance on the school enrolment and persistence of girls is more pronounced in rural areas than urban centers (Tilak, 1987:65). For instance a study made in Egypt has discovered long distance as a reason for 42 percent of dropout girls from rural areas where as it was mentioned by only 6 percent of the dropout girls of urban centers (Krystina, cited in King and Hill, 1993: 72). This result coincides with the findings of Tadesse(1974: 98) who reported that 86 percent of the dropout students from rural areas of Ethiopia ranked long distance between school and home as the number one school related reason for dropping out of school whereas it was only 11 percent of the respondents that refereed distance as a problem.

Moreover, it has been discovered that, even in a rural context, long distance affects the education of girls more than it affects the education of boys. With respect to this a study made in Egypt has shown that attendance at schools 1 km from home was 94% for boys and 72% for girls, but at schools at a distance of 2kms the percentages were 90 and 60 respectively (Krystina, cited in King and Hill, 1993: 72). In a similar vein a study made in East Asia has shown that long distance between school and home explains 37% of the dropout cases among the girls whereas it explains only 14% of the dropout cases among the boys (Tilak, 1987: 63-4). This differential influences of long distance on the educational participation (enrolment and persistence) of girls and boys

has been attributed to the parents' perception which holds that adolescent girls are more susceptible than adolescent boys to the moral and physical risks involved in walking long distance (King and Hill, 1993: 159).

Another barrier to girls' education in the rural area is the demand for child labour. A study made in Tanzania has revealed that, when compared to urban families, rural parents need their daughters to stay at home and work domestic tasks (Mbiliyni, 1969: 47). It has also been discovered that, though rural parents need the labour of both daughters and sons, the demand imposed upon daughters is much higher than the demand imposed upon sons (Shultz, 1988: 12). Hence girls' schooling is more affected than boys' schooling by the demand for household labour.

In developing countries, family size has been recognized as one of the factors that affect the attendance and persistence of girls in the school. It has been discovered that the smaller the size of the family, the greater will be the chance of daughters to enter schools and remain there (Cochrane, 1986: 8). A study of parents' aspirations for their children, in Egypt, found out that larger families had lower aspirations for the education of their daughters than did smaller families (Bach et al, 1985: 12). The main reason for this may be the work load imposed upon girls is heavier in larger families.

2.4 Enhancing Curricular Relevance in the Instructional Programme

The problem of relevance in the school curriculum is related to both the overall inclusions in the curriculum and also to associated pedagogical practices (Cox, 1972: 55). The curriculum really comes to life in the classroom. It is through the instructional programme that the teacher corresponds the intentions of the curriculum plan with the actual demands of the life of the learner. As has been clearly indicated by NEA (1963: 205) the curriculum that pupils study is determined by the teacher's decision about daily classroom instruction. Thus a teacher, as a planner and as a leader of the day-to-day instructional programme, has a great role to play in enriching the relevance of the curriculum to the actual demands of the learner and the society.

Generally, the success of the instructional programme in enriching the relevance of the curriculum to the learner's actual situation is thought to be influenced by the teacher's knowledge of the curriculum, the nature of the curriculum it self, and the level of teacher's pedagogical knowledge and skills.

To begin with, the extent to which a curriculum is implemented in light of the actual needs of the learner partly depends upon the extent to which teachers are clear about it (Alberty and Alberty, 1966: 498). Unless the basic assumptions of the curriculum and the objectives formulated in it are understood by the teacher, unless the teacher is familiar with the contents and the kinds of learning experiences, not only that he/she fails to translate the objectives of the curriculum plan in light of the demands of the life of the learner and to enrich the contents of instruction with the available community resources; he/she also fails to implement the curriculum in its crudest form (Cox, 1972: 57). Concerning this Saylor, Alexandor, and Lewis (1981: 260) have

affirmed that any instructional attempt without a reasonable knowledge of the nature of the curriculum could entail a discrepancy between the teacher's instructional plan and the curriculum plan. It may be to avoid such discrepancies that Tanner and Tanner (1980: 631), Oliver (1972: 55), Ornstein and Hunkins (1988: 231) have recommended the need for teacher's involvement in any kind of curriculum construction works. These scholars argue that a curriculum cannot be sought to have meaning for the individual teacher unless he/she is fully participated in developing it.

Another factor which affects the degree of curricular relevance to be attained in the instructional programme is the level of teacher's competence in curriculum implementation. As Mc.Donald (1978: 10) put it, what the teacher does directly affects how much children learn, develop, and change as a consequence of being exposed to instruction; and what a teacher does in the instruction programme, inturn, is directly influenced by the level of training and education he has acquired so far, Concerning this Lewey (1977: 71-72) emphasized on the adequacy of both initial and in-service training. Establishing good contact by curriculum designers with teacher training institutes is an important task to secure the would-be-teachers effectiveness in curriculum implementation. Similarly, Ornestein and Hunkins (1988: 228) have recommended the necessity of teachers' in-service training.

In a study conducted in Thailand with fifty elementary school teachers participated in an in-service teacher training programme, Nitsaisook and Anderson as cited in Anderson (1991: 85), reported an improvement in teachers' instructional performance as a result of the in-service training. In addition, Caillods and

Postlethwaite (1989: 182), in a study of teaching-learning processes in developing countries, indicated that pupils learn more under teachers who have under gone in-service teacher training courses with emphasis on practical activities than under teachers who have been to in-service courses of a theoretical nature only. Likewise, as Mekasha (1991: 69-72), in an evaluative study of the implementation of Home Economics Syllabus in the elementary schools of Keffa and Illubabor reported it, one of the likely causes for the ineffectiveness of teachers in implementing the curriculum was the total absence of workshop or on the job training exposure for teachers.

Moreover, the nature of the curriculum is said to have significant influence on the extent and ease of its implementation. Saunders and Williams (1983: 335), after having a comparative study of curriculum reform implementation, have shown that an inexplicit curriculum plan is highly susceptible to resistance or mistreatment by teachers in their day to day activities. Thus, as Gordon (1969: 3-4) indicated, a curriculum which does not specify the intents explicitly and which poorly communicates to the users closes the door for incorporating the demands of the actual life of the learner in the instructional plan and for enriching the contents with the resources of the local community.

As mentioned before the instructional programme could create the best opportunity for teachers to enrich the relevance of a curriculum to a given purpose of the learners. Generally, the three fundamental components of instruction (objectives, contents, and methods) are thought to be the major concerns of teachers to enrich curricular relevance. Accordingly the following instructional considerations are

recommended to be met by classroom teachers in enriching curricular relevance: (Duncan, 1989: 6-8; Cox, 1972: 56-64; Alberty and Alberty, 1963: 285-7; Lee and Lee, 1960: 193-4).

- translating the objectives of the curriculum plan interms of the demands of the actual life of the learner and in the contexts of the demands of life in the locality so as to enrich the vitality and practical meaningfulness of the learning outcomes that he/she is going to write in his/her daily lesson plan.
- introducing the learning outcomes sought to be attained to the learner by pinpointing their practical significance to the learner's day to day life.
- In developing and organizing the contents of instruction:\
  - . utilizing the actual experience of the learners.
  - . utilizing the community resources, structure and relationships.
  - . Proceeding from the immediate and concrete to the remote and obstruct things, events, and processes so that the structure or frame of reference from which the learner can best view his social and physical environments in a corresponding fashion.
- Emphasizing on the judious use of problem-centred teaching strategies
- Functional use of experience, facts, theory, and hypothesis which finally lead to discovery of solutions to the actual, day-to-day problems of the learner.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

As mentioned earlier, the major purpose of this study was to investigate the relevance of the primary school curriculum to the future roles of rural girls in the Silti area and to assess its impact upon their dropout. Yet it was quite difficult to identify from the outset the specific future roles of rural girls in the Silti area unless a thorough investigation was made to single out the most probable career or life pattern to which the largest segment of the girls would join in the future. With this in mind the following two stages were followed to gather the necessary information.

i) The first stage data gathering was carried out to identify the most probable career or life pattern to which the majority of rural Silti primary school girls would join at the middle or at the end of their primary schooling. In its purpose this stage resembles a needs assessment undertaking.

ii) Based on the results of the data gathered in the first stage, the instruments for collecting data relevant to the remaining three basic questions of this study were developed, tried out, and administered in the second stage data gathering program.

3.1 Subjects and Sampling Procedures

The universe of this study includes all the government schools found in rural Silti area. As mentioned before, the relevant data for this study gathered in two stages. Although the procedures followed in selecting the subjects for the two stages were the same, care was taken not to involve the sample schools and the respective respondents of the first stage data gathering in the subjects of the second stage.

In order to choose a representative sample population a multi-stage cluster sampling technique was employed. This sampling technique as to Koul (1995: 116), Kathari (1995: 81), and Babbie (1973: 96) is particularly used when it is either difficult to compile an exhaustive list of the elements comprising the target population, or when the target group to be covered becomes too large in number, or when the geographic distribution of units of the population is scattered. In this case, the statistical evidence obtained from the zonal education office indicated that in the study area there were 41 primary schools functioning in the 1995/96 academic year. These schools are scattered in a far - a part geographic locations. In addition to this, the nature of the problem investigated in this study demands the collection of information from rural parents and community figures whose number and distribution had not been available from the outset. Bearing all these into account a multi-stage cluster sampling technique was employed. Based on this, the woreda administrative division was used as a sampling frame. Accordingly, for the information sought in the first phase of this study nine schools were randomly selected from three woredas (Dalocha woreda, Lanfuro Woreda,

and Silti Woreda), three schools from each. And all the teachers and school directors of the sample schools were used as informants. In addition to this, all the girls enrolled in grades three through six in all the sample schools were included to the respondents. This was made because of the investigators assumption that the girls in grades 1 and 2 may be mentally and chronologically immature to offer the required information. As a result, 83 primary school teachers and directors and 91 school girls offered the desired information. Moreover, a total of `135 parents of rural school girls, of which 58 were women, were randomly selected (using a random table).

For the data gathered in the second stage twelve schools were randomly selected from the three Woredas (four from each Woreda). Here, the sample schools selected in the first phase data gathering were not included in the samples selected for the second phase. From all the sample schools all teachers who had been teaching in grades 2, 3, 4, and 6 were taken as informants. This brought the number of informant teachers to be 87. To this, 12 officials from woreda education bureaus were added. It is important to note here that in selecting respondent teachers grades 1 and 5 teachers were not included in the respondent subjects for it was the new curriculum that had been implemented in these grades in the 1995/96 academic year. The same procedure was followed in selecting teachers for the actual classroom observation. From the subjects taught in the four grades-grades 2, 3, 4, and 6 - only five subjects, that is, Science, Social Studies, Agriculture, Home economics, and Handicraft, were chosen to be observed while they were taught by the respective teachers. The selection of these subjects was made on the basis of the investigator's judgement that, more than the other subjects taught in the

primary schools, these subjects may be largely dealing with the physical, social, and cultural components of the environment. In addition to this, in his six years of service as a teacher trainer, the investigator has acquired the experience in evaluating teachers' instructional performance on the subjects mentioned here. And each subject in each grade was observed in two periods while it was taught by one teacher. As a result a total of twenty teachers were observed twice which resulted the observation sessions to be forty. Here the chance of observing the same teacher teaching the same subject at different grade levels was overruled.

In selecting respondent girls, for the same reason mentioned above, grades one and two were overlooked. It was all the 117 school girls of grades three through six in the sample schools who were interviewed. In addition, a total number of 189 parents were randomly selected (using random table), of which seventy-one were women. Moreover, a total of 37 dropout girls and 29 parents of the dropouts were interviewed to obtain the information sought.

3.2 Data Collection Instruments

To gather adequate information for the study, the following data gathering tools were employed - questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observation.

i) Questionnaires

Two sets of questionnaire were prepared in Amharic and administered for teachers and education officials. The first set of questionnaire, administered in the first stage data gathering period, employed to obtain information relevant to the first basic question of this study, that is, to which career(s) or life pattern(s) do most of rural Silti school girls would join? The questionnaire had three parts. The first part of the first set of the questionnaire consisted of the lists of possible careers or life patterns and the respondents were required to assign the rank for each career or life pattern on the basis of their estimation of the proportion of rural Silti primary school graduates who have been accommodated or absorbed by each career or life pattern. The second part of the items was arranged in a six-by-ten table (six rows indicating the careers or life patterns and ten columns indicating ten classes of percentage units having a range of ten percent). Corresponding to each career or life pattern the respondents were required to indicate the class to which their estimate of the proportion of rural Silti primary school graduating girls who have been joining each particular career or life pattern would fall.

The items in the third part of the first set of the questionnaire were largely open ended which needed the respondents to indicate the most probable career or life pattern for rural Silti primary school girls and to describe the roles, responsibilities, and specific duties which these girls are entitled to when they join that particular career or life pattern.

