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**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

**AN ASSESSMENT OF ALTERNATIVE STRATEGIES
FOR THE BASIC EDUCATION OF WOMEN
IN RURAL BALE AND BORENA**

ABDO ABAFOGI

JUNE, 2000

**AN ASSESSMENT OF ALTERNATIVE STRATEGIES
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BALE AND BORANA**

**BY
ABDO ABAFOGI**

**A THESIS PRESENTED TO THE
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
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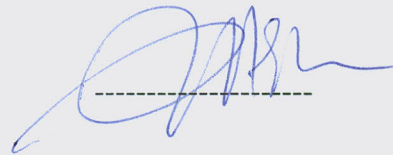
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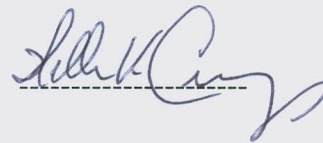
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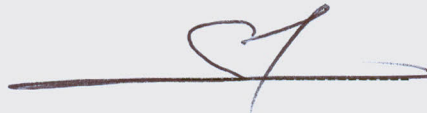
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ABBREVIATIONS

Some of the acronyms appearing in this text are stated as follow:

ANOVA:	Analysis of Variance
ASE:	Agri-Service Ethiopia
DF:	Degree of Freedom
HSD:	Honestly Significant Difference
IRDP:	Integrated Rural Development Project
MOE:	Ministry of Education
NFBE:	Non formal Basic Education
NGO:	Non-Governmental Organization
OEB:	Oromiya Education Bureau

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the alternative educational strategies available to rural girls and women and to propose the appropriate measures to be taken ahead.

The study has involved 116 girl pupils and dropouts, 100 NFBE learners, 91 educational experts and 18 community representatives. The necessary information was secured from these subjects through questionnaires, structured interviews and document analysis. In addition, education statistics annual abstracts of the MOE and OEB were used to obtain the necessary data regarding pupils' rate of participation in lower primary cycle. As the findings of this study indicates, the majority of the factors affecting girls' schooling in rural areas are economical and attitudinal. It has become evident from the outcomes of the study that for a girl whose educational decision is in the hands of her parents a free primary school across the road was found to be inaccessible. Therefore, the construction of more schools and facilities was proved not to increase the rate of girls' participation in basic education. Various educational options were proposed by the subjects: ungraded village schools, boarding primary schools, segregated schools for females, multiple teaching and multiple shift, flexible schedules, shorter school-day, home teaching etc., which need more attention from policy makers and educational planners.

In general, the promotion of equal opportunity for access to basic education was found to concern three major areas: the flexibility of the educational program to be provided, the relevance and adaptability to the needs of the target group, and integrated approach of the concerned groups.

CHAPTER I

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

The key concepts to be assessed by this study, and underlying the various case studies, are policy and strategy as linked with the promotion of equal access of women to basic education in undeserved areas. Each of these concepts is, however, understood differently by educational planners depending upon circumstances and development practices over time.

In the development of education the primary issue to be considered is policy formulation. No strategy can be adopted unless and otherwise fundamental choices are made by responsible individuals in the political regime to indicate the national development initiatives. Policies are often wide and timeless, as opposed to specific goals or targets (Forojalla, 1993). This is necessarily so, says the above writer, because educational policies should indicate a country's political options, beliefs or custom, values and sights of its future.

The importance of strategy is to define the ground for all distant action steps in planning quiet after the formulation of policy. Strategy is considered as a general approach selected by an organization to move it towards its target. While explaining this fact, King and Cleaned, 1978 in Forojalla (1993:93) have the following to mention:

A strategy is a general direction, and even if the direction cannot be explicated precisely, it is most often greatly beneficial to have even an imprecisely defined general direction rather than none at all. This is so because even an imprecise, but well-understood general direction can be translated into tactics or programs to move the organization in that direction.

In Africa, as Coombs (1985) put forward, educational strategies have been changed frequently in the last three decades. These instances of changes have shown a shift from the "initial emphasis on linear and quantitative expansion to the present more diversified stage" (Forojalla, 1993:93).

Soon after independence in the early 1960s, national educational strategies in a number of African countries began to favour the linear and quantitative expansion of educational system. The UNESCO series of conferences held in Santiago, Addis Ababa, Karachi and Tripoli from 1960 to 1966 served as a ground for the development of these strategies (Berstecher and Curr - Hill, 1990:3). Particularly, the Addis Ababa conference of African states on the development of education, held in May 1961, laid the basis for these strategies. The recommendations made by that historical meeting for the development of education in Africa for the period 1961-1980 include.

- I. Provision of basic general education of six years to be universal, compulsory and free by 1980.
- II. Three years of general secondary education, followed by 3 years of more specialized education for 30 percent of children coming from primary schools.
- III. Tertiary education for 20 percent of pupils coming from secondary schools (UNESCO, 1961 in Forojalla, 1993).

The strategies mainly focused on the satisfaction of the deep desire of African people for education and on the need to attach great importance to the value of education for economic, social and cultural development of each country. The leaders of education then apparently realized that education must be open to such disadvantaged groups as women, nomads and the mass of adult population if these targets were to be realized (Berstecher and Curr-Hill, 1990; Forojalla, 1993).

It is now realized that there are a number of educational activities for which formal schooling proved inadequate, even where resources are available. The strategies of the 1960s thus subject to questions. Countries began to develop interests in various elements of education; the need to combine formal, non formal and informal aspects of learning as part of a coherent, overall strategy (Woss, 1980 in Forojalla, 1993).

As noted in the earlier part of this paper before 1970 the preoccupation among educational planners was the quantitative expansion of primary schools. This assumption is now being replaced by an apparent concern for the equitable distribution of equal opportunities, and more for the provision of equal access of women to education. The key question to be raised here, therefore, is that the expansion of formal education alone can alter the status of women in rural areas.

Alternative strategy, which is the main concern of the paper, suggests implicitly something pre-existing but whose function, efficiency and effectiveness is yet not examined. Alternative, in this case, means mutually exclusive options to be assessed in light of perceived facts, potential possibilities and benefits. The paper is, thus devoted to an assessment of possible options in terms of offering equal opportunities for access to basic education of women in the remotest rural parts of the country.

In Ethiopia, there is no a complete document indicating the efforts done in the past to promote basic education through non formal educational programs, although some attempts were done by the former governments in collaboration with certain international agencies like UNESCO and UNDP (Abebe, 1998).

The need for non formal educational programs in Ethiopia began to be considered towards the end of the five year plan coincided with the UNESCO Conference of African States for the Development of Education held in Addis Abeba in May 1961. The experience of that conference was however, shocking to the educational leaders "for it suddenly dawned upon them that the country was at the bottom of the hierarchy" (Ayalew, 1982:6). One of the recommendations of the 1961 Addis Ababa Conference was universal Primary education by 1980. The Ministry of Education soon set up a committee to assess the educational program and make recommendations (Naqniq, 1962 in Ayalew, 1982). In August 1962, the committee came up with a target whereby in 1980 82.8% of the primary school-age group will participate in education. As mentioned by Ayalew (1982), although the proposal was a very modest plan when compared with the plan adopted by UNESCO Conference, to which Ethiopia was a host as well as a signatory, the Imperial Government refused to accept the committee's proposals as too costly that the country's resources are scant to accomplish the target set. Instead the country chose to adopt alternative educational strategies side by side with the implementation of its own five-year national development plans, which "focused on limited man-power training rather than expansion" (Ayalew, 1982).

Through this policy, the so called "Fidel Serawit Campaign" was launched in 1962 to provide basic literacy for people who were mainly adults. Another attempt was done by the 1968-73 experimental program of UNDP/UNESCO in some selected areas of the country. This program was interrupted due to the political crisis of the country in the early 1970s. After 1974, the military government had made some efforts to expand basic education in rural Ethiopia. Mention can be made of the few attempts made such as the "Edget Behibret Zemecha" which was carried out for about 18 months and then interrupted; and "the National Basic

Education Campaign" that was carried out from 1979 to 1990 in series of 20 rounds. These can be cited as the major efforts done in the past to expand basic education in the country. Surprisingly, however, all these efforts were short of serving the most disadvantaged groups, including nomads and women in remote parts of the country. (Abebe, 1998).

In addition to the above efforts, few number of NGOs and voluntary agencies have made participation in providing basic literacy and skill training in some selected sites of the country. Notably, the Agri-Service Ethiopia has been one of the few indigenous NGOS in the country to offer basic education programs in selected rural sites of Bale, North Omo and West Gojam.

Some encouraging efforts have been put in recent years to look at planning strategies and problems of various elements of education. After the early 1970s almost all the developing states including Ethiopia could not rely on formal schooling system they had been enthusiastically developing to address all the complex needs and demands of their people. Many global conferences and seminars on education have realized the insufficiency of formal education to address the educational needs and demands of unprivileged groups. In his report on the seminar took place in Oslo, Norway from 18th to 20th October, 1982, Coombs (1985:2) asserts:

... the analytical report that sounded the first warning of this looming crisis included a special chapter on non formal Education, a new term and concept that had not yet entered the standard international lexicon of education.

Many years after the UNESCO recommendations for universality of education in 1980, still in many African, Asian and Latin American Countries the enrollment share of girls in primary schools is less than those of boys. Particularly,

in Sub-Saharan and Arab states the enrollment share of girls in primary schools is less than 40%, while the literacy rates of women in these countries is less than 30% (UNESCO, 1996).

Today, more than 165 million people including 100 million women in developing countries are illiterates (UNESCO, 1995:37). In 1989 a publication from World Conference on Education for All (WCEA, 1990:1) stated that out of 100 million children who had no opportunity for access to basic education in the world, women constituted about 60 percent. All the above evidences indicate the insufficiency of formal education to address itself to the educational needs and demands of rural population, including women and nomads. The above evidences also indicate that in many countries there is yet lack of awareness of the fact that no development plans can fully be attained without maximum participation of women in educational matters (Dialo, 1980:i). The implementation of realistic strategies for the promotion of basic education for rural women, therefore, is the most obvious initial step towards the equal priviledge for all the rights (UNESCO, 1975:91)

When we come to the particular situation of our country the total school-age population is estimated to be more than 23 million, out of which 50 percent of this number consists of Primary School-age children (PHRD, 1996; MOE, 1999). Girls are expected to be half of the primary school-age children. The gross enrollment ratio of primary education at present is estimated to be 41.8 percent. This tells us that about 58.2 percent of the age group is outside school (MOE, 1999:11). The situation has been more acute in rural than urban and for girls than boys. The gender gap is more pronounced in rural areas where gross enrollment ratio for girls is only 13 percent as opposed to 26 percent for boys. The adult literacy estimates indicate that the rate for women is 26 percent as opposed to 46 percent for men (MOE, 1999).

In Oromiya, the 1997/98 education statistics of the region indicates a wider gender gap in schooling of children at all levels. As far as primary education is concerned, a total of 541231 girls were attending school compared to 1166871 boys (OEB, 1998:7). Zonal variation in terms of participation of girls is one of the visible problems of education of the region. In Borana, for example, the 1998/99 education statistics of the region shows that only 25715 girls were attending primary schools as opposed to 84489 boys. Similarly, in Bale in the same academic year only 42867 girls were attending primary schools as opposed to 75629 boys (OEB, 1999:6).

In recent years, the Federal Ministry of Education and the regional education bureau have begun to realize that local, cost-effective non formal education programs can play a great role in promoting basic education, particularly among the unprivileged groups including nomads, women and children in unreached areas of the country. According to the report from the Federal Ministry of Education (1998) the non formal education programs cover a wide range of basic education and skill training for children, youths and adults, with special emphasis on women. Consequent upon the implementation of the Education Sector Development Program (ESDP), in Oromiya 637402 people are attending basic education and skill training programs out of which 121693 are women (OEB, 1999). This shows that the out-of-school educational program is still short of serving a sizable number of women.