Another set of questionnaire was administered to teachers and officials of woreda education bureaus in the second stage data gathering period. This questionnaire

had three parts. The first part was prepared in the form of check-list to obtain information about whether or not the activities going on in schools match to the duties and responsibilities which rural Silti girls are entitled to in their present and future life. The identification of the specific duties and responsibilities which most of rural Silti school girls may assume in their future life was made on the basis of the findings of the preliminary investigation. The preliminary investigation revealed that marriage is the single most important "career" to which a significantly large proportion of school girls in the rural Silti area (about more than 70% of primary school graduates and almost all the dropouts) would join. Based on this finding the investigator had collected all the duties and responsibilities of a married rural women of the Silti area from the descriptions of the respondents. Then these duties and responsibilities were cross-checked and clarified by the investigator to constitute the items in the check-list. In addition to this the roles which research findings have suggested to be appropriate for rural girls and women in the developing countries, after having been adjusted to suit to the contexts of rural Silti area, were incorporated in the check-list. The face validity of the items in the check-list was judged by five native Silti intellectuals. Some items were discarded and others were added to the list based on the consensus of at least four of the five judges.

The items in the second part of the second set of the questionnaire consisted of items which required the respondent to offer his/her answers to various questions related to the second basic question. The items in the third section were prepared to obtain information related to the fourth basic question - the dropout pattern among rural Silti

primary school girls and the relative influence of curricular relevance upon it. With this perspective, then, a set of possible factors or causes of rural girls' primary school dropout were randomly listed and the respondents were sought to rank these causes according to their priority of influence upon rural primary school girls in the Silti area.

ii) Interviews

Three sets of structured interviews were administered in Siltigna language in order to obtain the required information from parents, local community leaders and school girls.

The first set of the interview format was developed to gather information regarding the most probable career statys if or life of rural Silti school girls and the duties and responsibilities expected from them. For this reason all the items administered for teachers in the first set of the questionnaire were included in the first set of the interview format. Besides these items, the interview format had a list of careers or life patterns among which the respondent was required to mark only one as an indication of the most expected career to be met in the future.

The second set of the interview format administered to the parents during the second stage data gathering period. The interview format was developed to find out possible answers for the third and fourth basic questions of this study, that is, to assess the perceived relevance of the primary school curriculum and to examine the dropout

patterns and causes in the Silti area. The items employed in the first and third parts of the second set of the questionnaire were employed here again to constitute the interview items.

The reason for using the items in the second set of the questionnaire to constitute the items for the second set of the interview format was that both the instruments were developed to investigate similar research questions, though administered to different groups. In addition to the items taken from the second set of the questionnaire, the second set of the interview format had items that attempted to uncover the feelings and observations of the parents regarding the education of rural Silti girls.

The third set of the interview format was prepared in Siltigna and administered to rural school girls and dropouts during the second stage data gathering period. The interview format included open-ended and close-ended questions some of which were to be answered by the school girls and/or by the dropouts.

iii) Classroom Observation

With the help of a classroom observation rating form prepared by the investigator the actual teaching learning process was examined. The purpose of the observation was to acquire information regarding how much the primary school curriculum was made relevant or meaningful to the rural Silti area students at the level of implementation so that its appropriateness to the roles of rural girls could be inferred.

The items in the rating form were adapted from the suggestions offered by some scholars regarding the considerations which a classroom teacher need to take care of in order to facilitate the meaningfullness of what he teaches to the learners.

All the items in the rating form were categorised under three major components namely, instructional objectives, contents, and methods. The face validity and exhaustiveness of the items in each component were assessed in a round table discussion made among five graduate students of curriculum and instruction and the investigator. Based on the comments obtained from the discussion some items were improved and some other items were added to the format. Finally the draft rating form was pretested in five classroom sessions of the schools selected for the try out. Through this those items which were found to be too general were refined for final use.

Based on the nature of each component, the items of a particular component were utilized in the actual observation sessions in a distinct way.

The items in the first section of the rating form were developed to assess wether or not the objectives written in the lesson plan fulfil each consideration in the list. Corresponding to each item or consideration the investigator indicated the number and percentage of the objectives which met the demands of that consideration. This procedure was adopted from the works of Abebe (1986: 39-58).

The items in the second part of the rating form were employed to assess the efforts made by classroom teachers in enriching the relevance of the content(s) of the lesson to the demands of the actual contexts of life in the study area. Here the investigator assigned mark in the "Yes" or "No" column corresponding to each consideration based on his judgement of whether or not that consideration was met in the actual teaching - learning process.

The third section of the rating form was prepared to find out the time spent for each method of instruction in a single session(period). In this section the three fundamental methods of instruction - lecture, discussion, and problem solving were stated in a three columns and the investigator wrote the time when that particular method was started to be used. And when a shift was made in the method of teaching, the investigator again wrote the starting time under the method to which the shift was made. This procedure was followed to the end of the session. Moreover the investigator has registered the length of time in which none of the methods were employed. The rating form was accompanied by some interview questions administered to the teacher being observed.

3.3 Methods of Data Analysis

Depending on the nature of the basic questions and the data collected, different statistical techniques were employed.

The instruments administered to answer the first basic question, that is, to which career(s) or status of life do most of rural Silti primary school girls would join? were summarised and interpreted in three different techniques. First, to determine the ranks of the careers listed in terms of the size of rural Silti girls estimated to be accommodated by each career, the mean rank of each career was calculated by multiplying the frequency of responses with the rank value given to it, summing the products and dividing it by the total number of respondents. Then rank was assigned to each of the mean-ranks; with the lowest mean - rank having the first rank, the next lowest the second rank, and the highest mean - rank getting the last rank. Thus the upper high rank could depict the major career that is said to have accommodated the largest segment of primary school graduated rural girls of the Silti area. Since the ranks were made by three groups of respondents the consistency among the three rank orders was examined by the use of rank difference correlation and the significance of the correlation coefficient was tested by a t-test statistics.

The respondents' estimation of the percentage of rural Silti primary school girls who were thought to have joined each career at the end of the primary school cycle was summarised by counting for each career the frequency of responses the estimation of which was falling to each class of percentage units.

The career expectation of rural Silti school girls and the career expectation of rural Silti parents for their daughters were separately summarised by calculating the percentage of the frequency of responses falling to each career.

Regarding the second basic question two kinds of instruments were employed. The first instrument was the 38 items check list administered for teachers and education officials. The thirty-eight items were categorised into ten groups by eight expert judges with a very high inter-judge reliability coefficient ($\mu = 0.92$). For each item and for each group or category the frequency of responses under the "Yes" and "No" columns were separately counted and changed into percentage units. And the significance of the difference between the proportions of the percentages revealing the "Yes" and "No" responses for each item and for each category was calculated by using a chi-square (x^2) test with alpha (μ) 0.05 level of significance.

The second instrument employed to answer the second basic question was classroom observation. The observation format had three parts. The items in the first section of the rating form were summarised by counting the number of objectives in the lesson plan that fulfilled the criterion indicated by each item and by calculating the percentage of this number from the total number of objectives stated in the lesson plan. The items in the second section of the rating form utilized to assess whether or not the contents of instruction and the ways they were organized and presented met the considerations listed. Here the "Yes" and "No" marks assigned for each consideration during the forty observation sessions were counted and changed into percentage units. The third section of the rating form was summarised by adding the length of time spent on employing each method of teaching in each session, and by computing the relative length of time (in percentage unit) spent on utilizing all the three methods of teaching. Then the relative length of time spent on each method in each session was used as a basis for deciding the frequency of application of that method in a given session.

The instruments developed to answer the third basic question of this study, that is, to assess the perceived relevance of the primary school curriculum to the future roles of rural Silti girls, a thirty-eight items interview was administered to parents. The items in the interview formats were the same items administered for the teachers and education officials through questionnaire except that the items in the former case were prepared in Siltigna and administered through interviews. For this reason the procedures employed in summarising and interpreting the thirty-eight items in the first part of the second set of the questionnaire were followed here too.

Finally the information obtained regarding the fourth basic question was summarised using a rank order. First the mean rank of each factor for rural Silti girls' primary school dropout was calculated by multiplying the frequency of responses with the rank value given to it, summing the products and dividing it by the total number of respondents. Then, rank was assigned to each of the mean-ranks; with the lowest mean-rank having the first rank, the next lowest the second rank, and the highest mean rank getting the last rank. Hence the upper high ranks could depict the major causes for rural Silti primary school girls' dropout. This procedure was employed two times to summarise the rank orders made by teachers and parents separately. The consistency of the rank-orders obtained from the rankings of these two groups of respondents was examined by using a rank-order correlation technique and the significance of the coefficient (r) was tested using a t-test statistical technique.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter the data collected through the questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation are presented with the help of tables and then followed by interpretation and discussion of the results to give answers for the five basic questions set in the study.

4.1 Results

4.1.1 Identification of the Most Probable Future Career or Prospects of Life for Rural Silti Primary School Girls

Each respondent in the three groups had ranked the six alternative careers or prospects of life on the basis of his/her estimation of rural Silti area primary school female graduates who join each career or prospect of life. The result obtained is summarized in table 1.

TABLE 1

Rank Order of the Careers or Prospects of Life In terms of their Accommodation of Rural Silti Primary Schools Female Graduates

Career or Prospect of Life	Rank Order		
	Parents (N=135)	Teachers (N=83)	Girls (N=91
Attendance in Junior Secondary Schools	4	4	3
Employment in government or public enterprise	6	6	6
Joining the family and staying at home	2	2	2
Marriage	1	1	1
Self-employment in the locality (such as local business or manufacturing local crafts)	3	3	5
Migration to urban centers in search of employment	5	5	4

As could be observed from table 1, marriage was ranked by all the three groups of respondents as the first priority prospect of life for the largest majority of rural Silti primary school female graduates. In other words, the three groups of respondents unanimously indicated

that the largest size of rural Silti girls who completed their primary schooling assume marriage as their first prospect of life. Next to marriage, staying with the family and serving the household was indicated as the second priority prospect of life for rural Silti area primary school graduate girls. This is followed by involvement in income generating activities such as business in the local market and producing local crafts. Table 1 further depicts that all the three groups of respondents described employment in government or public enterprises as the least probable prospect for rural Silti girls who completed their primary schooling.

Another important observation that could be made from table 1 is that in all cases the rankings of parents coincides with the rankings of teachers. It was only the rankings made by school girls which showed a slight difference from the other groups. Yet there is no difference among the rankings of all the three groups regarding the first and the second as well as the last ranked careers to be joined by rural Silti primary school female graduates. Moreover, the rank order correlation coefficient for the rankings of parents and school girls or for the rankings of teachers and school girls constituted, in either case, 0.83. The significance of the association computed using a t-test is found to be 2.97 which is significant with alpha 0.05. Another mechanism used to depict the future career or prospect of life of rural Silti area primary school female graduates was the assessment of the estimation made by respondents with regard to the proportion of female graduates who join each career or prospect of life. A summary of the estimations made by each group of respondents is indicated in table 2.

TABLE 2

Summary of Parents', Teachers', and Girls' Estimations of the Proportions of Female Primary School Graduates in the Rural Silti Area who Join Each Career or Prospect of Life.

Career or Prospect Of Life	Estimated Percentages of Girls Who Join each Career or Prospect of Life		
	Parents' Estimation	Teachers' Estimations	Girls' Estimations
Continuing junior secondary education	5.03	3.97	10.21
Securing employment in government or public enterprise	1.25	1.68	1.20
Staying with the family at home	9.70	12.53	12.71
Marrying	76.66	72.65	70.43
Engagement in self-employment such as local business	4.37	6.50	3.42
Migrating to urban areas in search of employment	2.00	2.65	1.91

Table 2 shows that the respondent parents, teachers, and school girls have estimated marriage to have accommodated about 76.6 percent, 72.6 percent and 70.4 percent, respectively, of the female primary school graduates in the rural Silti area. Next to this all the three groups of respondents have shown that the second largest group of female primary school graduates in the rural Silti area join their family and stay at home for unspecified length of time. As could be seen from table 2 there is inconsistency between the estimations of the respondents regarding the proportions of female graduates who join junior secondary schools. While respondent parents and girls identified attendance to junior secondary schools as having accounted for the third largest proportion of female graduates, respondent teachers' estimations put it at the fourth rank in terms of the size of female primary school graduates it accommodates. Again one could understand from table 2 that while the estimations made by teachers and school girls coincides with the rank orders which they have assigned to each career or prospect of life in table 1, parents' estimation for attendance to junior secondary schooling seems inconsistent with the rank order which they have assigned to the same career in table 1. That is, while parents ranked junior secondary schooling as the fourth ranking career for rural Silti primary school female graduates, their estimation here put it as the third important career for the same group of girls.

Nevertheless the estimations of all the three groups of respondents unanimously reveal marriage as the first prospect of life that accommodates the largest majority of female graduates from rural Silti area primary schools. On the other hand, each of the other careers or prospects of life were estimated to have accommodated less than 13 percent of the female graduates of rural Silti area primary schools. Moreover respondent parents and girls were instructed to

identify the single career or prospect of life which they expect it to be the first priority. The summary of the result is indicated in table 3.

TABLE 3

Summary of the Career Expectations of Rural Silti Area School Girls and the Career Expectations of Rural Silti Area Parents for their Schooling Daughters at the End of the Primary School Cycle

Career	Girls		Parents	
	No.	%	No.	%
Continuing junior secondary schooling	33	36.2	21	15.5
Employment in government or public enterprises	9	9.8	6	4.4
Staying with the family at home	0	0.0	1	0.74
Marrying	47	51.6	101	74.7
Creating self employment (small scale local business, manufacturing local crafts etc).	2	2.2	4	2.9
Going to urban areas in search of employment	0	0.0	2	1.4

A close observation of table 3 depicts that among the 91 respondent primary school girls, 47 (51.6 percent) girls have indicated that they will marry soon after completing their

primary schooling. The second largest group, 33 girls (36.2 percent) have planned to continue their junior secondary schooling. This is followed by 9 (9.8 percent) girls who have the expectation to secure jobs in government or private enterprises.

When it comes to the responses of parents, table 3 reveals that among 135 parents 101 (74.7 percent) have indicated marriage as the single priority future prospect of life which they expect it for their primary school graduate daughters. The proportions of the parents who expected their primary school graduating daughters to join junior secondary schools is found to be 21 (15.5 percent). Table 3 further shows that it was only 6 (4.4 percent) parents who expected their daughters to work in the government or private enterprises. A very important observation that could be made from the result in table 3 is that although about 36 percent of the school girls have expected to join junior secondary school in the future this expectation of the girls failed to correspond with the expectation of a somewhat equal proportion of the parents, for it was only 15.5 percent of the parents who aspired junior secondary school for their daughters in the future. Indeed, for it is the parent who can make the final decision on the continuation or termination of daughter's schooling (King and Hill, 1993: 26), the aspirations of the respondent girls for junior secondary education seems to be impractical unless it is matched by the will of the parents.

With regard to dropouts respondent parents and teachers have estimated the proportion of adolescent girls who get married within two years of school leaving. The result is summarized in table 4.

TABLE 4

Estimated Percentage of Rural Silti Area Adolescent Dropout Girls Who Got Married within Two Years of School Leaving

Percentage Classes (%)	Frequency of Estimations to Each Percentage Class			
	Parents		Teachers	
	No.	%	No.	%
0-20	-	-	-	-
21-40	-	-	-	-
41-60	4	2.96	1	1.20
61-80	14	10.37	6	7.22
81-100	117	86.66	76	91.56

As table 4 depicts, about 86.6 percent of the respondent parents and about 91.5 percent of respondent teachers indicated that more than eighty percent of the adolescent dropout girls from rural primary schools of the Silti area would marry within two years of school leaving. A close look at table 4 also demonstrates that more than 97% of respondent parents and about 99

percent of respondent teachers have shown that more than sixty percent of the adolescent girls who dropout their primary schooling in the rural Silti area would marry within two years of school leaving.

The figures in table 4, however do not consider young female dropouts who have not reached at marriageable age, for the obvious reason that young female dropouts could only join the family and stay at home until they reach at the customary age of marriage.

In general the results obtained from tables 1-4 have identified marriage as the single priority career or prospect of life for more than seventy percent of the female graduates and for more than eighty percent of the female adolescent dropouts from rural primary schools of the Silti area.

4.1.2 The Relevance of the Primary School Curriculum to the Roles of Rural Girls in the Silti Area

Respondent teachers and education officials were provided with a 38 items checklist. The items in the checklist designate the roles or responsibilities of rural Silti girls and women. The respondent is required to determine whether or not the activities carried out in the primary schools correspond with each role or responsibility indicated in the checklist. The responses summarized in ten categories as shown in table 5.

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TABLE 5

Summary of Teachers' Ratings of the Correspondence Between the Primary School Curriculum and the Roles of Rural Girls in the Silti Area

Category	Girls' Present and Future Roles	Frequency of Responses (Average)				X^2
		Yes		No		
		No.	%	No.	%	
1	Planning, preparing and preserving local food items from locally available resources	24	24.24	75	75.75	25.25
2	Child care and development	26	26.26	73	73.73	21.37
3	Involvement in various agricultural activities	37	37.37	62	62.62	*5.81
4	Maintaining environmental sanitation	61	61.61	38	38.38	*4.88
5	Rejecting harmful traditional practices	36	36.36	63	63.63	6.82
6	Wise utilization of local resources	31	31.31	68	68.68	13.09
7	Manufacturing local crafts for household and commercial purposes	34	34.34	65	65.65	9.09
8	Involving in local business activities	71	71.71	28	28.28	17.81
9	Recognizing the purposes of and the activities involved in maternal car	27	27.27	72	71.71	19.55
10	Aspiring for and involvement in leadership practices at home and in society.	29	29.29	70	70.70	16.16

*Pis Significant at 0.05

N.B. Refer Apendix H for the Chi-square values calculated separately for the items jin each category

As can be seen from table 5, among the 99 respondent teachers and education officials, 62 (62.62 percent) of them have shown that the activities carried out in the primary schools do not correspond with eight (80 percent) of the ten categories of tasks and responsibilities to which rural Silti girls are entitled. In other words more than 62 percent of the respondent teachers and education officials feel that eight of the ten categories of tasks and responsibilities of rural Silti girls were not meaningfully represented in the primary school curriculum. The categories of tasks which were identified as being deprived of proper representation in the primary school curriculum are:

- The planning, preparation, and preservation of local food items from locally available resources.
- Child care and development.
- Manufacturing local crafts for house hold and commercial purposes.
- Aspiring for and involvement in leadership practices at home and in society.
- Avoiding harmful traditional practices.
- Wise utilization of local resources.
- Maternal care.
- Involvement in various agricultural activities.

The proportions of respondents who indicated the poorly representation of these categories of tasks range from about sixty three percent (for involvement in various agricultural activities) to about seventy-six percent (for the planning, preparation and

preservation of local food items using locally available resources). The computed chi-square value for the former is 5.81 and for the later is 25.25 which reveal a statistically significant difference at alpha (a) 0.05, and 0.01, respectively.

Contrary to the results mentioned above, as could be seen from table 5, more than three fifth (61 percent) of the respondent teachers and education officials have shown that the proper handling of environmental sanitation has been meaningfully treated in the primary school curriculum in a manner which rural Silti girls could apply it in their day to day life. Since the computed chi-square value (4.88) is greater than the tabulated chi-square value (3.84) with alpha (a) 0.05, there is a statistically significant difference between the proportion of respondents who affirmed the proper representation of environmental sanitation in the primary school curriculum and those who feel otherwise. Similarly about 71.71 percent of respondent teachers and education officials have indicated the relevance of the activities carried-out in the primary schools to the development of the necessary knowledge and skills employed in local business activities. Here also the computed chi-square value is found to be 17.81, which is significant with alpha (a) 0.01 level of significance. Hence a significantly higher proportion of the respondents feel that the primary school curriculum has given appropriate coverage for the cultivation of knowledge and skills involved in local business activities which rural Silti girls are required to possess.

4.1.3 The Perceived Relevance of the Primary School Curriculum to the Roles of Rural Girls in the Silti Area

The same checklist was employed to obtain information from parents regarding the perceived relevance of the curriculum. The summary of the result is shown in table 6.

TABLE 6 Summary of Parents' Ratings of the Correspondence Between the Activities Carried out in the Primary Schools and the Roles of Rural Girls in the Silti Area

Category	Girls' Present and Future Roles	Frequency of Responses (Average)				X^2
		Yes		No		
		No.	%	No.	%	
1	Planning, preparing, and preserving local food items from locally available resources	35	18.5	154	81.5	73.67
2	Child care and development	45	23.80	144	76.20	50.81
3	Involvement in various agricultural activities	66	34.92	123	65.08	16.59
4	Maintaining environmental sanitation	58	30.68	131	69.32	27.42
5	Rejecting harmful traditional practices	70	37.03	119	62.97	12.19
6	Wise utilization of local resources	55	29.10	134	70.90	32.19
7	Manufacturing local crafts for household and commercial purposes	72	38.09	117	61.91	10.24
8	Involving in local business activities	134	70.89	55	29.11	32.19
9	Recognizing the purposes of and the activities involved in maternal care	40	21.16	149	78.84	61.71
10	Aspiring for and involvement in leadership practices at home and in society.	149	78.84	40	21.16	61.71

N.B. Refer Appendix - I for the Chi-square values calculated separately for the items in each catagory.

As could be observed from table 6, two of the ten categories of tasks and responsibilities, namely, engagement in local business activities and aspiration for and involvement in decision making practices at home and in society were perceived by 70.9 percent and 78.8 percent of the respondent parents, respectively, as areas that are properly treated by the primary school curriculum. The computed chi-square values for these categories of tasks and responsibilities were 32.19 and 61.71, respectively, which reveal a statistically significant difference. More specifically, the proportion of respondent parents who perceive the activities in the primary schools to be relevant to the duties and responsibilities involved in local business and leadership practices which rural Silti girls are supposed to assume is significantly higher than the proportion of parents who perceived the activities in the primary schools to be impertinent to the duties and responsibilities under discussion.

Contrary to the result mentioned above, table 6 shows that more than three-fifth (61.9 percent) of the respondent parents perceive the activities carried out in the primary schools to be irrelevant to eight (80 percent) of the ten categories of roles which rural Silti girls are entitled now and in the future. These categories of roles are:

-the planning, preparation and preservation of local food items from locally available resources

- child care and development
- involvement in various agricultural activities
- manufacturing local crafts for household and commercial purposes

- wise utilization of local resources
- maternal care
- maintaining environmental sanitation
- rejecting harmful traditional practices

The proportions of the respondent parents who perceive the activities carried out in the primary schools to be inappropriate to yield the abilities and skills required in executing the duties mentioned above range from 61.9 percent (for manufacturing local crafts) to 81.5 percent (for the planning, preparation, and preservation of local food items using locally available resources). The computed chi-square values were found to be 10.24 for the former and 73.67 for the later, in either case, revealing a statistically significant difference, with alpha (a) 0.01 level of significance.

4.1.4 Instructional Attempts Made to Enrich the Relevance of the Curriculum to the Roles of Rural Silti Girls

The following three tables (tables 7A, 7B, and 7C) show the results obtained from the class room observations. The observations were aimed at identifying the attepts made by primary school teachers in enhancing curricular relevance through instruction. The results were discussed under three major instructional components,namely, objectives, contents, and methods.

TABLE 7A

Results of the Assessment of Objectives

Item No.	Level of Statement and Significance of the Objectives	Frequency of Objectives	
		No.	%
1	Objectives written in too general terms	68	78.16
2	Objectives stated in precise and measurable terms	19	22.83
3	Objectives that give due attention to the actual demands of the life of rural Silti girls	18	20.68
4	Objectives introduced to the students at the beginning of the session	31	35.60
5	Objectives introduced in connection with the actual demands of the life of rural Silti girls	9	10.34

N.B. Total number of objectives were 87

TABLE 7B

Results of the Assessment of Contents

Item No.	Instructional Consideration	Number of Sessions in which each Instructional Consideration was Fulfilled	
		No.	%
1	Connecting the contents with the actual resources of the locality	11	32.35
2	Utilizing the immediate experience of rural Silti girls to enrich the meaningfulness of the contents to be taught	6	17.64
3	Organizing the contents of instruction in a logical order	14	41.17

TABLE 7C

Results of the Assessment of Methods

Item No.	Method	Frequency of Application of Methods			
		Frequently Used		Rarely Used	
		No.	%	No.	%
1	Lecture Method	23	67.64	7	20.58
2	Discussion Method	8	23.52	5	14.70
3	Problem solving and related methods	3	8.82	4	11.76

From table 7A one can observe that among the 87 objectives written in the 34 lesson plans, 68 (78 percent) of them were written in a rather too general terms. In other words, 68 (78 percent) of the 87 objectives were stated in the lesson plans in a manner that do not precisely and measurably indicate the behavioural outcomes sought to be attained by the students after they have learned a given learning task. Table 7A further depicts that among the 87 objectives written in the lesson plans it was only 18 (20.68

percent) objectives that were clearly addressing the demands of the actual life of rural Silti girls. Moreover although teachers attempted to introduce to the students 31 (35.6 percent) of the 87 objectives, it was only 9 (10 percent) objectives that were introduced in connection with the day-to-day life problems of rural Silti girls.

Concerning the contents of instruction in the 34 sessions, table 7B shows that it was in 11 (32.4 percent) of the 34 sessions that teachers attempted to enrich the contents of the lessons with the actual resources of the locality and in 6 (17.6 percent) sessions that they enriched the lessons with the immediate experience of rural Silti girls. Table 7B further depicts that among the 34 sessions observed, it was in 14 (41.2 percent) of the sessions that the contents of instruction were organized in a pattern that flows from the simple, concrete, and specific things and ideas to the complex, abstract, and general ones.

A look at table 7C reveals that among the 34 sessions observed the lecture method of teaching was employed in 23 (67.64 percent) sessions frequently and in 7 (20.58 percent) sessions rarely. Next to this it was the discussion method of teaching that was employed in eight sessions frequently and in 5 (14.70 percent) sessions rarely. Moreover, table 7C depicts that it was only in 3 (8.82 percent) of the 34 observed sessions that problem solving and related methods were employed frequently and in 4 (11.76 percent) sessions rarely. Therefore, the rank of the methods of teaching in terms of the frequency of utilization of each method by the observed teachers follows the order of lecture method, discussion method, and problem solving and related methods.

Another important point discovered from the observation is that it was only in 16 sessions that teachers were observed to employ more than one method of teaching. In the rest 18 (52.9 percent) sessions teachers were utilizing only one method of teaching, that is, lecture method. In other words, in 18 of the 34 sessions lecture method was totally utilized from the beginning to the end of the sessions. In these sessions teachers were observed while talking continuously in front of the passively attending students.