In Ethiopia, despite the recently growing appreciation of the out-of-school education programs, yet the strategies implemented to promote basic education among the deprived segments of population are unlikely to be satisfactory.

Finally, in this paper, the comparative analysis of case studies is expected to offer certain basic principles and guidelines that can be useful for examining and evaluating alternative educational opportunities available to rural women in Bale and Borana Zones.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Education has a vital role to play in a country's economic and social development. The efforts made to achieve pivotal improvements through education, however, are usually confronted with enormous challenges. The questions of access, equity, quality and efficiency are the major challenges to the education sector. They are used as key performance indicators in any system of education.

The question of equity and access, which are the major concerns of this paper, have been among the major educational issues attracting global attention in recent years. The growing apparent concern for the equitable distribution of equal opportunities, and more for the provision of equal access for the education of women has also raised the question that what strategies are more appropriate to meet the educational needs and demands of rural women.

As statistical documents of various years indicate, while many more children are coming to primary schools the percentage of women remains low (MOE, 1998; MOE, 1999), which indicates the classic signs of inefficiency currently existing in developing countries. "At the outer limits, only 1 percent of nomadic girls attend schools in Afar region" (MOE, 1999:2), and less than 1 percent of girls are attending schools in Sawena Woreda of Bale Zone (OEB, 1998).

A number of studies conducted on education in rural areas of developing countries have proved that there is no direct relationship between school construction and enrollment of girls (Duncan, 1984). Islam (1977), in Duncan (1984); in her study of educational participation in rural Bangladesh, she found that the construction of more schools did not increase enrollment of girls. Rather, as she thought, there should be other important factors that affect participation of girls. For

a rural girl whose decision for education is not in her own hands a school across the road can be inaccessible.

The reasons for the inaccessibility of education to many of the rural women could be various and diversified. As various research findings have proved cultural and religious factors that reinforce special home responsibility for girls, early marriage and pregnancy, sex harassment and abduction, sex-role stereotyping, the irrelevance of school curriculum, location of schools, and the limited number of role-models of women in the classroom and school administration are among the common factors conditioning the education of rural women (Shrestha, 1986; Stromquist, 1997; Berstecher and Curr - Hill, 1990).

Moreover, it is now recognized that the existing system of schooling is insufficient to close the non-school gap in many countries of the world, even where resources are available (Forojalla, 1993; Coombs, 1985). Hence an awareness has developed amongst educational planners that formal education alone is not sufficient to fulfill the demands for equity and access, unless the various elements of education: formal, non-formal and informal aspects of education are planned as a part of a coherent overall strategy; in short combining both in school and out of school education (Was (1980) in Forojalla (1993)).

As cited earlier, gender differentials in primary schools of rural Borana and Bale have been relatively higher when compared with other zones in Oromiya. The enrollment rate of girls in primary schools of these two zones is less than one third of the total of (MOE, 1999; OEB, 1998). It is this striking condition that aroused the interest of the writer to diagnose the educational strategies currently functioning in the areas under consideration. The following basic questions, thus are raised in view of seeking answers for the problems.

1. To what extent are the existing educational strategies realistic to meet the demands for equal access of basic education to rural women?
2. How can we plan educational strategies that are sensitive to the problems of rural women?
3. How can aid agencies, non-government organizations, voluntary services and families contribute to the planning and implementation of realistic strategies for the provision of basic education to rural women?
4. What are the various economic, social and cultural factors that affect the educational opportunity and performance of rural women?
5. What other activities need to be considered in order to remove the obstacles that withhold rural women from having adequate time for education?

1.3. Significance of the Study

Despite the increasing rates of enrollment in primary schools, the educational system of Ethiopia has still a number of problems. The 1994 education and training policy of the country states that the goal of the country's education to be the attainment of universal primary education by 2015 (MOE, 1999:3). The First five-year Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) will be completed by 2000/02. The desired target of the period is increasing the total primary enrollment ratio from 30 percent to 50 percent and that of females share from 38 percent to 45 percent (MOE, 1999:5). Nevertheless, as the achievement rates so far indicates, the goal seems very distant.

Among other things one of the reasons often mentioned for not attaining the intended enrollment target described in the development plan has been the gender

differential in the enrollment of primary school-age children, which comes out strongly in rural areas of the country.

Basic education has a number of benefits, particularly to women who have direct effect on family size, so that increasing access to education of women means improvement in family size, a drop in child malnutrition and mortality rates. Based on these assumptions, therefore, the study seeks to assess the extent to which the existing educational strategies have contributed to the opportunities for access to basic education of rural women and the way to design and plan sound strategies for them. The findings of this study are thus believed to:

1. Provide useful experiences in designing and planning alternative educational strategies to promote the opportunity for equal access of rural women to basic education;
2. Contribute to the efforts being done to collect and compile information on the educational problem of women in rural areas; and
3. Stimulate further investigations in the area

1.4. Delimitation of the Study

The areas to which this study was delimited are mainly characterized by scattered and nomadic life situation, and are also marked by relatively low enrollment rates of primary school-age children in general, and by low participation of girls in particular. When compared to the educational participation of females in other zones of the region, these two zones are ranked the least (OEB, 1999). With regard to socio-economic, cultural and political backgrounds, there is no significant difference between the two zones, thus all the variables affecting the education of girls and women are likely to be similar. The only difference is that in Bale the

majority of the rural inhabitants are Muslims, while in Borana the majority of the rural population follow traditional beliefs. Therefore, assessing the existing strategies of education in these areas is believed to give clue towards planning more realistic educational strategies to maintain the principle of equal opportunity for access to education in rural parts of the two zones, thus delimitation has been made to the nomadic and mainly rural areas of Bale and Borana.

1.5. Limitations of the Study

Among the various problems encountered, the following factors were found to be the major challenges, while conducting the research

1. Lack of co-operation from the zonal education offices, particularly the Borana Zone Education Department. Questionnaires and interviews were collected after a lot of efforts had been done.
2. The long process taken by the Graduate school of Addis Ababa University to release the necessary fund required for the study largely affected the time-table set to undertake the study.

1.6. Definition of Key Terms

Basic Education:- refers to skills acquired in primary schools and literacy and numeracy provided by the out-of-school educational programmes (MOE, 1998)

Gender Disparity:- is an area of variation in enrollment between boys and girls in terms of educational opportunity (MOE, 1999)

Gender Issues:- the understanding of the relationships between women and men in society along multiple dimensions education, work, health, wealth etc. Gender issues provide both an understanding of the unequal conditions and problems facing women in relation to men and the identification of policies designed to improve the situation of women (Stromquist, 1997).

Gender:- a cultural elaboration of differences between men and women. While definitions of masculinity and femininity take sex as a point of departure they go much further to create behavioral and even psychological distinctions, which, upon careful analysis, are found to be largely arbitrary. Gender becomes the set of patterns of learned behavior about what society considers appropriate for women or for men (Stromquist, 1997)

Gross Enrollment Ratio:- Expresses the total male and female enrollment of all ages in primary schools as a percentage of the total male and female population of school-age in the country (Berstecher and Curr-Hill, 1990)

Rural Area:- refers to all localities that are inhabited by less than 2000 people and are not accorded an urban status by the Ministry of Urban Development and Housing (CSA, 1988:16)

Sex:- the differentiation between men and women based on (a relatively small number of specific) anatomical and physiological distinctions (Stromquist, 1997)

1.7. Organization of the Study

This study is organized into five major parts. Chapter one treats the background of the study. The next chapter deals with review of related literature. The third and fourth chapters deal with the methodology; presentation and analysis of data, respectively. The final and fifth chapter of the study present the summery, conclusion and recommendations. In order to have a clear view on the concept of basic education as linked with gender differentials in heavily rural and nomadic communities, the next chapter provides theoretical background from outstanding works of other scholars concerning the educational problems of women.

CHAPTER II

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. The Right to Education and Progress to Date

Article 26(1) of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the United Nations in May 10, 1945 asserted that "everyone has the right to education" (Juvigny, 1963:10). Fifteen years later, in December 1960 another convention was adopted by the United Nations in Paris to reinforce the above article of the right to education stating that any distinction or limitation which being based on sex, race, religion, language, birth etc. might pose threat to the efforts being done to eliminate inequality of treatment in education (Francois, 1968).

Consequent upon the UN Declaration of Human Rights, a number of global conventions adopted in the intervening years have brought the promotion of equal access of women to education to the forefront stage and have undertaken mobility in the direction of eliminating sexual discrimination in education. One of the outstanding conferences to be primarily mentioned in this case is the World Conference on Education for All (WCEA), held in Jomtien, Thailand in March 1990, which declared education for all to serve as one of the major objectives of the decade. One hundred and fifty-three countries signed a declaration asserting that:

The most urgent priority is to ensure access to, and improve the quality of education for girls and women, and to remove every obstacle that hampers their participation. All gender stereotyping in education should be eliminated (UNESCO, 1996:9)

Similar other UN Conferences have clearly endorsed the need of education for women and the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women. Mention can be made of the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEAFDAW). The convention signed by one hundred thirty nine countries as of December 1995, is definitely "the bill of rights for women" (Stromquist, 1997). Other UN conferences to be cited, for example, the World Conference on Human rights (Vienna, 1993); the World Summit on Social Development (Copenhagen, 1995); and the Fourth World Conference on women (Beijing, 1995). The report on the last of these conferences asserts:

Education is a human right and an essential tool for achieving the goals of equity, development and peace. Non-discriminatory education benefits both girls and boys thus ultimately contributes to more equal relationships between women and men (Stromquist, 1997:95).

Although progress has been made throughout most of the world in the last few decades in the education of girls and women, much of this progress, however, achieved not as a result of specific policies to promote the principle of equal access for the education of women but "because of an inherent, natural tendency for education systems to grow" (Stromquist, 1997).

Despite all the global declarations adopted in the intervening years, the achievement of the rights of women to education so far reveals that the world still faces inequalities in various fields of education of women. It is now nearly 10 years since the World Conference on Education for All (WCEA) in Jomtien (1990) adopted the World Declaration on Education for All and the Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs, but still more than 100 million children including 60 million girls left without access to basic education, and more than 65 percent of

world's 960 million adult illiterates are women (Stromquist, 1997: 95-96). Failure to alter such discrimination might be seen as an open denial of human rights and dignity (UNESCO, 1995).

2.2. The Concept of Basic Education

To the term basic education there is no consensus of opinion as far as the definition, the levels or the pre-requisites are concerned. The reason is that educational planners offer different meanings to basic education based upon their own perception and development practices over time (Hetland and Ishumi, 1984).

The old view of education defines basic education as a separate entity growing out of a purely institutional view of education. Educationalists who adhere to this old philosophy of education consider basic education in light of some years of classroom attendance in primary schools (Coombs, 1985; Bishop, 1986; Muller, 1981). On the contrary, educationalists who adhere to the modern concept of education define basic education as consisting of learnings that can be acquired in schools as well as the nonformal educational settings. According to Coombs (1985); Dellors (1996); Bishop (1986), the recently developed functional view of education provides a widely accepted comprehensive definition to basic education as consisting of all the various components of learning required by people to meet their diverse learning needs. Whereas some of these basic learnings can be acquired in schools, while a great many others can best be learned by the out-of-school educational programs (Coombs, 1985; Bishop, 1986)

2.2.1. The Content of Basic Education

The World Conference on Education for All, Jomtien (1990), strongly emphasizes that basic education consisting of a minimum package i.e. the educational level that can meet the Basic Learning Needs should be provided to everyone, including children, youth and adults (Cited in Mamo, 1996). As mentioned by Coombs in Hetland and Ishumi (1982:53), the content of basic education, in addition to the basic learning's acquired in lower primary schools, consists of the following areas:

- i. Adult Literacy Programme;
- ii. Youth Development and Skill Training;
- iii. Agricultural Extension and Farmer Training;
- iv. Community Schools and Out-of-School Basic Education;
- v. Community Development and Adult Non formal Education;
and
- vi. Early Childhood Education.