4.1.5 The Impact of Curricular Irrelevance on the Drop-out Rate of Rural Girls in the Silti Area

Before investigating the impact of curricular irrelevance on the dropout rate, attempt was made to assess the magnitude of the dropout in Silti area. A summary of two years dropout patterns in ten rural primary schools of the Silti area is shown in table 8.

Table 8

Summary of Primary School Participation and Dropout Rates of Boys and Girls in Ten Selected Rural Primary Schools of the Silti Area in 1986 and 1987 Academic Years.

Grades							1987 E					
	Male			Female			Male			Female		
	Total Enrollment	No. of Drop-outs	Drop-out Rate (%)	Total Enrollment	No.of Drop-outs	Drop-outs Rate(%)	Total Enrollment	No.of Drop-out	Drop-outs Rate(%)	Total Enrollment	No.of Drop-out	Drop-outs Rate(%)
1	1093	376	34.52	268	122	45.53	1246	369	29.61	372	161	43.27
2	423	91	21.51	79	21	26.58	597	117	19.59	139	33	23.74
3	372	69	18.54	41	9	21.95	413	67	16.22	42	8	19.04
4	223	26	11.65	27	4	14.81	253	24	9.48	31	4	12.89
5	167	14	8.38	23	3	13.04	192	13	6.77	22	2	9.09
6	122	3	2.45	13	1	7.69	141	3	2.12	17	1	5.88

An investigation into the results in table 8 reveals that at all grade levels the relative proportion of rural Silti area girls' dropout exceeds that of boys'. This means that a relatively higher proportion of rural Silti area primary school girls leave their schooling before the end of the academic year than rural Silti area primary school boys. This is consistent with the findings of Briemer and Poul (1971: 173), MOE, (1988: 23) who reported the highest rate of girls' withdrawal than boys' withdrawal from all grades of the primary school cycle. Moreover a pair wise comparison of the rate of rural Silti area primary school female dropout with the 1994/95 primary school girls dropout rate obtained at the national level-that registered .4257, .1990, .1759, .1061, .0850, and .0217, for grades one through six, respectively (MOE, 1996: 110)-shows that the rates of rural primary school girls' dropout in Silti area exceed the national female dropout rates of all the primary school grades. This difference might be attributed to the inclusion of urban schools for the data obtained at the national level, in which case, the rate of girls dropout is found to be less than the rate of girls dropout from rural schools (Hartley and Swanson, 1986: 14).

Another important observation that could be made from table 8 is that, for all sexes, the highest dropout rate is recorded at the first grade, and right from the first grade, the dropout rate follows a decreasing pattern. This coincides with the findings of Adane (1991: 105), and MOE (1995: 116) who reported the highest rate of the incidence of school leaving at the early years of schooling and the decreasing pattern of the dropout rate, for both sexes, from the first through the last grades of the primary school cycle.

In identifying the impact of curricular irrelevance on the dropout rate of rural Silti girls, first, ten possible causes for girls' dropout were identified and presented to each respondent. The respondents, then, ranked the ten possible causes in terms of their priority of influence upon rural Silti primary school girls. The result is summarised in table 9.

TABLE 9

Results of the Rankings of Parents and Teachers on the Causes for Rural Silti Area Girls' Primary School Dropout

Item No.	Causes for Dropout	Parents' Ranking	Teachers' Ranking	Mean Rank
1	Failure to pay school fees and to buy learning materials	6	8	7
2	Early Marriage	1	1	1
3	Elongated illness	7	9	8
4	Long distance between school and home	5	6	5.5
5	Demand for girls' labour at home	2	3	2.5
6	Death of parents or guardians	10	10	10
7	Shifting to Koran Schools	8	5	6
8	Irrelevance of the curriculum to the roles of rural Silti girls	3	2	2
9	Academic failure	9	7	8
10	Lack of the future prospect of girls' education to create employment opportunities for rural Silti girls	4	4	4

From table 9 one can see that early marriage as a cause for rural Silti area girls primary school dropout is ranked first by all groups of respondents. In other words, the

two groups of respondents (parents and teachers) have shown that marriage is the first priority cause for the withdrawal of rural Silti girls from their primary schooling.

Table 9 also shows that the demand for girls labour was ranked as the second factor of rural Silti girls primary school dropout by the respondent parents where as it was ranked third by the respondent teachers. Then the irrelevance of the curriculum to the roles of rural Silti area girls was ranked as a second and third ranking factor by the respondent teachers and parents, respectively. Table 9 further depicts that lack of the future prospect of girls' education to create employment opportunities for rural girls in the Silti area and the existence of long distance between school and home were ranked as the fourth and fifth reasons, respectively, of rural Silti girls' primary school dropout. In general, the results obtained from table 9 reveal that the first five major causes for rural Silti area girls' withdrawal from primary schools are, in their order of priority, early marriage, curricular irrelevance for the roles of rural Silti girls, the demand for girls' labour at home and in the farm, lack of the future prospect of girls' education to create employment opportunities for rural Silti girls, and the occurrence of long distance between school and home.

The degree of association between the rankings of parents and teachers, calculated using the rank order correlation technique, is found to be 0.85. The significance of this value, computed using a t-test statistics, is found to be 4.56, which is significant with alpha (a) 0.01.

4.2 Discussion

The results obtained from tables 1 through 4 revealed that more than seventy percent of female graduates from rural Silti area primary schools and more than eighty percent of adolescent female dropouts will, sooner or later, marry and form a family. In addition, it was found out that a very insignificant proportion (less than 11 percent) of rural Silti area primary school girls could manage to continue their junior secondary schooling. It is also important to note that besides those girls whose marriage is automatic at the end of their primary schooling, the primary school graduating girls who stay with their family and those who are involved in income generating activities could not postpone their marriage for a long period of time.

After all, in a traditional society marriage is a social obligation to be assumed by every member of the society. Likewise, one of the abiding intentions for which marriage is sought among the Silti's has been expressed in the popular proverb "one really becomes a person only when one has children: one must, therefore, enter into a union." The implication of this proverb is that it is through marital union that one can produce offsprings and it is by producing offsprings that one could perpetuate the extension of the family and the kinship. Yet, it is not only the realization of the extension of the family and the kinship that justifies the sole purpose of producing offsprings through marital union. It seems a common outlook among Siltis, as it is among all other Guragaes, to consider children not only as the current wealth but also as a security for the future existence of the family. This outlook, in fact, seems to have

been evolved from the economic supports and social welfare which Silti parents have long been acquiring from their children when they get old. It appears therefore that all these advantages of having many children may constitute one of the major justifications for rural Silti area parents' strong aspiration for their daughters' marriage at an early age.

Even though matrimony is practically a certainty for all Siltis, there is a wide age difference between Silti boys and girls at the time of their first marriage. While the usual age at which Silti boys first marry is between 18 and 20, girls tend to first marry between 13 and 14, which is about 5.5 years later. This age differential may in part be explained by the difficulties which rural Silti boys must encounter in collecting the bride wealth and in establishing an independent economic and residential bases for the forthcoming family. In a similar vein, Locoh (1990:478) has discovered the difficulty which traditional African boys encounter in collecting a bride wealth as one of the major reasons for delaying the age at which boys first marry. In addition to this, for dowry is a voluntary practice among the very insignificant proportion of the well-to-do-families, it appears that economic barriers do not deter Silti girls, as they do Silti boys, to marry at an early age.

The strong aspiration of rural Silti parents for their daughters' early marriage has a social implication too. Although the customary age at which a rural Silti boy first marries is between 18 and 20, there is little social or cultural restrictions that rule out the postponement of his marriage upto 24 or 25. In contrast to this, a rural Silti girl who

postpones her first marriage above 15 is socially despised as "yegegurz " - meaning overaged to the normative engagement. In the bride agreement the so called" yegegurz" could not claim the status accrued for engagement at the normative age. This might have caused the parents in the rural Silti area to favour their daughters' early marriage instead of a relatively long years of schooling.

Some research findings have shown the importance of native educated female role models in initiating the parents to aspire a relatively higher level education for their daughters (Hyde, 1993: 123). In relation to this it has been observed that the recent vacancy announcements that encourage native "Siltigna" speaking girls to apply for various positions in the Silti Woreda governmental offices have failed to get applicant girls who can meet the requirements, that is, at least tenth grade completion. Moreover from his long years of experience the researcher has observed the meagre size of native girls who managed to complete senior secondary schooling and secure jobs in the modern labour market. These clearly show the scarcity of native females who have learned to the level at which they can claim at least lower level jobs in the modern sector. This may cause the parents to believe that girls' education could not bring economic returns for themselves and for their families. It might be, therefore, the absence of native female role models who have acquired the economic benefits of their education that could have led the parents to prefer marriage rather than continuing schooling for their daughters.

Another major reason that facilitates marriage at the early age of schooling among rural Silti girls could be related to the values and norms of the society. Silti people are predominantly Muslims. For uncertain reasons there is a growing family demand upon Silti girls to conform to strict religious (Muslim) norms which were not widely practised in the area about a decade ago. In relation to this, there are some evidences which reveal the suspicion of rural Silti parents regarding the effect of long years of schooling for their daughters. In an open ended interview questions which required the parents to mention some of the undesirable effects of schooling on adolescent girls, the most frequently mentioned effects were openness in sexual behaviours and reluctance to engage in traditional household duties. It appears, therefore, that Silti parents may have considered their daughters' marriage, particularly at an early age of schooling, as an outlet to avoid the moral and physical risks associated with the advent of adolescence in the girls and, thereby, to sustain the honour and reputation of the family. Similar findings were reported by Khan (1986: 22) who discovered parental suspicion on the effects of girls formal schooling as a reason for high rate of marital engagement among school girls in India.

Moreover, it is likely that if a girl in the rural area leaves her schooling, for any reason, the probability that she would marry soon may be very high. Similarly, Locoh (1990: 488) has found out a positive association between the age at which school girls in sub-Saharan African countries first marry and the number of years spent in schools. It appears therefore that the factors that could have caused early school leaving among rural Silti girls might have facilitated Silti parents' decisions in favour of their daughters'

marriage rather than schooling. Hence, as Bowman and Anderson (1982: 19) and Tilak (1987: 270) have discovered in the Third World and in East Asia, respectively, there might be some common factors that explain rural Silti girls' early marriage as well as their school withdrawal. And this issue will be discussed in depth at the end of this chapter.

The results obtained in table 5 clearly show that a significantly higher proportion of the respondent teachers and education officials (about sixty three percent) have indicated the activities carried out in the primary schools to be impertinent to develop the knowledge, skills, and experience which rural Silti girls require to play eight (eighty percent) of the ten major roles for which they are accountable at home and in society in their present and future life. A close observation of the roles (refer table 5) reveals that except the two, namely, decision making role and rejecting harmful traditional practices, all the rest are, in essence, the roles to which rural Silti area girls are traditionally entitled.

Rural Silti girls' traditional roles could find their origin, definition, justification, and the way they are transmitted through generations, within the actual contexts of the Silti area. For instance, the common food items in the rural Silti area (Atekano, Kumuso, etc.) are quite different from the stable food items of some other areas in their type, in the resources they are prepared from, in the skills required to prepare them, in the mode of transmitting these skills to the younger generation, and in the values attached to them. Again if one examines the mode of child care and development in Silti area one could find some typical child initiation and socialization practices that are

not common to some other regions. This does not rule out, however, the existence of uniform traditional practices among different societies due to similarities in socio-economic and cultural backgrounds, and due to the effect of assimilation. Nevertheless, the existence of similar roles among women of different societies or regions does not imply the universality of the inherent nature of these roles for, although some roles are common for women of different societies in their crudest form, the specific definitions of these roles and the socio-economic and cultural settings in which these roles are played are quite different. It appears, therefore, that the discrepancy revealed between the activities carried out in the primary schools and the activities involved in executing eight of the ten major roles of rural Silti girls is largely explained by the highly national and universal orientation of the former (MOE, 1994: 5) and the localized and culture-specific nature of the latter. In other words, the discrepancy between the activities encountered in the primary schools and the activities involved in playing the traditional roles among rural Silti girls may be explained by the absence of consideration given to the cultivation of the roles under discussion in the intentions of primary education. Indeed it is not surprising to find the national curriculum of Ethiopia as having overlooked the cultivation of the traditional roles of rural Silti girls for it has long been criticized as meaningless and inappropriate to the actual contexts of the life of Ethiopian students in general (Gettagnom, 1958: 140; Tadesse, 1974: 15; Tekeste, 1991: 74) and the contexts of rural life in particular (Aklilu, 1968: 8).

Another important finding obtained from the results in table 5 is that about seventy-one percent of the respondents have shown that the activities carried out in the

primary schools do not cultivate rural Silti girls' aspiration for and involvement in leadership practices at home and in society. This finding coincides with the finding of MOE (1989: 6-7) which, after having made a content analysis of 53 textbooks, reported that most of the textbooks, both in their descriptive statements and in their pictorial expressions, have reflected male's exclusive fitness to leadership roles while describing girls as a subject to be ruled. Similarly, a survey made by the same author has discovered a pattern of classroom interactions in which males are dominant over females in assuming group leadership, classroom monitorship and in facilitating various academic and non-academic activities (Ibid). Thus, the failure of the primary school curriculum to cultivate the knowledge and skills required to play leadership roles at home and in society among rural Silti girls may be emanated from the gender stereotypic orientation of the curriculum that frequently and improportionally demonstrates males as leaders and facilitators.