In Ethiopian situation, the Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) of the Ministry of Education states the components of basic education as consisting of:

1. literacy, numeracy and environmental education to be provided for children in lower primary school;
2. Non formal basic education programmes for out-of-school children;
3. Literacy programmes for youth and adults; and
4. Practical skills provided in Community Skill Training Centers (CSTCS) (MOE, 1999).

It is increasingly realized now that it has become a life necessity to acquire at least basic education in order to lead a normal and successful life in society (Mamo, 1996). As clearly stated by Dellors (1996:79) "basic education is an indispensable passport to life", consisting all the basic elements of knowledge required to open up opportunity for access to the next levels of education.

2.3. The Economic, Social and Political Value of Basic Education

The promotion of equal access of women to basic education is no longer an issue of debate. The essentially of the statement, however, require a certain reference to the gains to be achieved through education. The benefits of basic education to women can be assessed from the point of view of economic, social and political values.

2.3.1. Economic Value of Basic Education

Studies have proved that there is a strong relationship between women's education and economic returns; Each additional year that a women spent in school can bring a 10 to 20 percent growth in earnings (King, 1990; UNESCO, 1995; Kelly, 1987). Statistics shows that in East Asia and Pacific region economic achievement in the 1980s and 1990s produced not only higher earnings but also meaningful increase in the participation of girls in schools, and in their higher life expectancy. Such meaningful improvements have not been exhibited in Sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 1995).

Likewise, countries exhibiting the smallest gender gap in schools have exhibited higher GNP (King, 1983). This indicates that the provision of equal

access to education of women raises the productivity of a nation (Stromquist, 1997). The study conducted by Lockheed, Jamison and Lau (1980) indicates that four years of classroom attendance in basic education could raise farm productivity on the average by 7.4 percent overall and 10 percent in low-income countries.

Furthermore, studies conducted by (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991) and (Woodhall, 1992) indicate that the social and private rate of returns to basic education are higher than to secondary and tertiary levels of schooling. A study made by Psacharopoulos (1985) in Lockheed and Verspoor (1991:3) shows that the social rate of returns to basic education are estimated to be 27 percent, but the private rate of returns are 49 percent. Both, the social as well as private rate of returns to basic education were found to be the highest compared to secondary and tertiary education.

The social rate of return to basic education in Ethiopia was found to be higher than the secondary and higher education. The reason has been the high cost incurred by the government. The cost incurred for tertiary education is 23 times higher than the cost for basic education (PHRD, 1996:23)

2.3.2. Social Impact of Basic Education

Evidences from various research findings proved that expenditures on basic education of women lead to better child health, fertility control, reduced maternal mortality and better nutrition (Psacharopoulos, 1983; Hicks, 1980). Evidences acquired from other studies indicate that each additional year of schooling results in 5 to 10 percent decrease in infant mortality (UNESCO, 1995; WDR, 1993 in PHRD, 1996).

Similarly, women who have acquired a minimum of eight years of schooling will, perhaps make marriage later, have fewer children and will be more willing to use contraceptives (UNESCO, 1995) . In Brazil, as statistics indicate, illiterate women were found to have an average of 6.5 children as opposed to those with secondary education who have 2.5 children (UNESCO, 1996).

Further studies have proved that family planning is closely linked with female household heads (Shultz, 1982). The mother's education is perhaps the single most important determining factor of household health and nutrition and that education was found to raise agricultural productivity. Since most of the rural women work on farming activities, basic education can play a great role in increasing their incomes, opportunities and decision making ability within the household (Psacharopols, 1988; PHRD, 1996)

2.3.3. Political Benefits of Basic Education

It is obvious that better educated women are more capable and analytical in defending their interests and needs in more scholarly manner than do illiterate or less educated women (UNESCO, 1995; Stromquist, 1997), although some of the changes called for by many may not be viewed by all as desirables (Stromquist, 1997). Better educated women are said to be more cognizant and far sighted in their decision in everyday activities, and more in decision concerning political matters, than their uneducated fellow mates. While describing the analytical gap between the former and the latter, Stromquist (1997:18) asserts:

Women with high levels of education are more analytical and perspective than those who have not been exposed to systematic educational or training programmes. They tend to be less vulnerable to exaggerated political claims, to claim more of their

citizenship rights, and to participate more in public elections.

2.4. Participation of Women in Basic Education

The status of women in many countries was not able to show significant changes until the early 1970s. The advancement of women before that was very different from what it is today. Women were not allowed the right to vote in parliamentary elections and very few of them had access to education (UNESCO, 1995; Stromquist, 1997). Meaningful progresses have been made in the intervening years, which is largely due to education (UNESCO, 1995). Nevertheless, despite the current advancement in the direction of improving women's participation in education much remains to be done. Federico Meyor in his message conveyed in UNESCO (1995:5) asserts:

While some satisfaction can be felt at the progress made there must also be considerable disquiet that it has been so painfully slow. It must be frankly acknowledged that universal education and its benefits for girls and women have been confined mainly to countries of the richer, industrialized nations. For millions of impoverished women in large areas of the globe there has been little or no improvement at all...

According to the 1993 UNESCO statistics two-thirds of the world's illiterates were women and 70 percent of the school-age girls were out of primary schools (Stromquist, 1997:9). In 1994, women in developed countries constituted 49 percent of enrolment in primary education, 49 percent in secondary and 52 percent in tertiary education. In the same year, women in developing countries represent 46 percent in primary schools, 43 and 40 percent in secondary and tertiary education, respectively (UNESCO, 1996).

In Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa participation rates in primary schools reveal wider gender gap: for Asia the rates are 73 and 94 percent for girls and boys, while for Sub-Saharan Africa 70 and 87 percent, respectively (UNESCO, 1996). There are also sizable gaps in literacy rates in these countries. On average, the percentage points are 26 and 20, respectively between men and women (Stromquist, 1997:22) Countries like Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Zambia and Zaire (Democratic Republic of Congo) who have exhibited high total gross enrolment rates are found to have lower enrolment share of girls (UNESCO, 1996; PHRD, 1996).

Moreover, in Least Developed Countries, girls and women are among the most deprived groups. More than 165 million adults including 100 million women are illiterates (UNESCO, 1995:37) Gender disparities in literacy rates above 15 years of age range from 6 percentage points in Guinea and Guinea Bisau to 30 percentage points and more in Mozambique, Togo, Malawi, Liberia and Gambia (UNESCO, 1996). The high rates of illiteracy prevailing in these countries remain a severe impediment to the improvement of the status of women (UNESCO, 1996).

The countries which have an estimated female literacy rate of less than 30 percent by the year 2000 are advised to take emergency measures to narrow the gender disparities. These countries are Brundi, Ethiopia, Gabia, Liberia, Mali, Mozambique, Niger, Sierra Leone, Afghanistan and Nepal (UNESCO, 1996)

In Ethiopia, in 1998 the enrolment share of girls in primary schools was estimated to be 35 percent, while the literacy rate for women was less 23 percent (MOE, 1999).

2.5. Factors Affecting Female participation and Performance

The concepts of 'participation' and 'performance' are usually treated as conceptually different variables having close relationship and overlap between them. A number of common factors that affect participation also influence performance (Duncan, 1984; 159) asserts: "sex-disparities in participation are related to disparities in performance, while disparities in performance themselves influence sex-differentiated participation rates".

In general, the opportunity for access to education and the rate of survival of children in schools are associated with certain set of possible predictors owing to characteristics of pupils, parents, teachers and the quality of nearby schools (UNESCO, 1988; Berstecher and Curr-Hill, 1990). The predicting power of these factors, however, vary widely between countries, within a single country in terms of region, socio-economic status and degree of urbanization (Duncan, 1984).

Sex differentials in terms of participation and performance in schools prevail in many parts of the world, owing to traditional attitudes, early marriages and pregnancies, sex harassment and abduction; inadequate and gender-biased teaching and educational materials, lack of adequate and accessible educational facilities. In heavily rural parts of the world girls are heavily engaged in domestic work at a very early age. Girls and young women are preoccupied with the management of both educational and domestic responsibilities usually causing poor scholastic performance and early dropout (Stromquist, 1997:96).

2.5.1. Regional Disparities

The educational participation of children in developing countries vary in terms of region. The regional variations appear strongly in the proportion of females in these countries (UNESCO, 1996). The participation rates of girls in urban and rural areas of many African and Asian countries show that the rates in rural areas are constantly low, while the disparities are greatest in countries, which are most heavily rural (Duncan, 1984; UNESCO, 1988; Garrido, 1986).

Bowman and Anderson (19980), cited in Duncan (1984) found that in Sierra Leone, primary school enrolment varies in terms of region. Primary rates for females range from 11 percent in northern and 29 percent in southern to 77 percent in eastern societies. In one coastal province of Morocco only 6 percent of primary pupils were girls, in contrast to over 40 percent in Rabat and Casablanca (Kelley and Elliot, 1982:23). In Iran, the most striking variation in access to education is that one which impedes rural women who have virtually no educational facilities, even at primary level (Wheeler, 1978 cited in Bowman and Anderson, 1980).

When we come to the particular situation of our country, women's pattern of enrollment and participation in schooling have close similarities to that of other African women (Genet, 1991) Gender differentials have been evident in both the traditional as well as the formal schooling system (Seyoum, 1986).

In traditional Ethiopia the Orthodox Church and the Mosque had been the major centers to provide education. Despite their contributions to the nation building efforts, their system of provision was highly discriminatory. Their efforts were limited to only boys (Seyoum, 1986).

As cited in Seyoum (1991:99), the earlier observer Samuel Gobat stated that "girls had fewer..., educational opportunities than boys." Likewise, Dr. Merab, a Georgian Scholar residing for many years in Ethiopia mentioned that at the beginning of the twentieth century the literacy rate in the entire country might not exceeded 10 percent. He then asserted that "... among the women folk, the position was even worse, for apart from the princesses those who could read and write could be counted on the finger tips".

There is an evidence that before the introduction of secular education in Ethiopia in 1908, few Ethiopians had the opportunity to pursue their education abroad, in which no a single woman was cited (Seyoum, 1991:99).

The participation of women in education was still negligible when the first modern school was opened in Addis Abeba in 1908. All the students learning in the Menelik II School were boys (Pankhurst, 1963:16) Sex differentials in terms of enrollment and participation in the country's system of education remained so strong that the number of girls pursuing education at all levels of schooling has been scant throughout the decades of the century (Genet, 1991). The most striking situation, however, has been which suffered by women in areas that are heavily rural and arid. Even at the time when apparent increase in the enrollment and participation of females was exhibited in the central and northern parts of the country the predominantly rural and nomadic areas of the south stood in bleak contrast to the former. Notably, provinces like Bale, Gamo Gofa and Illubabor had exhibited the lowest participation rate of females in the mid 1960s (Seyoum, 1986:12).

Yet, after nine decades of experience in secular education in the country the gender differentials in schooling of the heavily rural and nomadic communities of Southern and Eastern Oromiya, Afar, Somali: and Southern SNNP come out very

strongly (MOE, 1999). Enrolments by overage boys combined with very low rates for girls are typical characteristics of these areas. Many girls and women dropout schooling before they reach grade five and six (Genet, 1991) Moreover, repeating in a class could lower the level of aspiration of females as parents likely to prefer their daughters to dropout and get married than stay in schools another more year (Genet, 1991).

In 1994/95 the gross enrollment ratio of girls in rural primary schools was only 11 percent as opposed to 24 percent for boys. By contrast, the gross enrollment ratio of girls in Urban primary schools outnumbered that of boys (PHRD, 1996:13).

Gender differentials between geographical regions of the country are also evident. Whereas 1 percent of nomadic girls attend school in Afar, Somali and Pastoral Communities of Oromiya, while in urban centers like Addis Ababa, Dire Dawa, Nathareth and Harar the number of girls attending school exceeds that of boys (MOE, 1999).