A look at table 5 once again reveals that a significantly higher proportion (about seventy-two percent) of respondent teachers and education officials have shown the congruency between the activities carried out in schools and the activities involved in business ventures in the local markets of the Silti area in which rural Silti girls are highly participating. There is ample literature that describes the positive impact of the mathematical knowledge acquired in schools in enhancing computation ability required in business activity (Keeves, 1973: 47-48). Hence, the meaningfulness of the activities carried out in schools to the activities sought by rural Silti girls in their local business endeavours might be explained by the positive transference of the mathematical

knowledge and skills acquired in schools to the computation skills required in the local business ventures.

In a nutshell the examination of the results in table 5 showed the mismatch between the activities involved in the primary school curriculum and most of the day-to-day activities and responsibilities of rural Silti girls. It appears that the irrelevance of the national curriculum to the actual contexts of the life of students in a given locally could be largely explained by the centralized nature of the curriculum. More specifically, owing to its philosophy, in a centralized curriculum, the aims and goals of education are geared to focus largely on the national and universal needs and interests; the contents are developed to emphasize on the broad national and universal aspects of knowledge and experience; and there is little room for the participation of local communities, parents, and teachers in the curriculum development processes. It is obvious that all these conditions create distance between what is planned and implemented in schools and what is supposed to be desirable education for the students of a given locality. And yet these barriers to curricular relevance are the attributes or effects of a centralized curriculum. Hence, the centralized nature of the national (Ethiopian) primary school curriculum, both in its intent, emphasis, and mode of development, appears to have constituted the fundamental reason for the irrelevance of the curriculum to the actual demands of life among rural Silti girls.

The results obtained from table 6 revealed that a significantly large proportion of respondent parents perceive the activities carried out in the primary schools to be

impertinent to eight (eighty percent) of the ten major roles to which rural Silti girls are entitled in their present and future life.

It is quite obvious that parents' appraisal of the activities carried out in schools, especially in areas where parents and the community have poor linkage with the schools, may not be based on the observation of what is actually going on in schools. Rather their appraisal of the schools' activities seems to be largely based on the judgement of what the parents have generalized as the implied effects of schooling upon their daughters. In relation to this, it has been found out that among the 189 respondent parents selected for this study 147 (78.7 percent) of them feel that school girls are inferior to their counterparts at home (girls who are not attending schools). In addition to this, as mentioned before, in an open ended interview which required the parents to indicate the undesirable effects of formal education upon their daughters, the most frequently mentioned effects of girls' schooling were openness in sexual conduct and reluctance to assume traditional household duties for which the girls are entitled. It appears, therefore, that the perceived poor linkage between the activities carried out in schools and the traditional roles and responsibilities of rural Silti girls and women might have been evolved from the respondents' assumption that reveals the poor performance of school girls to their counterparts at home in executing the traditional household duties. This perceived poor performance level of the school girls in traditional household duties, in turn, might have been explained by the forgoing of home based training offered by their mothers, which would school girls have acquired had they been stayed at home. In a similar vein, King and Hill (1993: 26) have reported that in a

traditional society where girls are confined to assume only marital life as their only future prospect, by relying upon the knowledge and skills imparted by their mothers, then, attending formal schools among the girls is considered by parents as missing traditional home based training which is indispensable for the girls when they assume marital life.

There is no doubt that what is learned in schools is, in principle, determined by the intentions of education for which schools are established. In some countries the intentions of education set may be congruent with the demands of actual life whereas in other areas they may assume complete divergence. In a situation where the latter case is a rule rather than an exception, parents may develop a suspicion towards the education system. Likewise, the Ethiopian education system which is said to be theoretical (MOE, 1994: 4) and geared to certification (Tekeste, 1991: 74-6) and which is primarily aimed at preparing children for the next level or cycle of education may be invariant with the kind of education that rural Silti parents, whose daughters have marriage as the only likely prospect of life, need for their daughters. This might be one of the sources for the perceived poor linkage between the activities in the schools and the major traditional roles of rural Silti girls and women. This coincides with the findings of Khan who reported that rural parents in Bangladesh tend to perceive the curriculum to be relevant for their daughters if it provides the skills and abilities that are consistent with the roles anticipated for girls when they marry (Khan, 1986: 28).

Moreover the results obtained from table 6 show that a significantly higher proportion of the parents perceive the activities carried out in the primary schools to be

relevant to cultivate the necessary knowledge and skills which rural Silti girls need to develop in order to involve in business activities in the local markets. Studies made in different countries have discovered a positive contribution of the mathematical knowledge acquired in schools to the development of basic computation skills required in local business activities (Keeves, 1973: 47-8). It appears, therefore, that the perceived fitness between the activities in schools and the role which rural Silti girls are supposed to play in the local business ventures may reveal the respondents' understanding of the positive association between the mathematical knowledge and skills acquired in schools and the computation skills that are necessary for business engagement.

In Silti area one can easily observe the massive involvement of girls and women in local business activities. Business among the Silti girls and women means especially the buying and selling of anything marketable. Females in the rural Silti area do not limit their business activities in their village, rather they extend their business activities to the towns of the neighbouring woredas on the weekly marketing days. Indeed business in Silti area is one of the few gender-free out-door activities upon which males and females are embarked. This suggests the need for providing adequate coverage in the primary school curriculum for the development of elementary knowledge and skills which rural Silti girls require in their day-to-day business endeavours. Thus, besides basic mathematics, it seems appropriate for the schools to acquaint rural Silti girls with the elementary procedures of saving, credit, marketing etc.

The results of the classroom observations obtained from table 7A clearly show the failure among teachers to translate the objectives of the curriculum plan in precise

learning outcomes and in a manner that gives practical meaning to the demands of the actual life of rural Silti girls. Moreover, as table 7B depicts, teachers have made very little attempt to organize the contents of instructions in connection with the available local resources and in relation to the immediate experience of rural Silti girls. Furthermore, the results obtained from table 7C show that it was not only that lecture method was used dominantly in most (67.64 percent) of the observed sessions, it was also used throughout the whole period in eighteen (52.9 percent) of the observed sessions as an end in itself, and not as a means of facilitating discussion and enquiry among the students.

Although there is a growing argument among educators as to how generally or specifically should objectives be stated (Abebe, 1986: 52-54), there seems to be a concensus that rules out the practice of writing objectives either in too broad or too specific terms. It is also quite clear that the level of generality of the objectives needs to be minimized as they are translated from the curriculum plan into the day-to-day instructional plan so that the instructional outcomes could be stated in the lesson plans in a precise terms. Regarding this the result obtained from the interviews made with the twenty observed teachers has shown that thirteen (65 percent) of them were copying the objectives in the syllabus into their lesson plans as they are. This practice seems to be the major reason not only for teachers' failure to write the instructional objective of the daily lesson plans in a reasonably precise terms, but also for their failure to enrich the meaningfulness of the instructional objectives to the actual demands of the life of rural Silti girls.

Moreover fourteen (70 percent) of the twenty teachers interviewed have shown that they are exclusively confined to the textbooks and directly copy them to develop and organize lecture notes and notes for the students. The attempt which the investigator made to cross-check what was said in the lectures and written on the chalk boards with the statements in the textual materials has proved the exclusive dependence of teachers on the students' textbooks. Therefore, the complete dependence of rural Silti primary school teachers on the textual materials, which are developed for national use, appears to have given little room for connecting the contents of the lessons with the local resources and with the immediate experience of rural Silti girls.

In fact almost all the teachers interviewed have mentioned the absence of reference materials including the teachers' guides for many subjects as a justification for their complete dependence on the students texts. However, it is not only the written materials that could be used to develop and organize the contents of instruction. Rather, perhaps more importantly, it is the utilization of the learners' actual and immediate social and physical environment in the development and organization if the contents that could enrich the meaningfulness of what is learned to the actual life of the learner. To this end, a classroom teacher needs to have a reasonable knowledge of the learner's social and physical environment. These could be attained through a series of investigations. Thus in a situation where the task of teaching is largely understood as only imparting what is already stated in the text books, the activities involved in enriching the contents of the lessons with the local resources and with the learner's actual experience could be seen as consuming the teacher's extra time and energy. It

appears, therefore, that the failure among rural Silti area primary school teachers to harmonize the contents of the textual materials with the local resources and the immediate experience of rural Silti girls could be partly explained by the (supposed) additional energy and time which the task demands on the part of teachers. This finding coincides with the findings of Anderson, Evertson, and Braphy (1979: 193-223), and Good and Grows (1979: 335-362) which all have reported that teachers tend to be less successful to implement instructional considerations that demand extra time and energy.

Moreover the results of the classroom observations have disclosed the dominant utilization of the lecture method of teaching and the least application of problem solving and related methods. This might be explained by the ease and short-time demanding nature of the former and the more complex, demanding, and time-consuming nature of the latter.

It is quite clear that the utilization of each method of teaching is largely decided on the basis of the nature of the objectives set and the contents developed. Indeed, methods are considered as a means to meet the desired learning outcomes. Seen from this perspective, the very important question to be concerned with is not what method of teaching was employed ; it is rather important to examine for what purpose each method of teaching was employed. Accordingly, the classroom observations have shown that lecture method of teaching employed frequently by rural Silti area primary school teachers for the purpose of transmitting descriptive data and information. The whole business ended there. The utilization of the whole period for teachers' talking and note writing in eighteen (52.94 percent) of the observed thirty four sessions could also

verify this fact. Thus, the descriptive data and information offered through lectures were not sought to induce further discussions and inquiries among the students; rather, they seem to have been thought as the final outputs of the teaching-learning process. Hence, the dominant utilization of lecture method among rural Silti area primary school teachers exclusively for the purpose of transmitting descriptive data and ready-made information seems to have seldom constituted the knowledge and skills of rural Silti area primary school girls to inquire and discover the meanings of their learning and to employ their learning to solve their day-to-day life problems.

The successful implementation of the instructional considerations mentioned above, which are the key tasks of the teacher in enhancing curricular relevance, presupposes a reasonable professional knowledge and skills on the part of the teacher. And it is likely that the professional knowledge and skills which teachers acquired in their pre-service training could be either inadequate, or out-dated or partially forgotten. Thus it might be to close the gap which is supposed to be created as a result of these instances that Ornestein and Hunkins (1988: 228), and Lewy (1977: 71-72) have recommended continuous in-service teacher training. Yet the situation in Silti area does not conform with this suggestion. Ninety two percent of the respondent teachers for this study indicated that, since their graduation, they have never attended any seminar, workshop, refresher course, or in-service training that has been particularly organized to enrich or facilitate their pedagogical knowledge and skills. It appears, therefore, that the failure among teachers in rural primary schools of the Silti area to fulfil the instructional considerations involved in enhancing curricular relevance could be partly attributed to

their lack of pedagogical knowledge and skills; this in turn, may be caused by the absence of in-service training, workshops or seminars that aimed at refreshing and enriching their pedagogical knowledge and skills. This finding coincides with the findings of the studies conducted by Nitsaisook and Anderson, cited in Anderson (1991: 85), in Phillipines, and by Mekasha (1991: 69-72), in Ethiopia, who have all reported the non-participation of teachers in refresher courses, in-service training and workshops as the major likely causes for the ineffectiveness of teachers in implementing the curriculum plan.

At this juncture it is important to note that the failure of the instructional activities to enhance the relevance of the curriculum plan to the demands of the actual life of rural Silti girls (as revealed in this study) does not imply their success to enhance curricular relevance for boys. Indeed most of the instructional considerations employed here as criteria do not examine the gender imbalance that might be existed in the instructional process. Rather, they are primarily designed to assess the instructional attempts made to enrich the relevance of the curriculum plan to the actual life of rural Silti girls. And yet the confinement of both rural Silti girls and boys to a common local resources, the occurrence of some duties and responsibilities common to both sexes may suggest that some of the major findings discovered here with particular reference to rural Silti girls could also have similar implications to the case of rural Silti boys. Therefore, although the results discovered here do not warrant final conclusion, they could be considered as partial evidence that reveal the failure of the instructional activities to

enrich the relevance of the curriculum plan to the contexts of the actual life of rural Silti boys too.

The result obtained from table 8 shows that, irrespective of sex difference the rate of primary school dropout follows a decreasing pattern right from the first grade upto the end of the cycle, that is, sixth grade. However, if one examines the dropout rate in relative terms, that is, as a percentage of the total number of attendance of each sex, one can discover from table 8 a relatively high percentage of dropout among the girls than among the boys. This finding coincides with the findings reported by MOE (1995: 116) and Adane (1991: 105) in Ethiopia, and with the finding of the study made by Yates (1982: 139) in Congo and Zaire, which have all discovered the incidence of primary school dropout to have affected girls more than boys. Moreover, a comparison of the rate of rural Silti girls' primary school dropout with the 1994/95 national average rate of girls' primary school dropout discloses the highest rate among the former than among the latter.

Concerning the reasons for rural Silti girls primary school dropout, table 9 shows that, among the ten possible causes, early marriage is ranked as the first priority factor that is responsible for rural girls primary school withdrawal in the Silti area.

As mentioned in the beginning of this chapter, marriage among the Siltis is not only a personal preference, it is also a social obligation that must be assumed by the members of the community at the conventionally agreed age range, that is, thirteen to fifteen for girls and eighteen to twenty for boys. The finding discussed in the first

section of this chapter also demonstrates that parents in the rural Silti area tend to conceive marriage as the only institution upon which their daughters could base their future life. Moreover, parents in the rural Silti area seek their daughters' marriage not only for its accommodation of the future life of the girls, daughters' marital engagement is sought as a means of producing offsprings through whom the extension of the family would be perpetuated and the future economic and social welfare of the family would be secured. Indeed there is a tradition among the Siltis to consider daughters' early marriage as a measure of the family's reputation and status in the society. Hence early marriage is thought among rural Silti parents as a source of pride and recognition for the family. All these circumstances clearly show the highest social values which rural Silti parents attach to their daughters' marriage, particularly at an early age. It seems therefore that the occurrence of early marriage as the first priority cause for rural Silti girls primary school withdrawal may be partly explained by the high social value and importance which parents in the rural Silti area have given to their daughters' early marital engagement.

Rural Silti girls participation in excessive household labour is ranked as a second and third reason by respondent parents and teachers, respectively, for the withdrawal of these girls from their primary schooling.

In addition to the domestic chores to which they are traditionally accountable, girls in the rural Silti area constitute the major source of labour in the farm and in taking care of domestic animals. This shows the high opportunity cost of girls schooling in

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rural Silti area. As a result of this, parents in the rural Silti area could feel that sending girls to schools is loosing an essential component of the family's labour force. This could adversely affect the parents' decision on the continuation of their daughters' schooling. This result conforms with the results of the study made by Kaypaghian (1960: 41), Resenzig and Evenson (1979: 23) who have all reported the negative association between the opportunity cost of girls' schooling and the number of years spent in schools.

Moreover, as it is in many traditional societies, the involvement of the girls in the household chores is sought not only for the labour they are providing, their involvement is also thought as a training through which they will be prepared for their future married life. In other words, the home based training offered by mothers for their daughters is carried out through the direct involvement of the latter in the household duties. Meanwhile studies made in some traditional societies have shown that parents measure the cost of formal schooling for their daughters in terms of not only the opportunity cost of schooling but also in terms of the lost alternative home based training which is pertinent to their married life in the future (ECA, 1993: 30; King and Hill, 1993: 26). Yet, a significantly high proportion of the respondent parents selected for this study (more than sixty eight percent) have perceived the primary school curriculum to have poor linkage with the traditional household tasks and responsibilities of rural Silti girls and women. Therefore, the forgoing home-based training which formal schooling taxes rural Silti girls seems to have partly explained rural Silti parents' decision against the continuation of their daughters' schooling.

The findings of this study identified curricular irrelevance as a third reason for rural Silti girls' withdrawal from primary schools. Some studies made in Ethiopia have revealed curricular irrelevance as a cause for primary school dropout among all sexes (Aklilu, 19689: 11; Tadesse, 1975: 101). The effect of curricular irrelevance particularly on the dropout rate of rural girls in Ethiopia, to the researcher's best knowledge, seems to have been studied very little. When it comes to the studies made abroad, there are ample evidences that affirm the association between curricular irrelevance and the rate of girls' withdrawal (Singh, 1995: 193-194; Hyde, 1993: 120).

In general, the involvement of rural Silti girls in a massive household chores and farm works and the occurrence of marriage as the girls' most probable prospect of life clearly demonstrate the significant impact which the deviation of the school curriculum from the demands of the actual contexts of the life of rural Silti girls may have upon the decision of rural Silti parents on their daughters' school leaving.

Lack of the future prospect of education to create job opportunities for rural Silti girls was ranked as a fourth reason for the dropout of rural Silti girls from their primary schooling. Studies made in some developing countries have disclosed that the extent to which education creates employment opportunities for the girls may be considered as one of the major criteria upon which parents judge the value of daughters' education. If one considers the case of Ethiopia one can find substantial evidences that prove the poor link between education and employment. In contrast to this, in Silti area, there are ample employment opportunities that invite native educated girls for the various posts in the government and public institutions. As mentioned before, the various vacancy

announcements that have encouraged native educated girls (at least to the level of 10th grade) to apply have failed to get applicants from the local Silti area. This clearly shows that the problem in Silti area is not the Scarcity of employment opportunities for the girls, rather it is the scarcity of native girls who have educated to the level at which the current vacancies are demanding. Thus, the responses made by the respondents that affirm the failure of education to create employment opportunities for rural Silti girls as one of the causes for girls' school withdrawal appears to have been made not on the basis of the observation of the actual employment scarcity for the educated girls. Rather this perception of the respondents may be evolved from the scarcity of native educated women from the rural villages who have secured jobs in the modern labour market and who can, consequently be seen as a model to justify the worth of education for the girls.

The findings of this study have revealed long distance between school and home as a fifth reason for rural Silti girls' primary school dropout. This finding coincides with the findings of Krystina cited in King and Hill, (1993: 72), and Tilak (1993: 265). Yet the finding of the study made by Adane (1991: 173) in Bahir Dar Awraja has discovered the insignificant effect of long distance upon pupils' school withdrawal. The inconsistency of Adane's finding from the finding of this study may be explained by the inclusion of urban centers in the sample schools and the inclusion of male students in the subjects of the former study, for in either of the cases the influence of long distance is found to be reduced (Taddese, 1974: 98).

One of the significant effect of long distance is inaccessibility. In Silti, where the very few schools available in the area are largely located in the villages along the

main road, many students from the interior need to cross long distance to reach schools. This would result in reduced energy and time for work at home.

Another effect of long distance is related to the risky road conditions, specially for adolescent girls. Walking long distance may cause a very serious problem on adolescent girls of the rural Silti area where the incidence of abduction (which is usually followed by rape) is very high. Thus the physical and moral risks to which adolescent girls are susceptible as a result of walking long distances may negatively influence rural Silti parents' decision on their daughters' continuation of schooling. The results of the study made by Tilak (1987: 63-64), has confirmed this finding.

In a nutshell the results obtained from this study have discovered early marriage, the demand for child labour, and curricular irrelevance as the three major barriers to the continuation of schooling among rural Silti girls, at least to the end of the primary school cycle.

It has been discussed earlier that for whatever reason a rural Silti girl leaves her schooling the decision primarily comes from the parents. The major reasons of dropout revealed here also suggest this fact. That is, it is the parent who decides the time or age for marriage, it is the parent who decides whether or not the daughter should remain at home to serve the household, and it is the parents' perception that determines whether or not a given curriculum is meaningful to the actual life of the daughter. Yet the power of these and other causes of girls' dropout to win the decision of parents is found to be largely influenced by the level of education attained by the parents themselves. Meanwhile there is no reliable statistical evidence that describes the level of education

or the literacy rate among the people in the Silti area. Nevertheless the attempt made here to assess the level of education or the literacy rate of the respondents revealed that among the 189 parents it was only 8 (4.2 per cent) persons who were learned upto grades 3 through 6, and it was only 22 (11.6 per cent) respondent parents who were found to be able to read and write. This makes the literacy rate of the respondent parents to be 11.64 percent. Although this figure fails to give the literacy rate of the whole population, it shows some picture of the situation. Thus whatever reason for the withdrawal of their daughters from primary schools may be given by parents, their decision against their daughters education could be facilitated by the law level of parental education. In other words, although there is no evidence about the correlates of daughters' education and parental education in the Silti area, it seems reasonable to believe that the low participation rate and the high rate of dropout among rural Silti girls, particularly at the primary cycle, could be partly caused by the reluctance among parents to their daughters' education, and this reluctance, in turn, may be partly caused by the law level of literacy or education attained by rural Silti parents.

In relation to this, studies made in some developing countries (Cochrane, Mahra, and Osheba, 1988: 15; Smith and Cheung cited in Kelly, and Elliot 1982: 65) have discovered a positive effect of parental education to the attendance and continuation of girls in schools. The positive association between parents' education and daughters schooling has been explained by the tendency of education to generate its own demand (Simmons et. al., 1978: 349). In other words, educated parents are better oriented to the benefits of their daughters' schooling than uneducated parents. It appears, therefore, that the provision of educational opportunities for rural Silti parents, particularly a non-formal education that emphasizes on the functional literacy and numeracy, needs to be

demanding not only as an end in itself but also as a strategy to enhance the educational status of rural Silti girls.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

The study was intended to examine the relevance of the primary school curriculum to the future roles of rural Silti girls and to assess its impact upon their dropout. To this effect 21 schools were selected as a source of information from the available primary schools found in Silti area. A total of 324 parents, 190 school girls, and 174 teachers and officials in the education bureaus were selected randomly as informants to this study. The relevant data was collected in two stages. The informants employed in the first stage data gathering were not included to the informants in the second stage data gathering. Questionnaire, interviews, and classroom observations were the data gathering instruments used in this study. Based on the analysis of the data secured the major findings of this study are summarised here below:

First, marriage is ranked as the first priority status of life for rural Silti area primary school female graduates. It is also estimated to have accommodated more than 70 percent of the female graduates and more than 80% of the female dropouts of rural Silti area primary schools. Moreover most of the female dropouts (more than 80 percent) from rural Silti area primary schools get married within two years of school leaving.

Second, there is a mismatch between the activities carried out in the primary schools and most of (80 percent) the duties and responsibilities which rural Silti girls are required to fulfill in their present and future (marital) life.

Third, rural Silti parents have perceived the activities carried out in the primary school curriculum to have poor linkage with most of the duties and responsibilities which their daughters are required to fulfill in their present and future (marital) life.

Fourth, most of the objectives (78 percent) written in the lesson plans fail to indicate precisely the learning outcomes sought to be attained by the students. And 79 percent of the objectives do not reflect the actual demands of the life of rural Silti girls.

Fifth, in (23 percent) of the 34 sessions observed the lessons were not connected with the actual local resources and with the practical experience of rural Silti girls.

Sixth, the dominant method of teaching employed in the observed sessions was the lecture method. Lecture method was dominantly used as an end in itself rather than as a means of inducing or generating further discussion and enquiry among students which finally lead to the development of problem solving skills.

Seven, more than 90 percent of primary school teachers, whose service years range between 1-15, have not attended any workshop, refreshment course, or in-service training held on teaching methods and pedagogical innovations.

Lastly the rate of rural Silti girls primary school dropout is higher than the dropout rate of their male counter parts and the national average female primary school dropout rate. And,

curricular irrelevance is the third major couse (next to marriage and the demand for daughters' labour at home) for the withdrawal of rural Silti girls from primary schools.

5.2 Conclusions

From the findings it can be concluded that marriage is the single future status of life that would practically accommodate the largest majority of rural Silti area primary school girls. As the current situations reveal it is a very insignificant proportion of rural Silti area primary school girls who could continue their junior secondary school learning. Yet the activities carried out in the primary schools do not correspond with most of the duties and responsibilities which rural Silti girls are required to fulfill in their present and future marital life. Hence the primary school curriculum is irrelevant to the future roles of rural girls in the Silti area. Moreover the primary school curriculum is perceived by rural Silti parents to have poor relevance to their daughters' present and future roles.

The centralized nature of the national primary school curriculum - both in its central aims, and area of emphasis, and the little chance of teachers and the community to participate in its development - appears to be the major reason for the irrelevance of the curriculum to the major roles which rural Silti girls are required to play in their present as well as future (marital life). In addition to this lack of appropriate pedagogical knowledge and skills among rural Silti area primary school teachers to implement most of the instructional considerations has aggravated the problem.

- the practical career opportunities and the most likely future status of life accessible to rural Silti girls and boys
- the social, economic, cultural, and ecological contexts of the area in which rural Silti girls and boys are living.

1.2 The people involved in developing the local curriculum need to acquire training on the principles and practice of curriculum development through a series of workshops, seminars, short term courses etc.

1.3 The zonal and regional education bureaus need to create a close work relationship with the faculty of education in AAU and with ICDR (Institute of Curriculum Development and Research) so as to acquire the professional and technical assistance of these institutes.

1.4 It has been indicated in the study that marriage, as an institution, accommodates the largest majority of rural Silti girls at the middle or end of their primary schooling. Therefore the local curriculum needs to serve as a catalyst for the improvement of the practical life of rural Silti girls. To this end, the local curriculum, in its aims and contents, needs to give adequate coverage for the dissemination of appropriate technology that generates innovative and productive ways of executing the practical day-to-day tasks and responsibilities of rural Silti girls. In addition to this, the provision of adequate curricular

coverage for affordable and marketable income-generating skills as well as for elementary business knowledge and skills (in purchasing, selling, storing, saving, credit utilization and computation) could have a paramount importance for the improvement of the economic contribution of rural Silti girls in their present and future (married) life.

2. Primary school teachers need to attend on-the-job-training, workshops, and seminars that aimed at enriching their pedagogical knowledge and skills in light of recent educational changes and innovations. In addition, the pre-service teacher training programme need to equip the trainees with the pedagogical skills (such as problem - solving teaching method, the utilization of local resources and students experience in planning and developing the instructional programme etc.) which the implementation of the local curriculum demands.

3. The study has revealed that parents are the main decision makers on rural silti girls' school attendance and continuation. Thus it is desirable to create a favourable parental attitude towards daughters' education in order to raise the educational participation of the latter. The education of parents, besides literating themselves, could serve as one of the intervention strategies for generating the demand for daughters education. Therefore a non-formal adult education programme for rural Silti parents could minimize parental reluctance towards daughters education.