2.5.2. Educational Status of Household Heads

Many studies have proved that the more educated the parents are the higher the value they place on the education of their children (UNESCO, 1988; World Bank, 1988) A research outcome of the factors affecting educational participation of children in rural Botswana in 1974 indicated the education of household heads as the single most important determining factor (Shresta, 1986).

Bowman and Anderson (1980); Asayehegn (1979) in Duncan (1984) have put forward that in LDCs pupils with poorly educated parents are "under-

represented" at all levels of education. In countries like Kenya, Tunisia, Tanzania and Senegal the parents of girls are found to be more educated. Youssef (1974) in Duncan (1984) suggests that perhaps it is the middle or upper middle classes, which consider the education of women as a means of accelerating their "upward mobility"

In Ethiopia, both gross and net enrolment ratios were found to indicate a marked improvement with increase in the parental level of education. At national level, gross enrolment ratio for girls increased from 17 percent in the case of illiterate parents to 71 percent for household heads with secondary education and to 102 percent for parents with college level education (PHRD, 1996:13).

2.5.3. Forgone Earning and Forgone Learning

The decision to send a girl to school is affected by a diverse set of expectations about the effect of formal schooling on her future life (Bowman and Anderson, 1982).

The decision to withhold daughters from schooling is affected, to a large extent, by the time and labour they contribute to the economy of the household. Especially, in poor households girls represent an immediate economic asset (Stromquist, 1997). In addition to child care and household tasks they may work in gardens, fetching water, assisting in trade and do home processing products for sale (Bowman and Anderson, 1982). Such current high forgone earning in contrast with their future benefits for the family results in educational decisions that may be harmful to girls (Stromquist, 1997).

Another, usually ignored, fact is that when children go to school there may also be substantial forgone learning. As Bowman and Anderson (1982) have

stated traditional styles of learning need to be learned and this desire is challenged by the time spent in western type of schooling which takes away time from this learning. For example, in some West African countries traditionally women enjoy relative independence and usually face problem of divorce. They achieve this relative autonomy through subsistence farming and small-scale trade learned at the mother's side. When they attempt to engage themselves in both schooling and the traditional, home apprenticeship, the choice between the time for home training and for schooling lead to family tensions, poor performance and dropouts. There is a worry that in the near future large number of households may be inclined towards perceiving the value of forgone earning and forgone learning as more beneficial than the return from schooling. These, according to Ashby in Berstecher and Curr-Hill (1990:20), include:

- i. forgone current production opportunities, including non-familial employment, child contributions to family enterprises, other production services in the house
- ii. forgone learning including production skills learnt through participation in family enterprises, traditional cultural values and behaviors.

The burden of high opportunity and other incidental costs is seen as one of the major factors impeding the education of rural children, including rural girls. Parents of girls in rural areas regard the time spent in schooling as to restrict the time available for other, more useful works and types of apprenticeship training at home (Duncan, 1984).

2.5.4. Early Marriage and Pregnancy

In traditional societies early marriage is a major obstacle to the expansion of education among girls. The relationship between early marriage and negative attitude against schooling for girls take many forms. Bowman and Anderson (1982) have found that there is most often consistency between attending school and wifely duties. In certain areas, married young women remain in school several years before their marriage is completed. Where as further schooling usually opens opportunities for a better husband, while it can also have negative effect. As Bowman and Anderson (1980), cited in Duncan (1984) while there is a good opportunity for an educated women to make a good marriage, on the contrary, its harmful effect on the women's domestic role performance in certain societies may not be easier. Duncan and Loftsedt (1982) in Duncan (1984) mentioned that in Bangladesh, large number of village household heads were found to say that "educated daughters were a liability because of the higher dowries necessary for their marriage to a suitable partner"

A common anxiety still exists in Islamic countries. Trevor in Duncan (1984) noted that the Wazir who taught Koran in British Boarding School in Sudan was found to worry that "girls scholastic ambitions might tempt them not to give full attention to their proper role as wives and mothers." In general, as one may usually thinks there may not be "simple trade-off relationship" between schooling and marriage, or as others still think no linear relationship between schooling and a chance for having a superior husband (Bowman and Anderson, 1980, in Duncan, 1984:64).

Studies have proved that in many parts of the world pregnancy is one of most frequent causes for girls to dropout school. In Africa, about 18 percent of the

girls between the age of 15-19 give birth every year. In Asia and Latin America 8 percent and 3 percent of the female population among the same age group give births, respectively, when compared with Africa (Stomquist, 1997:24). The problem of early pregnancy is not confined to developing countries. In the United States of America, teenage pregnancy is the second most frequent reason that female children dropout schooling (Stromquist, 1997).

2.5.5. Geographic Factors

The fact that enrolment rates of girls are scant in schools of rural areas has become more pronounced with the difficult and unmanageable catchments areas of the rural topography (Coombs, 1985; Shresta, 1986). The difficult topographical nature and dispersed pattern of settlement of rural population, with relatively few number of schools have limited the opportunity for access to schools of rural children, particularly the rural girls who spend much of their time for domestic tasks (Shresta, 1986). The unmanageable settlement of rural areas together with the difficult terrain have made children to go through the hazardous hills and vallies for two or more hours that it could make the access to school very difficult (Ayalew, 1997).

In Ethiopia, the problem of school location was found to be the dominant characteristic of rural areas. This was indicated by the drops in the rates of gross enrolment from 25 percent for families with less than 1 km distance to school to only 2 percent for families located over 15 kms from schools. The drop rates are similar for both sexes (PHRD, 1996:15).

2.5.6. Socio-Cultural Factors

The consideration of socio-cultural patterns and level of economic development established an important step in the description of "cross-national" differences in women's educational participation, although it is short of indicating the causes (Jones, 1980). The main point here concerns the link between the availability of alternative educational opportunities and enrolment. The writer, then tries to put down certain hypothesis: Whether there is link between stage of economic growth and enrolment as related to the provision of schools and facilities or economically developed countries also hold positive attitudes towards female education. In opposite to this preposition whether low rates of participation is a consequence of inadequate provision, or other socio-cultural factors which put themselves in undesirable attitudes towards education of females.

Kelley and Elliot (1982:12) have put forward certain socio-cultural variables which express themselves in negative attitudes towards education of females: "traditional mentality", the keeping apart of girls at puberty, dislike for coeducational classes, perceived irrelevance of schooling for girls, considering girls as economically important assets, and sex harassment and abduction.

The socio-cultural attitudes linked with low female participation rates are usually reflected in the teaching-learning activities of schools. Research findings have proved that girls are usually represented by teaching practices, their field of study and perception of their teachers that the primary roles of females are to be wives and mothers (Duncan, 1984:165).

The Ethiopian society, according to Genet (1991), is characterized by many as patriarchal according to which women are presented in predictable

positions: playing domestic roles (cooking, raising siblings, taking care of households). These and other laborious and routine activities put women in subordinate position in the society. Allabasu Gebreselassie (in Genet, 1991:89) asserts:

In most of these cultures the patriarchal system is dominant, instituting divisions of labour by sex, (defining stereotyped roles) limiting the female to that of a wife, a mother and a housekeeper and promoting ideals, and norms reinforcing these.

2.5.7. Sex-Role Stereotyping and Role-Modelling

One of the most important factors in which human images frequently reflected is a school curriculum. Curriculum, according to Stromquist (1997:40) is defined as to refer to the content of courses and programmes in educational settings. Studies conducted on the content of textbooks in many parts of the world have indicated that through the curriculum (which is reflected in textbooks, teachers' attitudes and authority structures) females learn that better academic achievements are not part of women's role (Finn, Ries and Dulberg, 1980 in Duncan (1984).

Although access is the most desirable aspect of girls' education, it will be partial if it favours a schooling experience that present women in a subordinate position. For many years, school textbooks have transmitted messages and illustrations that trench women in inferior positions.

According to the above writer, in order to avoid masculinity in school textbooks thus certain improvements need to be made along the following lines:

- i. Removing a language that identify both men and women in masculine terms. Such language include pronoun 'he' which represent 'one'

- ii. Identifying sexual stereotypes in textbooks: stories, arguments, examples and illustrations and removing them away from the curriculum
- iii. Showing a balanced account of actual accomplishments of females that have been neglected or ignored in society. These include the role of women in history, in the informal economy, in the process of nation building and their role in many other sectors.
- iv. Rethinking the altered view of women's roles in society and trying to promote new social arrangements with reduced discrimination and bias against women. For example, trying to disseminate the idea that 'parenting' is more appropriate than 'motherhood'.

2.6. Perceived Irrelevance and Inefficiency of Formal Schools

The attainment of universal primary education (UPE) has been since the early 1960s, taken as one of the major development priorities of developing nations and target dates for achieving this goal have been stated in national as well as regional plans (Fredriksen, 1984). The UNESCO series of conferences held in 1960 (Karachi), 1961 (Addis Ababa) and 1966 (Tripoli) set 1980 as the time of attainment of UPE for most of the African and Asian countries (Berstecher and Curr-Hill, 1990).

Despite the faster growth rates in enrolment at the initial period of the 1960s, UPE has for most of African countries proven to be an illusive goal. In 1980, the primary school capacity of the developing countries was corresponded to about 86 percent of their population of primary school-age (Fredriksen, 1984:58). The capacity of Africa and Asia was below this average (Coombs, 1985). Among the many factors affecting the targets set by UNESCO in the 1960s were the irrelevance

of the formal school curriculum, repetition, dropout, late entrance, low attendance, differing structures of primary education, gender variations, school location, longer school days and school operation system (Berstecher and Curr-Hill, 1990; Fredriksen, 1984).

The period before the early 1970s was marked by the tradition that when national priorities and planning strategies favoured the expansion of formal schools and valued qualifications attained through formal schooling (Coombs, 1985; Gorham, 1983). Education has been equated with schooling and was fully measured by years of classroom attendance and by the value of certificates granted by educational institutions (Coombs, 1985:20). In the early 1960s, national educational strategies in a number of newly born independent African countries began to favour the linear and quantitative expansion of educational system. Consequent upon the UNESCO series of conferences of the 1960s, the strategies continued to rule educational and overall national development policies in Africa as well as world over until the late 1960s (Coombs, 1985).

The sign of danger on the education front began to appear with the appearance of the world educational crisis of the late 1960s and 1970s which was mainly a result of growing maladjustments that exposed the fallacy of the strategy of linear expansion.

2.7 The need for Alternative Planning Strategies

After the early 1970s, it has been realized that there are a number of educational activities for which formal schooling proved inefficient and ineffective, even where resources are available. The realization of the defects of formal schools, its rigidity, its spiraling costs and the growing perception of education as a life-time

process hence started to be recognized (Coombs, 1985). Following this, UNESCO's International Commission on the Development of Education (ICED) gave the first precise definition to education. In its report of the 1972, the ICED declared that education can no longer be considered as activities confined to classroom activities and measured by the yardsticks of accreditation (Gorham, 1983; Forojalla, 1993; Coombs, 1985; Coles, 1977).

Since the early 1970s, many international organizations have been undertaking further investigations of the characteristics of different types of non-formal education and their potentialities to address the important learning needs and target groups beyond the reach and capabilities of formal schools. Consequent upon these investigations there developed a much broader and more functional concept of education "that equated it not simply with schooling but with learning, regardless of where or how or at what age the learning occurred" (Coombs in Hetland and Ishumi, 1984:50). This wider and functional concept viewed education as a life-time activity, beginning from earliest infancy to the grave. This relatively recent concept distinguished three complementary modes of education informal, formal and non formal "which together constituted a nation's lifelong learning network" (Coombs, 1985).

The three modes of education were defined by (Ahmed and Coombs, 1974) as follow:

Informal education refers to the unorganized and often unsystematic lifetime process by which every person acquires and accumulates knowledge, skills, attitudes and insights from daily experiences and exposure to his or her environment at home, at work, at play, form travel, reading newspapers and gooks, from the radio, films or television, an so forth.

Formal education refers to the highly institutionalized, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured “education system” spanning lower primary and the upper reaches of the university.

Non formal education was defined as any organized educational activity outside the established formal system, whether appearing separately or as an important feature of some broader activity, that is intended to serve identifiable learning clienteles and learning objectives.

2.8. Planning out-of-School Basic Education

One of the major troubles regarding non formal basic education has been how to carryout a unified planning activities. As Coombs (1985) asserts “a veteran national planner of formal education might well ask, ‘How in the world can anyone ever plan such a hodge-podge of fragmented and dissimilar educational activities?’” Part of his answer to this question is that one should not attempt to plan them at a nation-wide, which simply will not function. Rather, any selected out-of-school educational activity need to be separately designed and linked to any other activity it is actually related to: for example to the needs of certain disadvantaged groups such as women, nomads etc.

Planning non formal basic education program for any category of population, according to Forojalla (1993); Gorham (1983); and Coombs (1985) involves the following important points.

i) Learning objectives: this raises questions such as ‘Why is an educational Programme needed?’, ‘What are the basic Programme objectives?’

ii) Characteristics of target groups: this is the major variable in deciding their likely learning needs, future locations for learning tasks, unexpected pitfalls on the timing of training and feasible training approaches.

Usually target groups are identified by political or social factors and this offers the bounds for planning. Goals and other aspects of the Programme are developed from the characteristics of the target groups. For example, age and schooling, dropouts and primary school-leavers; sex and role, young women and mothers with young siblings; occupational role, farmers, carpenters, women, small business men etc.

iii) Organizational structure: this concerns the internal structure of the Programme and its relationships to external organizations- its relationships to national/regional ministry of education, other ministries, projects etc.

iv) Programme facilitators: like that of staff salaries in regular schools, staffing in out-of-school education remains to be a crucial planning activity due to its impact on Programme costs. Hence there is often a tendency to use volunteers and part-time teachers. Now a days a promising strategy is recruiting facilitators from the local community on part-time basis.

v) Costs: the utilization of instructional resources produce high costs. The promising planning strategy to minimize the costs includes the use of existing facilities; the location of programmes that entails the use of non-educational organizations and encouraging self-help efforts in the community.

vi) Methodology: this utilizes a variety of technologies and pedagogical styles. The more recent and innovative styles which have been tried fairly widely

are “peer learning, discovery methods, programmed texts, learner-centered curricula, community-based learning and wide-range of media based educational strategies” (Forojalla, 1993)

vii) Control: planning activity at this level concerns the sponsoring agencies of the programme, both public and private. What is expected from planners at this level is to maintain a balance between the national needs vis-a-vis the demands for local level control by people at the grassroots level over the projects that entails direct benefits to them.

2.9 Educational Experiences of Alternative Models

Despite the increasing rate of enrollment in the last three decades, universalization of primary education remains a distant and illusive goal for many countries in the developing world (Forojalla, 1993). In these countries, most of the children who do not enter school or dropout soon are those who belong to the unprivileged groups such as nomads, women and other low-income people (UNESCO, 1996). Among all these the educational participation of women is the lowest of all. Those few overage girls who have got the chance to enter school soon begin to feel uncomfortable among the younger lots and withdraw schooling. Under achievement in schools is another cause of dropping out, nevertheless those who remain to continue schooling as successful students are often no better than those who withdraw schooling. They could remain in school because of the economic capability of their parents only. Here too, parents preference is for the schooling of boys than for girls (Naike, 1982:115)

To tackle the challenge many countries have recently began to rethink their systems of education with a view to creating alternative educational structures to

implement the principle of life-long education. Such reforms are expected to offer numerous possibilities of creating better chances to women within these more flexible structures. The following pages thus consider various similar projects implemented in some developing countries descriptively, with the assumption that useful experiences can be drawn from the implementation of those projects.

2.10 The Indian Experience of Alternative Approaches of Basic Education for Women

The Indian study of alternative strategy of basic education for rural women, as discussed by Chitra Naik (1982), is presented as follow. As stated in Indian Constitution, primary education be provided for all children between the ages of 6 and 14. Education is compulsory for children through age 11. Despite all that has been accomplished since independence, the universality of education remains an illusive goal. Out of the total primary school-age children about 80 percent attend school. Dropout rate is high. Out of 100 children who enter grade 1, only 25 percent reach grade 8. The most deprived groups indicated in the constitution as requiring special attention are tribals, nomadic tribes, scheduled casts and other groups in the lower strata of the society. Among these the worst affected interms of educational participation are girls.

Most of the children left outside school are those who come from poverty-stricken families where they are forced to carryout domestic tasks which withhold them from having leisure time to attend school for 6 hours in a day. The most difficult problem is single-point entry, i.e. in regular primary school a child is expected to enter school only at grade 1, although his age is beyond 7 years. Considerable number of children soon begin to feel uncomfortable among the younger ones and withdraw school. Such a practice of single point entry and full-

time schooling has been one of the major obstacles in universalizing primary education for children from poverty-stricken rural households who constitute over 70 percent of the age-group identified. Of these, 65 to 75 percent are girls.

In addition to the problem of non enrollment and dropping out, the falling standard of primary education has necessitated the arrangement of alternative strategies for the education of, particularly poor children in rural areas. This problem of universalization of primary education therefore is seen from the perspectives of:

- i) providing education to poverty-stricken rural children;
- ii) giving more attention to the enrollment of the older age groups;
- iii) developing mutual relationship with the pattern of living and environment of the local people concerned;
- iv) adjusting the curriculum and teaching methodologies to the available time for learners; and
- v) linking up the part-time with the full-time system so that both can function to jointly address the learning needs of all school-age children in the community.

The non formal primary schooling is desired to be attained in two years' work unlike that of formal primary school work which often takes more than four years of full-time schedules to accomplish. The process of learning involves differing ranges of nontraditional methods and approaches. The would be project areas were studied by the project team to have a clear picture of their life styles, language specialties, ideas about education, and attitude toward the action research work. The project assistants played a decisive role in this exploration. They were recruited from among the scant local school graduates familiar to the villagers.

They served as information channels between the villagers and the project team which helped to plan the sites of classes, selection of facilitators, gathering of local folklore and variety of languages for use in teaching-training materials, and more, set the villagers deliberating on the problems of education in their localities.

As far as the locus of control of non formal system was concerned the managerial responsibility was mainly placed on the communities concerned. The short-term role of the experimenters whose existence in the project would wither away in four or five years time, was clearly discussed with the villagers. The primary role of the experimenters was to enable the villagers make the entire activity their own responsibility by involving in a planned way quite from the beginning. The villagers were expected to acquire useful experience in the exploration of out-of-school children, recruiting facilitators from among the communities, arranging accommodations for the classes and mobilizing public views and opinion. A local education committee in each village and hamlet was expected to make search for those educational needs of the villagers which can only be identified and addressed through local effort.

In order to build a capacity for scaling up and adaptation, the local authorities responsible for the financing and administration of primary education were allowed to fully engage in planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating the project.

2.10.1 Accommodations for classes

The project started its operation in 1979 with 86 classes, opened in 17 villages. The accommodations for classes were secured from the villagers, free of charge. The first round enrollers of the project were illiterate children within the age-range of 9-14 years, to enhance the search for sound and efficient technique of

teaching beginning reading and numeracy. The approach is to make children to become literate as fast as possible and to develop self-confidence in them as learners. Class size was restricted to 20 and the smallest class would be about 10 pupils. Classes were ungraded, and held between 7 and 9 in the evening with the assumption that most of the enrollers would have leisure time during this time.

The teachers and learners of the project decided not to have regular vacations like that of the formal school, pointing out that as they could manage to work on most of the days of the year they were also able to learn following the same schedule. Each class thus functions for about 42 weeks a year taking account of the accessibility of the classes during the rainy season and on the leisure available during harvest. The 600 hours of class time a year were desired to bring each learner to the level of class 4 in the formal school, yet with better knowledge of health, sanitation and science.

2.10.2 Profile of the Learners

Of the total number of learners registered in January 1980, the number of female learners constituted about 80 percent. 1,040 females enrolled as opposed to only 380 boys. Of 89 classes started, 74 had both sexes, and 15 had only female learners.

The majority of the female learners came from families that sent their other children to regular schools. In rural areas the number of families having more than one children in school is small, as is the proportion of with every child in school. Most of the children withhold from schooling remain to be females. The non formal education project substantially raised the proportion of families with every child in school. These children come from poverty-stricken families of the village.

Most of the children were overaged for entrants to regular schools, of which some of them were immature dropouts and were fully illiterates.

2.10.3 Teaching Force

In order to minimize the rigidities of the conventional school system the project decided to recruit and train teachers from the community rather than hiring teachers with formal credentials. The recruitment and selection of teachers were undertaken jointly by the project team as well as community leaders. These teachers include farmers, artisans, construction workers and women mostly housewives. The majority of the teachers belong to lower social strata as their learners and speak the same vernacular. They are happy with the project, partly because of the additional income they obtain as teachers.

There was acute shortage of women teachers in the rural areas. With low enrollment and survival of girls in schools, the expansion of minimal literacy among females is relatively low.

The majority of those available women teachers are found to accomplish the full primary course that require seven years of class attendance, Age-wise, the range is between 20 and 30 years.

The training of these part-time teachers is organized on account of the following factors.

- i) The majority of the teachers are full-time farmers and few are employed in other occupations during the day time;

- ii) The educational standard of the majority ranges from about standard 7 to standard 10;
- iii) They make a welcome addition to their income obtained from their full-time job;
- iv) They reside in the village or hamlet where there is accommodation for classes; and
- v) They have no any exposure to teaching methodologies except their previous experience as students in formal schools.

2.10.4 Teaching-Learning Materials

It is obvious that children dropout from formal schooling, partly because of the perceived irrelevance of the regular school curriculum. The project, thus lays more emphasis on the preparation of relevant curricular materials that are more suitable to the leisure time available to evening classes. The major advantages of these materials are that they are self-explanatory and relevant to the life condition of rural women. These materials are subject to constant revision whenever reactions are forwarded by teachers and learners towards them.

The materials are produced in such a way that they are in harmony with the rural tradition. The project admits learners to the evening classes regardless of age consideration.

2.10.5 Dropout Rate

In one year a dropout rate of 19 percent was exhibited: 1966 girls(18.4%) and 86 boys (20.4%). It seems much lower than the rate of dropout in grade one, which is often not less than 50 percent. Although it was found to be lower than that of the formal schools, it still gives cause for concern.

2.11 Burkina Faso: Education for Rural Women

The neglected and disadvantaged position of women in the former rural Upper Volta (Burkina Faso) had necessitated the adaptation of education to the numerous and complex development needs of the country that was attempted during the decade of the sixties (Mcsweeney and Freedman, 1982). With only 10 percent total enrollment of eligible children in primary education (7 percent of girls and 11.2 percent of the boys) and more than 6000 villages lacking school facilities, the major concern of the government of the country was opening alternative options for basic education of women (UNESCO, 1975:15). The failure of formal education programme to involve women in significant numbers, and its inability to meet the country's development needs have necessitated the planning of alternative strategies for the education of rural women which tailored to address the practical needs of rural-life styles (Mcsweeney and Freedman, 1982).