4. One of the major reasons for rural Silti girls' withdrawal from schools is their engagement in excessive house-hold chores and farm works. Therefore the establishment of grinding mills, water walls, and other service institutions in the rural villages could minimize the burdone of rural Silti girls and, thus, could leave them

additional time for attending school. In this regard the current endeavours made by Guragae Development Programme, which is run by Irish Aid-Ethiopia, is encouraging, and need to be learned by other NGOs operating in Silti area.

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APPENDIX - A

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Questionnaire to be Filled by Teachers and Education Officials

N.B The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data for the study that attempts to investigate the relevance of the primary school curriculum to the roles of rural girls in the Silti area and to identify its impact upon their dropout. The results of this study are of paramount importance for the development of appropriate and meaningful curriculum for the area under study. Therefore your honest response to the questions adds to the improvement of education.

Thank you

Wendmagegnehu Tuji

Background information about the respondent

1. Name of the School _____
2. Woreda _____
3. Respondent's Age _____ Sex _____
4. Level of Education _____
5. Experience in Teaching _____
6. Experience in Administration or Related areas _____
7. Work experience in Silti areas _____
8. The subject(s) she/he
   teaches _____ Grade _____
   _____ Grade _____
   _____ Grade _____
9. Name of the club she/he coordinates _____

A - Questionnaire Administered for Teachers and Education Officials in the 1st Stage Data Gathering Programme

Direction:- Read the instruction for each item carefully and respond accordingly.

1. In the table below there are six possible careers or life patterns among which a rural Silti girl is supposed to join one after completing her primary schooling. Give rank to each career or life pattern in terms of the size of the primary school graduate rural Silti girls which each career has been accommodating. Rank "1" is assigned to a career that has been accommodating the largest size and rank "6" is given to the least accommodating career.

Item No.	Career or Life Pattern	Rank
A	Joining junior secondary schools	
B	Securing job in government or public enterprise	
C	Creating income generating jobs (trade, handicraft)	
D	Marriage	
E	Joining the family to serve the household	
F	Migrating to urban areas in search of employment	

2. The following "six-by-ten table indicates six possible careers or life patterns in the raws and ten classes of percentage units in the columns. After estimating the percentages of rural Silti primary school graduate girls who join each career from the total size of female graduates, indicate the class to which your estimation for each career or life pattern fall. (N.B. make sure that the

sum of your estimation does not exceed 100 percent) (Turn to next page)

Item No.	C A R E E R	Classes of Percentage Units									
		0-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	71-80	81-90	91-100
1	Securing job in government or public enterprise										
2	Creating self employment (local trade, handicraft)										
3	Joining junior secondary schools										
4	Marrying										
5	Migrating to urban areas										
6	Joining the family to serve the household										

3. Do you think that there is one major career that has accommodated the largest segment of rural Silti primary school graduate girls?

Yes _____ No _____ I am not quite sure _____

4. If your response to question number three is "Yes", indicate the career. _____

5. What are the specific roles, responsibilities, and duties which a rural Silti girl is entitled to when she joins the career or life pattern you have just indicated above?

_____

_____

_____

_____

6. Among ten primary school dropout girls in the rural Silti area how many of them do you estimate would marry with in two years of school leaving?

_____

_____

_____

7. Who decides the continuation or withdrawal of schooling for a rural Silti girl?

Parents ____ The girl her self ____ If there is any other indicate _____

B. Questionnaire Administered for Teachers and Education Officials in the 2nd Stage Data Gathering Programme

PART I

The duties and responsibilities of a rural Silti woman are mentioned in the next tables'. You are kindly requested to decide whether or not the educational activities (the formal

curriculum, the co-curricular activities, and the hidden curriculum) in your primary school prepare rural girls for each of these tasks or responsibilities. If you believe that the elementary schools prepares rural girls for each task or responsibility mark "x" in the "Yes" box and if you do not believe, mark "x" in the "No" box corresponding to the task or responsibility.

No.	Women's Tasks or Responsibilities	Response	
		Yes	No
1	Preparation of balanced diet using locally available food sources		
2	Meal planning that is adaptable and affordable in Silti areas		
3	Food preservation using simple and locally manageable procedures		
4	Deciding the termination of pregnancy		
5	Taking desirable care during pregnancy		
6	Being aware of proper delivery practices		
7	Making use of child immunization programs		
8	Preparing balanced diet for infants and children from local food sources		
9	Being aware of the most common child diseases in the area and taking appropriate preclosions		
10	Taking care of the social, emotional and mental health of children		
11	Following up the learning progress of children		
12	Preparing plots for agricultural gardening		
13	Planting, watering & weeding vegetable gardens		

PART II

Rank the following causes of girls' school dropout in terms of their priority influence upon rural Silti area primary school girls by assigning "1" for the most influential cause and "10" for the least influential cause.

No.	Cause for Dropout	Rank
A	Lock of money to purchase learning equipments and to pay school fees	
B	Marriage	
C	Extended illness	
D	Long distance between school and home	
E	Being engaged in excessive labour at home	
F	Death or divorce of the parents	
G	Shifting to Karan schools	
H	Lack of fitness between the activities going on in schools and the activities of rural Silti girls at home	
I	Academic failure	
J	Lack of the future prospect of education to provide employment opportunities for rural Silti school girls	

If you think that there are other serious reasons indicate only three reasons in their order of importance

1st _____

2nd _____

3rd _____

PART III

Answer the following questions by marking "X" near your preferred alternative or choice

1. How much do the purposes of education set by primary schools go in harmony with the purposes of education anticipated by parents?

Very high	High	Overage	Poor
____	____	____	____

2. Has the local people been invited to discuss on the educational program in the school?

Yes	No
____	____

3. Have teachers ever been participated in curriculum development activities?

Yes	No
____	____

4. In the last ten years, have you seen or heared of any educational study made in Silti area for the purpose of curriculum development?

Yes	No
____	____

5. How much are the girls in your class attentively following the lesson?

High	Moderate	Poor
____	____	____

6. How much do the girls participate in the teaching learning activities

High	Moderate	Poor
____	_____	____

7. How often do the girls properly work their homework and other tasks assigned to them by teachers?

Most often	Sometimes	Rarely
_____	_____	____

8. How much is the rate of absenteeism among the girls?

High	Moderate	Law
____	____	____

PART IV

Write the specific answer or mark "x" in the box provided to your choice.

9. At what age do most rural girls leave schooling _____
Why _____.

10. At what grade level do most rural girls leave schooling ?
_____ Why _____.

11. Whom do you think could be the prominent decision maker on the continuation or termination of the schooling of rural girls?
Father _____
Mother _____

The girl her self _____
Relatives _____
any other (specify) _____

12. Do you think that the existing educational system prepares rural girls for their future married and family life?

Yes	No
___	___

13. If your response to question number "19" is "no", how much does this devotion account for girls' school dropout

High	Moderate	Poor	Not at all
____	____	____	____

14. If education is geared to focus on the actual life of rural girls, what effect would it have on the rate of rural girls' dropout?

Raises the dropout rate	Reduces the dropout rate	Undecided
_____	_____	____

15. If education is geared to focus on the actual life of rural girls, do you think that more rural girls could begin schooling?

Yes	No	Undetermined
___	___	____

APPENDIX B

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
FACULTY OF EDUCATION

Interview question for parents school girls of grades 3-6 and local people.

N.B. The purpose of this study is to investigate the relevance of the primary school curriculum to the roles of rural girls in the Silti area and to identify its impact upon their dropout. The results of this study are of paramount importance for the development of appropriate and meaningful curriculum for the region. Therefore, your

honest response to the interview questions adds to the improvement of education.

Thank you

Wendmagegnehu Tuji

Background information about the Respondent

Place of Residence (kebele) _____ Woreda _____

Age _____ Sex _____

Religion _____ Occupation _____

Family size _____

Number of children - Male _____ Female _____

Number of children currently enrolled in school

Male _____ Female _____

Annual income of the family (in Eth. birr) _____

Level of education A) Husband's education _____

B) Wife's education _____

A. Interview questions for Parents, Local People and grades 3-6 School Girls Administered During the 1st Stage Data Gathering Programme

To the interviewer:- After reading the directions for each item explain to the interviewee the theme of the question and the way he/she is supposed to respond. You are required to indicate the answers given by the interviewee irrespective of your ideas or judgement.

1. In the table below there are six careers or life-patterns among which a rural Silti girl is supposed to join one after completing her primary schooling. Give rank to each career or life pattern in terms of the size of the primary school graduate rural Silti girls which each career or life pattern has been accommodating. Rank "1" should be assigned to a career that has been accommodating the

largest size and rank "6" is to the least accommodating career.

Item No.	Career or Life Pattern	Rank
A	Joining junior secondary schools	
B	Securing job in government or public enterprise	
C	Creating her own income generating jobs (trade, crafts)	
D	Joining the family to serve the household	
E	Marrying	
F	Migrating to urban centers in search of employment	

2. The following six-by-ten table indicates six possible careers or life patterns in the raws and ten classes of number units (1-10) in the columns. After estimating the number (size) of rural Silti primary school graduate girls who join each career from the total of 10 female graduates, indicate the class to which your estimation for each career or life pattern fall. (The sum of your estimation should not exceed ten).

(Turn to next page)

Item No.	Career or Life Paggern	Size or Number of Girls out of 10									
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
A	Joining junior secondary schools										
B	Securing jobs in government or public enterprise										
C	Creating her own income-generating jobs (trade in local market or handicraft)										
D	Marrying										

E	Joining the family to serve the household									
F	Migrating to urban centers in search of employment									

3. Among the following careers or life patterns mark only the one (if there is any) that matches to your first priority career expectation (your first priority career expectation for your daughter in the case of parents) after completing primary schooling.

No.	Career or Life Pattern	Mark " "
A	Going to urban centers to find out employment	
B	Marrying	
C	Creating self-employment (trade, handicraft)	
D	Joining the family to serve the household	
E	Joining junior secondary schools	
F	Finding employment in government or public enterprises	

4. Is there any single major career or life pattern which you think to have accommodated the largest segment of rural Silti primary school graduates?

Yes ___ No ___ I am not quiet sure _____

If your answer to question number four is "Yes" indicate that career _____.

5. What are the specific duties & responsibilities of rural Silti girls when they join the career you have just

indicated?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

6. Whom would you send to school, your son or your daughter, if you are required to choose one?

Son	Daughter	Undecided
___	____	____

7. Why do you choose the one you have indicated above?

_____

_____

_____

8. What are the desirable outcomes of girls' education?

_____

_____

_____

9. What are the undesirable out comes of girls' education?

_____

_____

_____

10. Among ten primary school dropout rural Silti girls how many of them do you think would marry with in two years of school leaving ? _____

11. Who would benefit most from marital life?

The male	The female	Both	Undecided
____	_____	____	____

12. Do you think that the existing education system prepares

rural Silti girls for their future career or life pattern?

Yes ___ No ___ Undecided ___

13. If your reply to question number "12" is "no" what is wrong with the education system?

_____

_____

14. Do you think that marriage at an overage reduces the social respect which marriage at the normative age of girls could secure?

Yes ___ No ___ Undecided ___

15. Do you think that rural Silti parents socialize their daughters to be good mothers and housewives?

Yes ___ No ___ Undecided ___

16. Whose failure to marry at the normative age is more subject to social contempt in the rural Silti area?

Boy's ___ Girl's ___ in both cases ___ Undecided ___

17. Do you think that rural girls have equal potential as rural boys to learn to the higher level education?

Yes ___ No ___ I am not sure ___

18. Do you think that rural girls are equally fit to jobs in modern sector as rural boys do?

Yes ___ No ___ Undecided ___

19. Do you think that females have as equal potential as males

to learn to the higher level and to work in the modern sectors?

Yes ____ No ____ Undecided ____

20. Who decides the enrolment to school of rural Silti girls?

The parents _____ The Girls herself _____ Indicate, if there is any _____

B. Interview Questions Prepared for Parents and Local People in the 2nd Stage Data Gathering Programme.

Direction to the Interviewer:- Read everything to the interviewee as clearly as possible. Make the instruction very clear to the respondents. After each question give him/her time to think about it. Then put the answer given by the interviewee as indicated in the direction.

PART I

The duties and responsibilities of a rural Silti woman are mentioned in the table. You are required to decide whether or not the educational activities in the primary school prepare rural girls for each of these tasks or responsibilities. If you believe that the elementary schools prepare rural girls for each task or responsibility, mark "x" in the "Yes" box, and if you do not believe, mark "x" in the "no" box corresponding to the task or responsibility.

Turn to the next page, please.