In Burkina Faso, the project for the "Equal Access of Women and Girls" was initiated in 1967. The objective of the project was gathering information on impediments to the full opportunity for access of women to basic education and initiating tryout programmes to tackle the identified problems. The project addressed the issues of workload of women, poor health conditions and low standard of living which the pre feasibility studies had pinpointed as major obstacles. Thus, in order to save spare time for education intermediate rural technologies of mechanical grain mills, easily accessible water wells and carts were introduced with the assumption that learners can be motivated to learn. The educational programmes include literacy classes, training in the use of modern agricultural methods, health and civic education, and other activities that can generate income. The villagers themselves were requested to select women leaders from the village, who were then sent to special courses to enable them to be the disseminators of knowledge and

agents of change at the local level (Mcsweeney and Freedman, 1982:89)

Before the approval and signing of the action plan in 1967, a survey of the situation of rural women was made to determine appropriate modes of action and to select the tryout sites. The survey was undertaken by a team consisting of the representatives from various sectors of population in local areas by making visits to the designated villages. The survey offered the full picture of the condition of women in a specific traditional rural economy. Consequent upon the survey, three pilot zones were selected for implementation of the project: Kongoussi, Banfora and Pô(UNESCO, 11975:22)

2.11.1 Organizational Structure

The project was implemented under the auspices of the MOE of the country in collaboration with a number of other agencies and organizations. The project was steered by a central committee consisting of members from different interest groups: the Secretary of the National Commission for UNESCO, representatives from the ministries of education, health, social affairs and finance and commerce, the representatives of the rural development and primary education sectors, the project's chief technical advisor and the national coordinator, a woman jurist and a representative of the women's organizations of Burkina Faso. ILO and FAO have also taken concern in various lines of co-operation (UNESCO, 1975:20)

2.11.2 Implementation Phase

When we see the implementation phase of the project in the three selected pilot zones as a whole, a plan was worked out to implement the project in two phases. It is obvious that in a traditional, patriarchal society women are entrenched

in a subordinate position in the community. Consequent upon the 1969 survey, a plan was made in such a way that the first phase consisted of an information campaign to increase the degree of acceptance of the project among the villagers and the second phase devoted to the provision of basic literacy skills (UNESCO, 1975).

In the initial phase, the project insisted upon introducing labour-saving technology with the assumption that the time saved by the use of these technologies could be devoted to education. In collaboration with the local community, wells were dug in all the villages selected, carts and donkeys were made available to carry water and wood, and mechanical grain mills were introduced in all the villages. In some of the selected sites maternity centers were arranged, local mid-wives were trained in the proper handling and care of siblings and women in the villages were introduced with better child care. Health and sanitation education were given more emphasis in the programme. Agricultural education and small-scale home trade were provided as one of the major elements of the programme to involve women in concrete experience of community work. Radios were also used broadcasting in local languages to reinforce the community education programmes (UNESCO, 1975).

In some of the pilot sites the men were given responsibility for digging wells and to building nursing classes and community learning centers.

As soon as the project has got acceptance in the pilot zones, women in the villages elected representatives to pursue a three to four weeks training in village leaders and upgrading the skills of village mid-wives. These brief courses included certain aspects of civic education focused on the development needs of the country and the duties and rights of women, techniques to exercise health and sanitation activities, family planning and social education, introduction to the application of

better agricultural practices and practical training in home-based crafts and manual skills. Upon their return to their villages, these women were used as a good channel to disseminate the knowledge they had acquired to other community members (Mcsweeney and Feedman, 1982; UNESCO, 1975).

After the year 1970, a number of international agencies began expanding functional literacy programmes relevant to the life-style of the rural women. Teaching materials were developed in languages commonly spoken by people in the pilot zones (UNESCO, 1975).

2.11.3 Staff Training

Training courses were provided to teachers, instructors and feminine leadership in the villages to equip them with the necessary skills needed to carryout the project. They were recruited from among the villages selected for the pilot programme . Training materials were prepared in local languages. In addition to the training of teachers and village leaders, special training programmes for individuals selected to work in the central, regional and village teams have been arranged. The teams were recruited from among teachers with credentials, and been trained in the techniques used to train the formal school teachers (UNESCO, 1975).

2.11.4 Problems Encountered

In Burkina Faso the education of rural women and girls has encountered a number of problems. The evaluation made by a tripartite commission (UNDP, UNESCO and the government) in 1974 brought out the following basic conditions as hindrance:

- i) Lack of adequate transportation and communication facilities have blocked contacts with the community and slow the arrival and repair of equipment's;
- ii) The shortage of water in the areas selected has affected the supply of clean water;
- iii) The acute shortage of trained instructors has become an impediment on the implementation of the project;
- iv) The inadequacy of the time set (five months) to undertake the literacy programme effectively; and
- v) The inadequacy of the project to address itself to both men as well as women. If male household heads remain illiterate they fail to encourage their wives and daughters to get the chances which they themselves had missed.

2.12 Mali: Rural Village School

In rural Mali only 20 percent of primary school-age children attended school and the rest are outside school. The majority of the children who have never attended school are girls. In order to open up more opportunities for access to education, Save the Children (US) launched a village school programme in 1992. Bambara, a language spoken by a sizable population, is used as a medium of instruction. Teachers are recruited from among the villagers. Where as schools are built by the villagers themselves, while save the children provides the necessary materials. (UNESCO, 1996).

The curriculum is designed and developed in such a way that it can provide rural children with life skills related to their life styles and school teams are adjusted to meet the demands of agriculture. The local communities are expected to pay the salary of teachers and training is provided jointly, by Save the Children and the National Pedagogical Institute. Instructions are carried out for three hours in a day with the assumption that children can be free for other domestic tasks and household duties (UNESCO, 1996).

The primary objective of this project is to increase the enrollment of girls by 50 percent. This was also a situation arranged by Save the Children for the provision of assistance in the construction of school buildings and in offering support to the villagers. Particular attention is given to the recruitment and to play an important role in improving the status of women in the community. Female teachers are also more desirable in the sense that they are unlikely to move away from rural areas to towns in search of employment (UNESCO, 1996).

Since 1992, 22 village schools have been built and another 50 villages have asked for the construction of similar schools in their areas (UNESCO, 1996).

2.13 Nepal. The Family Literacy Programme

As presented by UNESCO (1996), the family literacy programme was initiated in the village of Adai Gon in Nepal with the assumption that literacy skills can be the basis for the improvement of family living standards. The programme was carried out in 25 homes, for particular community members known as Kumals, people who have been primarily identified by their skills of pottery making and now a days by subsistence farming.

The tasks to be conducted were decided at a three-day workshop arranged for the members of the community and representatives from various funding agencies. Various tasks were identified to be undertaken by the programme. The major part of this programme was the initiation of kitchen garden which was assumed to raise the income-generating capacity of the villagers. This involved lessons in skills for growing vegetables and assistance was necessary to buy seeds, materials and irrigation pipes. The instruction in literacy and numeracy was directly linked with vegetable growing skills and marketing procedures. A much useful activity was the engagement of local teachers in setting up a club where school children secure help in doing their homework before and after school. Another task was to encourage teenage mothers to keep 'baby books' that contain information related to the health and nutrition of babies and details were recorded linked with the growth of children and to unique events in their lives. The main objective of the programme was to make instructions more relevant to the social, economic and cultural background of the Kumals. The programme was assisted by Save the Children, the Center for International Education at the University of Massachusetts and UNESCO which consists of the provision of consultancy services, materials and funds.

2.14 China: Functional Literacy Programme for Women

This programme was implemented by the all china Women's Federation in cooperation with the Yunnan Education Commission. The programme was designed to provide literacy and numeracy instruction and skills training for underprivileged rural women in mountainous areas of Yunnan. Consequent upon the implementation of this programme more than 26,000 women have become literate and 270,000 have got training in different areas of skills linked with such activities as grafting fruit trees, raising pigs and assuming leadership positions and taking part in decision making activities. Whereas women attend classes, while their male partners engage

in household tasks. Protection is provided for the women when they go and come from classes (UNESCO, 1996).

2.15 **Adaptation of the Curriculum of Non formal Education in Some Countries**

Enrichment of the existing content with additional skill training relevant to address the needs and demands of daily life; relating the content to the needs and characteristics of rural life; and orienting education toward practical work with the desire of making education relevant to development need, as suggested by (UNESCO, 1980) have been exercised in various circumstances. The following projects have been undertaken in various countries with the assumption that they can open more opportunities for deprived groups such as women and nomads:

i) The so-called Yagamukame Center for Non formal Education in Burundi, undertaken by the Catholic Church, for children and youth aged 9-18 not attending schools. Pupils enter to these schools voluntarily to learn catechesis, literacy skills and income generating activities.

ii) Integrated Rural Education Centers in Sudan, which provides a six-year programme adapted to the basic needs of children in rural areas and designed to develop skills and attitudes that lay more emphasis on manual work and rural life, using the resources and facilities of the community. The local environment serves as the basic source from which the curriculum is developed.

iii) Community education centers in Tanzania where programme integrating the school into the village and responding to the needs of the local community has been developed. The curriculum of the upper grades of primary

school is described in four categories: elementary instruction in numerically and literacy, civics, "do-it-yourself" and cultural variables, and community instruction. The "do-it-yourself" activities are of two types: those related to the operation of the school and those carried out in co-operation with the community.

iv) The Ghandi Basic Education Project (Wordha Scheme) in India, which is developed from the life experiences and philosophy of Mahatama Ghandi. The basic assumption of this project is that all people, including the most disadvantaged can learn to lead a productive life combining intellectual knowledge and manual skills to satisfy their community's needs through their own efforts alone. The project is concerned a) with the provision of primary education in every rural village, and b) with the prevention of educated youth from scorning manual work. Instructions in manual skills enable schools to be financially self-sufficient and hence capable of overcoming the major impediment to universal primary education, which has been primarily shortage of fund.

2.16. **Schools for Disadvantaged Groups**

In areas with scattered populations, and thus low participation of children, the most commonly applied approach has been the so called "one-teacher school" or "single-teacher primary school" which combines several classes into a single classroom and serves children of various ages, in areas where school enrollment is not adequate enough to call for the opening of full-time schools (Bray, 1987)

The "double class" system is another established formula in which a teacher is assigned for two grades and children attend classes together on a normal schedule or separately on an alternative basis, morning or afternoon. These nontraditional modalities are established within formal systems, sometimes on a large scale (UNESCO, ROEP, 1989).

A number of pilot projects are undertaken in many countries for children of mobile and deprived segments of population. These include: Tent schools in India for the nomads of Rajasthan; the Mobile Tent School in Philippines in the context of the programme of Decentralized Education Development; Basic Education for Nomads in Somalia, in conjunction with Koranic schools; the Tamazalak project for children of nomadic population in Niger; the Nomadic Education Project conducted by UNESCO and the University of Jos in Nigeria and funded by the UNDP (UNESCO, 1989).

In Ethiopia, the best examples of such schools, which began operation in recent years, are the mobile tent schools in Borana which were established for children of nomadic population, run by the Oromiya Education Bureau; the boarding primary schools established in Somali Region by the Regional Education Bureau for children of nomadic and pastoral communities; and the school for deprived groups established by the Federal Ministry of Education for children from deprived and nomadic population of Afar, Gambella, Somali and Benishangul regions can be cited as recent accomplishments (Abebe, 1998).

2.17 The Role of Non governmental Organizations

The increasing role of NGOs in the provision of education throughout the world is providing a widening energetic force. Their involvement in educational efforts, which was traditionally targeted to expand adult education, is currently seen to expand its scope towards covering primary education for deprived communities (Stromquist, 1997).

The primary education programmes offered by NGOs for deprived rural communities are called non formal in the sense that many of such schools consist of

only one to three grades, and usually classes are conducted in a variety of accommodations and the instructors have no teaching credentials (Stromquist, 1997).

Some NGOs have links with religious groups; a great many are secular. Few of them do not seek to offer “a democratic or emancipator education”, although most of them do. The most desirable thing from the point of view of promoting women’s education, is that large number of NGOs providing education for females have a good deal of experience in offering philosophies that regard the family as a whole and look for coherent educational and economic objectives (UNESCO, 1996; Stromquist, 1997).

The out-of-school programmes conducted by NGOs are less costly as they often rely on less qualified instructors, use existing facilities and often assisted by local people for their continuing operation. Some of the non formal education projects are also assisted by international development agencies. The fact that large number of non formal education projects operate in remote areas have opened up more opportunities for deprived rural girls to pursue their education at fundamental stages. Many of the non formal educational projects operating in remote villages offer functional literacy and skill training related to vegetable production, poultry, use of variety seeds, application of manure and home-based small-scale crafts and trading. (UNESCO, 1975; UNESCO, 1996; Stromquist, 1997). Many other NGOs have also been involved in offering literacy and numeracy skills related to family planning and environmental education (UNESCO, 1996).