No.	Women's Tasks or Responsibilities	Response	
		Yes	No
1	Preparation of balanced diet using locally available food sources		
2	Meal planning that is adaptable and affordable in Silti areas		
3	Food Preservation using simple and locally manageable procedures		

4	Deciding the termination of pregnancy		
5	Taking desirable care during pregnancy		
6	Being aware of proper delivery practices		
7	Making use of child immunization programs		
8	Preparing balanced diet for infants and children from local food sources		
9	Being aware of the most common child diseases in the area and taking appropriate precousions		
10	Taking care of the social, emotional and mental health of children		
11	Following up the learning progress of children		
12	Preparing plots for agricultural gardening		
13	Planting, watering & weeding vegetable gardens		
14	Working int he farm during harvesting season		
15	Proper utilization of agricultural inputs		
16	Preparing natural fertilizers for the farm land		
17	Taking care of livestock and poultry		
18	Protecting livestock and poultry against disease		
19	Storing agricultural products safely		
20	Marketing agricultural products		
21	Taking care of the sanitation of the living room and the surrounding		
22	Arranging household furniture properly		
23	Practising proper waste-disposal system		
24	Protection against infection and environmental pollution		
25	Fighting against harmful traditional practices such as early marriage female circumcision, girls abduction		
26	Purifying and refrigerating water using the traditional clay pot		
27	Creating safe and clean water storage mechanisms		

28	Constructing wood-saving stoves from local materials		
29	Avoiding wasteful or harmful resource utilization practices such as rubbing the body and the dress with batter		
30	Producing household furniture from local raw materials		
31	Producing marketable furnitures and goods from local raw materials		
32	Giving desirable respect for local craft		
33	Maximizing family revenue through basic commercial skills		
34	Assuming leadership roles in formal and non-formal organizations		
35	Taking part in planning and managing the day to day activities of the family		
36	Taking part in decision making on every family affairs such as assuming responsibility for the education of children the allocation of family revenue etc.		
37	Assuming chairwomenship meetings		
38	Take an interest in politics		

PART II

Rank the following causes of girls' school dropout interms of their priority influence upon rural Silti area primary school girls by assigning "1" for the most influential cause and "10" for the least influential cause.

No.	Causes for Dropout	Rank
A	Luck of money to purchase learning equipments and to pay school fees	
B	Marriage	
C	Extended illness	
D	Long distance between school and home	
E	Being engaged in excessive labour at home	
F	Death or divorce of the parents	
G	Shifting to Koran schools	

H	Lack of fitness between the activities going on in schools and the activities of rural Silti girls at home	
I	Academic failure	
J	Lack of the future prospect of education to provide employment opportunities for rural Silti school girls	

If you think that there are other serious reasons indicate only three reasons in their order of importance

1st _____

2nd _____

3rd _____

PART III

To the Interviewer:- Indicate the response of the interviewee for the following questions by marking "x" in the box just near to each alternative.

1. Do you think that the existing education practice encourages rural girls to stay in their locality

   Yes ___ No ___

2. If you were to choose between sending your daughter to modern school and traditional religious school, which of the two schools would you prefer your daughter to go? Why?

   Modern School _____ Koran School _____ Church School _____

Why _____

3. What is your primary purpose in sending your daughter to primary school

___ to help her proceed to the next level of education

___ to enable her acquire skills and experience for employment

___ to help her get prepared for her married life

___ to help her acquire employment in towns

Any other please specify _____

4. Do you think that the activities in the school are appropriate in helping your daughter to fulfil the purpose indicated in question No. 4?

Yes	No
___	___

5. If you think that there are undesirable behavioral patterns exhibited by educated rural girls, list only five of them.

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____

6. Mention five major benefits of educating rural girls

_____

_____

_____

7. Have you ever been invited by the school director or tethers to discuss about the school's program?

Yes	No
___	___

8. Have you ever been told by teachers about the learning progress or difficulties of your children?

Yes	No
___	___

9. Out of ten primary school graduate girls in your locality, how many of them do you think would attend their junior secondary schooling? _____

10. Out of ten primary school graduate girls in your locality, have many of them do you think would secure jobs in government and private enterprises? _____

The following questions will be asked only to parents of the dropout girls.

11. Do you think that the existing education system prepares rural girls for their future roles?

Yes	No
___	___

12. If your response to question number 12 is "no", how much does this deviation of the education system from the future life of girls account for their dropout?

Highly	Moderately	Rarely	It has no effect
____	____	____	_____

13. If primary education is geared to focus on the actual life of rural girls, what effect would it have on the rate of girls' dropout?

It raises the dropout rate	It reduces the dropout rate
_____	_____

Undermined

_____

14. If primary education is geared to focus on the actual life of rural girls, do you think that more rural girls will begin schooling

Yes	No	Undecided
___	___	_____

15. Who decides whether a rural girl has to begin schooling or not?

Father	Mother	The girl	Relatives
___	___	___	_____

If any other, indicate _____

16. What is the major cause for the withdrawal of your daughter from school _____

17. Who proposed first your daughter's withdrawal from the school? Father _____ Mother _____ Herself _____ Relatives _____ If any other indicate _____.

C. Interview Question for the Dropouts and Non Dropout Female Students of Grades Three - Six in the 2nd Stage Data Gathering Programme

Your Woreda _____ Kebele (name) _____ School _____

Age _____ Grade _____

Marital Status:

Married _____ unmarried _____

Parental Education:

Father's Education _____

Mother's Education _____

State of Parents:

Only Father is alive _____

Only mother is alive _____

Both are alive _____

Both are passed _____

Your family size _____ Male _____ Female _____

To The Interviewer:- Read Each Question to the Interviewee Carefully.

And for each question write short answer or mark "x" (if it is a multiple choice) on the basis of the response of the interviewee.

1. What is your future plan?

   to continue education _____

   to look for jobs in towns _____

   to create self-employment _____

   to stay at home _____

   to marry _____

   Any other plan (specify) _____

2. If your choice belongs to one of the first three alternatives, do you have the necessary things or skills to translate your plan in to action?

   Yes No

   ___ ___

3. In which part of residence do you prefer to spend the rest of your life?

   In urban centers ____

   In rural centers ____

   In any of the two ____

4. How much do you find the activities in the school to be useful in performing household chores?

Highly	Moderately	Poorly
____	_____	____

5. Who decides whether you have to continue or stop schooling?

Father	Mother	Relatives	Yourself	Any other
____	____	_____	_____	_____

The following questions should be filled only by dropout girls.

6. What is your main reason for dropping out your education?

_____

7. Which individual influenced you most to leave school?

Father _____
Mother _____
Relatives _____
Teachers _____
Yourself _____
Any other (specify) _____

8. Which individual was most opposed to your leaving of school?

Father _____ Mother _____
Yourself _____ Relatives _____
Any other _____

9. How much did you like the school program

Very much	Average	Did not like
_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX C

CLASS ROOM OBSERVATION ROTING FORM

Name of the school _____

Woreda _____

Date of Observation _____

Grade _____ Section _____

Subject _____

Lesson Topic _____

I. Assessment of the objectives in the lesson plan

Total number of the objectives in the lesson plan _____

I	Level of Statement	No. of Objectives Reflecting each Component or level of statement	%
A	Too specific		
B	Too general		
C	Reasonable Stated		
II	Significance of the objectives to the learners		
A	Objectives address the demands of the actual life of rural Silti students		
B	Objectives introduced in connection with the actual life of rural Silti students		
C	Introduced but are not connected with the learners' actual life		
D	Not Introduced at all		

II. Assessment of the content of the lesson

Ser. No.	Instructional Consideration	Remark	
		Yes	No
1	The content(s) of the lesson is enriched with the local resources of the area		
2	The content(s) of the lesson is connected with the immediate experience of the learners		
3	The pattern in which the content of the lesson is developed demands the application of the general ideas, concepts, principles to particular cases of the area		

III. Assessment of the relative utilization of Teaching Methods

Method	Lecture Method	Discussion Method	Problem Solving & Related Methods
Starting Times of Each Method at Various Intervals of the Session			
Total Minutes Spent on Each Method			

IV. Interview Questions for Observed Teachers

1. Do you think that the objectives in the syllabus need to be stated in a more specific terms when they are written in the lesson plan?
2. Do you think that the contents of the lessons should be offered to the students as they are developed in the teacher's guide or text (with out adding or ommiting)?
3. Is a classroom teacher authorised to modify, in any case, the contents of the lesson she/he is teaching? If so, for what purpose should it be done?
4. Have you ever attempted to modify the content, form, and organization of the notes that you offered for your students year after year?
5. Have you ever attended a seminar or workshop held for the purpose of widening teachers knowledge regarding the preparation of lesson plans?
6. Is there any guideline in your school that gives direction as to how daily lesson plans are prepared?
7. Which method of teaching do you employ most? Why?
8. Do you think that enquiry method could be used frequently in the subject you teach.
9. Would you give a brief definition of enquiry method? What procedures are involved in it?
10. Why it is sometimes necessary to employ enquiry method in teaching?
11. Do you believe that teachers need to give special consideration for the girls in the classroom? If so, why? And how could a classroom teacher fulfil this?

APPENDIX - D

PERSONAL PROFILE OF RESPONDENT TEACHERS

Items	Alternative	Teacher Respondents					
		Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Qualification Level	10+2	-	-	-	-	-	-
	12+1	121	66.5	52	28.6	173	95
	12+1st summer	8	4.4	1	0.54	9	5
	12+2nd summer	-	-	-	-	-	-
	12+2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total		129	70.9	53	29.1	182	100
Total years of Service in Teaching	Less than a year	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1-5 years	37	20.3	17	9.3	54	29.7
	6-10 years	68	37.7	16	19.8	104	57.1
	11-15 years	24	13.2	-	-	24	13.2
	16-20 years	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Above 20 years	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total		129	70.9	53	29.1	182	100

APPENDIX - E

LIST OF THE SAMPLE SCHOOLS SELECTED FOR THE STUDY

No.	Name of the School	Grade Level
1	Agam Elementary School	1-6
2	Grinzila - Tirora Elementary School	1-6
3	Dube Elementary School	1-4
4	Lanfuro Gebaba Elementary School	1-5
5	Woreto Elementary School	1-6
6	Udasa Elementary School	1-6
7	Werabe Elementary School	1-6
8	Balo Keriso Elementary School	1-6
9	Elos Elementary School	1-6
10	Yedi-Sabola Elementary School	1-6
11	Golana Sheme to Elementary School	1-6
12	Mekaka - Lenye Demeke Elementary School	1-6
13	Fugi-Dilapa Elementary School	1-5
14	Dangelasho Elementary School	1-6
15	Mitto Elementary School	1-6
16	Wente Elementary School	1-4
17	Gerbiber Elementary School	1-6
18	Lay-Tite Elementary School	1-6
19	Alkaso Elementary School	1-6
20	Ashute Elementary School	1-6
21	Danecho Mukere Elementary School	1-6

N.B. The schools listed 1 through 9 are used for the first stage data gathering and the rest are used for the second stage data gathering.

APPENDIX - F

CALCULATION OF THE CHI-SQUARE VALUES PRESENTED IN TABLE 5

Category No.	Frequensy (Average)		$[(X-Y)-1]^2$	X^2
	Yes (X)	No (Y)		
1	24	75	2500	25.25
2	27	72	1936	19.55
3	26	73	2116	21.37
4	37	62	576	5.81
5	61	38	484	4.88
6	36	63	676	6.82
7	31	68	1296	13.09
8	34	65	900	9.09
9	71	28	1764	17.81
10	29	70	1600	16.16

N.B. Refer table 5 for the statement corresponding to each category number.

APPENDIX - G

CALCULATION OF THE CHI-SQUARE VALUES PRESENTED IN TABLE 6

Category No.	Frequensy (Average)		$[(X-Y)-1]^2$	X^2
	Yes (x)	No (Y)		
1	35	154	13924	73.67
2	40	149	11664	61.67
3	45	144	9604	50.81
4	66	123	3136	16.59
5	58	131	5184	27.42
6	70	119	2304	12.19
7	55	134	6084	32.19
8	72	117	1936	10.24
9	134	55	6084	32.19
10	149	40	11664	61.67

N.B. Refer table 6 for the statement corresponding to each category number.

APPENDIX - H

CALCULATION OF THE CHI-SQUARE (X^2) VALUES FOR EACH OF THE ITEMS CATEGORICALLY SUMMARISED IN TABLE 5

Category No.	Item No.	Frequensy (Average)		$[(X-Y)-1]^2$	X^2
		Yes (x)	No (Y)		
1	1	21	78	3116	31.67
	2	26	73	2116	21.37
	3	24	75	2500	25.25
2	4	27	72	1936	19.55
	5	24	75	2500	25.25
	6	29	70	1600	16.16
3	7	23	76	2704	27.31
	8	26	73	2116	21.37
	9	21	78	3116	31.67
	10	30	69	1444	14.58
	11	19	80	3600	36.36
4	12	38	61	484	4.88
	13	33	66	1024	10.34
	14	36	63	676	6.82
	15	39	60	400	4.04
	16	38	61	484	4.88
	17	37	62	576	5.81
	18	39	60	400	4.04
	19	32	67	1156	11.67
	20	38	61	484	4.88
5	21	62	37	576	5.81
	22	61	38	484	4.88
	23	60	39	400	4.04
	24	61	38	484	4.88

Category No.	Item No.	Frequency		$[(X-Y)-1]^2$	X^2
		Yes (X)	No (Y)		
6	25	70	119	2304	12.19
	26	61	128	4356	23.04
7	27	54	135	6400	33.86
	28	49	140	8100	42.85
8	29	72	117	1936	10.24
	30	76	113	1296	6.85
	31	69	120	2500	13.22
	32	70	119	2304	12.19
9	33	134	55	6084	32.19
10	34	156	33	14884	78.73
	35	147	42	10816	57.22
	36	153	36	13456	71.19
	37	144	45	9604	50.81
	38	147	42	10816	57.22

N.B. Refer Appendix - B for the statements corresponding to each item number.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is my original work done under the guidance of Dr. Abebe Bekele. All the relevant sources used for the thesis are duly acknowledged.

WENDMAGEGNEHU TUJI