The most successful examples of NGO-based primary schools have been established in Pakistan (Balochistan), Bangladesh and India. We noted the Indian experience earlier and no need to come across again. In Bangladesh, one of the

oldest and largest NGOs in the World-BRAC has been providing non formal primary education successfully. The BRAC village schools, each of which offers learning for a cohort of 33 students over the course of three years, have currently enrolled about 900,000 students (Stromquist and Murphy, 1995 in Stromquist 1997:68). The project is found to operate at a very lower cost compared to that of the regular primary schools. In Balochistan, Pakistan one of the famous and innovative NGOs in the country has successfully established non formal primary schools in a number of villages where no schools for girls had existed (Stromquist, 1997).

NGO-based basic education programs could be effectively used for the provision of alternative strategies for women (teenage girls) who dropout from regular schools due to pregnancy. Their capability to design and tailor programmes to special needs and their less rigid approach in terms of control and scheduling are considerable assets. Their wider coverage of remote villages through the non formal education programmes can offer them with the advantage of recruiting female teachers to serve in the programmes (Stromquist, 1997). There is, thus a growing need to incorporate NGOs in the design and implementation of nation-wide educational programmes, carried out under the auspices of the Ministry of Education.

In Ethiopia, there is at present a limited involvement of NGOs in the design and implementation of gender-sensitive basic educational programmes for women. Those NGOs who have experienced efforts in carrying out gender-sensitive educational projects are counted on the finger tips. In the following section we shall try to over-view the gender-sensitive educational programme being undertaken by Agri-Service Ethiopia in some selected rural villages of Oromiya.

Agri-Service Ethiopia (ASE) is one of the oldest non-governmental and non-profit making organization which was registered by the Ethiopian Ministry of Interior in December 1969. It started its operation in Wolayta Sodo in 1969, and seven years later (1976) it transferred its main office to Addis Abeba to scale up its program and to consolidate administrative activities. It began its operation as an indigenous NGO in 1987.

In order to contribute to the social and economic development of the disadvantaged rural population in Ethiopia, ASE had specified its objectives as follow.

- i) enhance the knowledge and stimulate the implementation of improved farming methods among the rural men and women and hence assist them in developing their problem solving capacity;
- ii) strengthen the socio-economic position of women in the rural areas through awareness raising, skill development and income generating projects;
- iii) improve and increase the productive potential of the house hold members;
- iv) assist rural households to develop initiatives and innovations in the construction and use of improved implements, tools and equipment for both farm and home;
- v) raise the awareness of rural communities about their environment and enhance their knowledge and practice about forest, soil and water conservation and development; and,

- vi) mobilize communities in establishing basic services like rural water supply to provide clean and adequate water for the household.

Special attention is given to the most disadvantaged rural groups such as women and children to meet their needs and demands to basic education and other social services. ASE gives particular attention to the construction and improvement of rural-based technology like grain mills, farm implements, water supply, bridges, rural roads etc. to save leisure time for the education and skill training of rural women.

Currently, the organization operates in three regions namely Semen Omo in SNNP Regional State, Bale in Oromiya Region, and Misrak Gojjam in Amhara Region. It operates its activities in an areas having an estimated population of 60,000 involving a total of 59 peasant associations in 7 woredas,

One of the areas assessed by this study was the operational area of ASE in Bale Zone, Oromiya Region. The ASE Program covers 23 peasant associations in three woredas namely Gololcha-Gassera, Goro and Ginir. In these areas the organization has pursued a bottom-up training program integrated with practical activities directed towards improving the living standard of rural communities. One of the outstanding achievements, in the activities of ASE is its basic education and skill training program that provides inputs in the form of package geared towards addressing the basic needs such as vegetable, poultry production, house improvements, and improved water supply. Health education and family planning services are among the integral part of IRDP. At present, the organization is undertaking a series of innovative projects in the fields of natural crop protection, forage improvement, seed production, afforestation and agroforestry, bookkeeping and development. The projects are being tested on-farm trials.

CHAPTER III

3. THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to assess the alternative strategies for the basic education of women in rural areas, identify the major factors affecting the education of women and suggest sound strategies that need to be implemented to widen the opportunity for access to equitable distribution of basic education. Thus, to this end the study employed a descriptive approach with the assumption that it would be more appropriate to show the educational status of rural women at present and the measures to be taken ahead.

3.1. Sampling Technique

As mentioned earlier, two zones were selected for the study. Out of 29 woredas of the two zones, 6 were selected systematically (3 woredas from Bale and 3 from Borna). Data were obtained from 29 sample schools selected on the basis of simple random sampling procedure, which is 16% of the total primary schools available in the six woredas.

Regarding the out-of-school educational programme, 18 basic education centers run by zonal education departments selected from the representative woredas (3 centers from each woreda) were included in the study, which is 15% of such educational centers currently operating in the sample woredas. In addition, 1 basic education center run by Agri-Service Ethiopia (ASE) was included in the study. Out of 22 mobile tent schools operating in Borana zone (some of them assume formal status), 3 centers were randomly selected for this study, which is nearly 14% of the total.

Five categories of respondents: female pupils and drop-outs of the previous years; female learners from the out-of-school educational programs; principals, assistant principals and unit leaders of the representative schools; program coordinators and facilitators of the basic education centers and mobile tent schools; educational experts from zonal and representative woredas; and community representatives were included in the study.

As far as female students are concerned, only female pupils at grade 4 level in each sample school were selected to fill the questionnaire with the assumption that students below this level are not matured enough to appropriately fill in the questionnaire. The total number of female pupils going to school in the selected grade is 110. Since female students at grade 4 level are small in number all were taken on the basis of availability sampling procedure.

Regarding female dropouts, stratified quota sampling procedure was applied on the basis of religion they follow. Thus, 6 Muslims, 6 Christians and 6 “Waqeffatas” were randomly selected from both zones. The “Waqeffatas” (those who follow Oromo traditional belief) were selected from Borana Zone, added to 2 Christians and a Muslim selected from the zone. The rest 4 Christians and 5 Muslims were selected from Bale zone.

In case of school personnel, principals, assistant principals and unit leaders of the representative schools (29 principals, 14 assistant principals and 10 unit leaders) were included in the study on the basis of availability sampling technique. One thing should be noted here is that some of the sample schools could either lack assistant principals or unit leaders, a reason that could lower their representation.

In case of the non-regular educational programme, 180 learners were selected for the study out of the total learners passing their education. 10 learners were randomly selected from each basic education center, which is about 15% of the total learners. In addition, one basic education center run by Agri-Service Ethiopia in Bale Zone, Gololcha - Gassera woreda was involved in the study. 10 learners, a program co-ordinator and 2 facilitators were selected from the center.

A simple random sampling technique was employed to select female learners from the mobile tent schools operating in Borana Zone. Thus, 10 learners from each center (3x10) were selected for the study. A program co-ordinator and 3 facilitators were selected from each center to fill in the questionnaire.

Regarding community representatives, stratified quota sampling procedure was employed to select them on the basis of their income status and religion. Thus, 3 representatives from each woreda were selected: Muslims, Christians and "Waqeffatas", using purposive sampling. Among the total of 18 community representatives, 9 from each zone were selected: 5 Muslims and 4 Christians from Bale, 5 Christians and 4 "Waqeffatas" from Borana. As far as their economic background is concerned, 9 representatives from each class and from each zone were involved in the study using systematic sampling procedure. The researcher would like to note that there has not been household surveys carried out on large-scale in the country except in some limited areas, thus the categorisation of the community representatives into various economic classes was determined on the basis of information drawn from teachers, agricultural development agents and elder people found around the sample schools.

3.2. Variables Included in the Study

- i) Nonformal (non-regular) female learners' characteristics related to:
 - Age and schooling, e.g. dropouts, primary school leavers, fully illiterates and beginners...
 - Role, e.g. Young women, mothers with young children...
 - Occupation, e.g. farmers, petty traders, craftsmen, housewives...
- ii) Female pupils' and dropouts' characteristics related to:
 - Family income, educational status, cultural and religious background, school location and distribution, future success expectation, security concern, the traditional role of the young girl...
- iii) School characteristics related to:
 - School instruction, school calendar, school operation system, load of work in school, teachers level of understanding of the particular situation of girls, sex-re stereotyping in school textbooks, irrelevance of the school curriculum, degree of influence of the role-models of women in school staff and administration...

The dependant variable of this study was the participation of women in basic education in rural areas, while the independent variables were the socio-economic, political cultural & religious factors as well as the modes and delivery system of education available to them.

3.3. Instruments and Procedures Used to Collect and Analyze the data

a, Questionnaire was employed to:

- i) female pupils currently attending class in lower primary schools and

- dropouts of the previous years found around the sample schools;
- ii) female learners currently learning in basic education centers run by zonal education departments; female learners in basic education center run by Agri-Service Ethiopia in Bale Zone; and female learners in mobile tent schools in Borana Zone;
- iii) Principals, assistant principals and unit leaders of the sample schools; and program co-ordinators and facilitators of the non-regular basic education centers and mobile tent schools; and
- iv) educational experts in zonal and woreda education offices concerned for adult and nonformal education programs.

b) Structured interview was conducted to:

- i) Community representatives found around the sample schools.

3.4. Data Analysis

Percentages were used to describe the personal attributes of the groups of sample population involved in the study and the self-perception of learners in various settings of learning.

The rate of enrolment growth, and percentages were used to determine the current educational status of rural women.

Weighted mean, one-way ANOVA and Tukey-HSD were used to determine variations between and among the study subjects.

Using the above tools, the following section deals with the data obtained from the field to carryout the study.

CHAPTER IV

4. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This part of the study treats the presentation and analysis of the data collected from the subjects of the study, from documents in OEB as well as the MOE through questionnaire from educational experts, non-formal basic education learners, program co-ordinators and facilitators, girl pupils and dropouts, and through interview conducted with community representatives. Of the total 102 questionnaire distributed for educational experts 91(89.2%) and out of 107 questionnaire distributed to NFBE learners 100 (93.5%) were returned. Out of 124 questionnaire distributed for girl pupils and dropouts 116(93.5%) were returned and used for analysis. As far as the community representatives are concerned all the structured interview were properly filled and returned for analysis. The analysis of this study was made on the basis of the data collected from the study subjects through questionnaire, interview, document analysis and on the spot observation.

* the nonformal educational programs facilitators and co-ordinators were put in the category of educational experts while tabulating and analyzing the data in few instances.

TABLE I

Educational Personnel by their Zone, Sex, AGE, Position, Education, Service Religion and Marital Status.

Zone	No	%	Sex	No	%	age	No	%	Educ Status	No	%	Position	No	%	Service	No	%	Religion	No	%	Marital Status	No	%	REmarks			
Bale	39	42.8	Male	33	84.6	20-25	16	41.0	12thcom	14	35.8	Z.E.H	1	2.5	1-5	18	46.1	O.c	20	51.2	Married	23	58.5				
			Female	6	15.4	26-30	6	15.3	12thITI	21	53.8	Z.E.Exp	1	2.5	6-10	8	20.5	Muslim	7	17.9	Unmarrie	14	35.8				
							31-35	9	23.0	12+1	-	-	Principl	13	33.3	11-15	6	15.3	Other			d					
							36 and	8	20.5	12+2	3	7.6	V/prin	10	25.6	16-24	3	7.6	(protes)	12	30.7		2		5.1		
							Above			12+4	1	2.5	U.Lead	5	12.8	21-25	2	5.1									
										and above			NFPE	9	23.0	26 years and Above	2	5.1									
Total	39	42.8		39	100		39	100		39	100		39	100		39	100		39	100		39	100				
Borana	52	57.2	Male	44	84.6	20-25	14	26.9	12thcom	16	28.8	Z.E.H	1	1.9	1-5	24	46.1	O.C	18	34.6	Married	27	51.9				
			Female	8	15.4	26-30	16	30.7	12thITI	34	65.3	Z.E.Exp	1	1.9	6-10	12	23.0	Muslim	6	11.5	Unmarrie	22	42.3				
							31-35	13	25.0	12+1	1	1.9	Principl	13	25.0	11-15	8	15.3	Other	28	53.8	d	3		5.7		
							36 and	9	17.3	12+2	1	1.9	V/prin	10	19.2	16-24	4	7.6									
							Above			12+4	1	1.9	U.Lead	5	9.6	21-25	2	3.8									
										and above			NFPE	22	42.3	26 years and Above	2	3.8									
Total	52	57.2		51	100		51	100		51	100		51	100		51	100		51	100		51	100				
G.Total	91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100				

As indicated in Table I, a total of 91 educational experts were involved in the study. Out of these numbers 39 (42.8%) are from Bale, while 52 (57.2%) are from Bornana. Sex wise 77 (84.6) are males and 14(15.4%) are females. Sex differentials were expected as the number of females in the world of work is much lower than their male counter parts.

Regarding respondents' age, the majority i.e. 30(33%) and 22(24.1%) fall between the age-groups of 20-25 and 26-30 respectively. The remaining 24.1% and 18.7% are between the age-groups of 31-35 and 36 and above respectively. Because all of them have attained maturity level, as far as their age is concerned, our sample can be considered dependable to respond to the questions.

With regard to position of the respondents, the majority i.e. 46(50.5%) are school principals and 31(34.1%) are program co-ordinators and facilitators of the non-formal basic education programs. The remaining 10(11%) and 4(4.4%) are unit leaders and zonal adult education experts respectively.

Among the subjects, 55 (60.4%) and 30 (33%) have 12th grade complete and T.T.I. level qualifications respectively, and only 4 (4.4%) and 2 (2.2%) have diploma and degree level qualifications respectively.

As far as their religious affiliation is concerned 38(41.8%) and 40 (44%) are Orthodox Christians and followers of traditional Oromo belief or others respectively. The remaining 13 (14.3% are Muslims.

Among the respondents 50(55%) and 36(39.6%) are married and unmarried respectively. Only 5(5.5%) are divorced.

TABLE II
Non formal BE. Learners Respondent by Their Zone, age, Religion, Center of Learning, Marital Status and Income Status.

Zone	No	%	Sex	No	%	Age	N	%	Educ	N	%	Position	N	%	Service	N	%	Religion	N	%	Marital	N	%	
							o		Status	o			o			o			o		Status	o		
Bale	39	42.8	Male	33	84.6	20-25	16	41.0	12thcom	14	35.8	Z.E.H	1	2.5	1-5	18	46.1	O. c	20	51.2	Married	23	58.5	
			Female	6	15.4	26-30	6	15.3	12thTTI	21	53.8	Z.E.Exp	1	2.5	6-10	8	20.5	Muslim	7	17.9	Unmarried	14	35.8	
							31-35	9	23.0	12+1	-	-	Principle	13	33.3	11-15	6	15.3	Other					
							36 and above	8	20.5	12+2	3	7.6	V/prin	10	25.6	16-24	3	7.6	(Protes)	12	30.7	Divorced	2	5.1
										12+4 and above	1	2.5	U.Lead	5	12.8	21-25	2	5.1						
											NFPE	9	23.0	26 years and above	2	5.1								
Total	39	42.8		39	100		39	100		39	100		39	100		39	100		39	100		39	100	
Borana	52	57.2	Male	44	84.6	20-25	14	26.9	12thcom	16	28.8	Z.E.H	1	1.9	1-5	24	46.1	O. c	18	34.6	Married	27	51.9	
			Female	8	15.4	26-30	16	30.7	12thTTI	34	65.3	Z.E.Exp	1	1.9	6-10	12	23.0	Muslim	6	11.5	unmarried	22	42.3	
							31-35	13	25.0	12+1	1	1.9	Principle	13	25.0	11-15	8	15.3	Other	28	53.8	Divorced	3	5.7
							36 and Above	9	17.3	12+2	1	1.9	V/prin	10	19.2	16-24	4	7.6						
										12+4 and above	1	1.9	U.Lead	5	9.6	21-25	2	3.8						
											NFPE	22	42.3	26 years and above	2	3.8								
Total	52	57.2		51	100		51	100		51	100		51	100		51	100		51	100		51	100	
G.Total	91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100	

With regard to the nonformal education learners (see Table II) a total of 100 subjects were involved in the study: 46 (46%) of them from Bale and 54 (54%) from Boranan. As far as the subjects' age is concerned, 24(24%) and 25 (25%) fall between age groups of 10-15 and 15-20 respectively. 19(19%) fall between the age-group of 20-25, while 15(15%) are beyond 25 years of age. The remaining 17 (17%) are less than 10 years of age. This shows that the majority of the respondents have attained maturity level and hence our sample can be considered dependable.

Regarding respondents' religious affiliations 38(38%) are followers of Oromo traditional belief and non-Orthodox Christians. The remaining 26(26%) and 26(26%) are Orthodox Christians and Muslims respectively. The Borana sample tends toward a greater proportion of traditional belief, while the Bale sample show a greater proportion of Muslim subjects. Since the number of subjects involved is small, no attempt will be made to relate religious affiliation with attitudinal or any other factor.

Among the respondents 52(52%) and 48(48%) are poor and with medium level status respectively. No one responded to be rich. In both zones the majority of the learners tend to come from poor households although there is a slight disparity between them.

Among the learners 36(36%) and 51(51%) are married and unmarried respectively. The remaining 13(13%) are divorced. This shows that a considerable number of the respondents are married while they are learners. This perhaps reflects the traditional attitude of the rural society that women are not meant to be educated in the formal school system, since their female role in life prepares them for domestic tasks.

Out of the total learners 68% and 26% are from government-run basic education centers and tent schools respectively. only 6% are from the learning center run by ASE in Bale Zone.

TABLE III

Community Representative Respondents by Their Zone, Sex, Occupation, Religion, Income Status, Educational Status of Husband & Wife and Number of Dependants

Zone	No	%	Sex	No	%	Religion	No	%	Occup.	No	%	Income status	No	%	Ed. Stat. Of Husband	No	%	Ed. Stat. Of Wife	No	%	No. of Dependants	No	%
Bale	9	50.0	Macl	9	100	O.C	4	44.4	Farm	5	55.6	Rich	3	33.3	Illiterate	5	55.6	Illiterate	8	88.9	1-3	2	22.2
						Muslim	5	55.6	Manuf.	1	11.1	Medium	3	33.3	Read & Write		33.3	Read &	1	11.1	4-6	5	55.6
						Other	-	-	Trader	1	11.1	Poor	3	33.3	Primary School & above	3	11.1	Write	-	-	7-9	2	22.2
									Craft & Skill	1	11.1				1		Primary School & above						
									Other	1	11.1												
Total	39	42.8		39	100		39	100		39	100		39	100		39	100		39	100		39	100
Borana	52	57.2	Male	44	84.6	20-25	14	26.9	12thcom	16	28.8	Z.E.H	1	1-9	1-5	24	46.1	O.C	18	34.6	Married	27	51.9
			Female	8	15.4	26-30	16	30.7	12thTTI	34	65.3	Z.E.Exp	1	1-9	6-10	12	23.0	Muslim	6	11.5	Unmarried	22	42.3
						31-35	13	25.0	12+1	1	1.9	Principl	13	25.0	11-15	8	15.3	Other	28	53.8	Divorced	3	5.7
						36 and Above	9	17.3	12+2	1	1.9	V/prin	10	19.2	16-24	4	7.6						
									12+4 and above	1	1.9	ULead	5	9.6	21-25	2	3.8						
												NFPE	22	42.3	26 years and Above	2	3.8						
Total	52	57.2		51	100		51	100		51	100		51	100		51	100		51	100		51	100
G.Total	91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100		91	100

As indicated in Table III, a total of 18 community representatives were involved in the study: 9(50%) from each zone. Regarding the subjects sex all of them are males. This was so because the research procedure was met with a co-operative response from male individuals only.

In case of the subjects' religious affiliation, 50% are Orthodox Christians. The remaining 27.8% and 22.2% are Muslims and followers of other beliefs, respectively. The subjects' religious affiliations in general were diverse in both zonal samples, with Muslim group predominating in Bale and Orthodox Christians being predominant in Borana. All the followers of the traditional Oromo belief were taken from Borana. This was intentionally done to represent all religious groups.

Concerning their occupational status, they represent a broad range of occupational status, 44% farmers, 16.7% manufacturers, 16.7% traders, and 16.7% semi-skilled craftsmen.

With regard to respondents' educational status of husband, the majority (61.1%) are illiterates and 27.8% can read and write. Only 11.1% of the husbands attained primary school level and above. Where as 88.9% of the wives are found to be illiterates, only insignificant number of the women can read and write.

As far as the number of dependants is concerned, 61.1% of the subjects responded to have 4-6 dependants at home and 22.2% mentioned to have 1-3 dependants. Only 16.7% of the subjects responded to have 7-9 dependants at home.

Among the respondents, 33.3% are from relatively upper social strata, 33.3% from middle and 33.3% from the lower social class. This was intentionally done to equally represent people from all social classes.

TABLE IV
Girl pupils' and Dropouts respondents by Their Zone, Age, Religion, Educational Status of Father and Mother, Occupation of Father and mother, Income Status of Parents and the Current Educational Status of the Girl

Zone	No	%	Age	No	%	Religion	No	%	Center of Learning	No	%	Martial Status	No	%	Income Status	No	%	Remarks
Bale	46	46	<10	8	17.39	O. Ch. Muslin Other	14	30.4	Government-run BEC Agri-Service-run BEC. Mobile Tent School	40	87	Married Unmarried Divorce	8	17.4	Rich Medium Poor	-	-	
			10-15	10	21.73		18	39.1		6	13		30	65.2		20	43.5	
			15-20	10	21.73		14	30.4		-	-		8	17.4		26	56.5	
			20-25	10	21.73													
			25 yrs & above	8	17.39													
Total	46	46		46	100		46	100		46	100		46	100		46	100	
Borana	54	54	<10	9	16.7	O. Ch. Muslin Other	12	22.2	Government run BEC. Agri-Service-run BEC Mobil Tent School	28	52	Married Unmarried Divorce	28	52	Rich Medium Poor	-	-	
			10-15	14	25.9		8	14.8		-	-		21	38.9		28	52	
			15-20	15	27.8		34	63		-	-		5	9.3		26	48	
			20-25	9	16.7													
			25 yrs & above	7	13													
Total	54	54		54	100		54	100		54	100		54	100		54	100	
G.Total	100	100		100	100		100	100		100	100		100	100		100	100	

As indicated in table IV, a total of 116 pupils and dropouts were involved in the study. Zonal wise 61(52.6%) are from Bale and 55 (47.4%) are from Borana. Regarding respondents' age, 52(49.1%) fall within the range of 10-15, and 64(60.4%) are those who attained age level of 15 and above. Thus, it is safe to say that the sample is relatively dependable to respond to the questions.

With regard to the subjects religious affiliation, 47(44.3%) and 35(33%) are Muslims and Orthodox Christians respectively. The remaining 34 (32.1%) are followers of other beliefs. In Bale the samples tend towards a greater proportion of Muslim subjects, while in Borana there is a greater proportion of other beliefs, including the Oromo traditional belief. Religious affiliation will have its own implications in the on going study.

Regarding the educational status of fathers, 90(84.9%) and 23 (21.7%) are fully illiterates and with initial skills of reading and writing respectively. Only 3 (4.9%) of the subjects mentioned to have attained primary education and above. This shows that parents of our girl pupils are mainly with no formal education at all. This may tend towards pushing parents to perceive that formal school education does not prepare their daughters adequately for their traditional roles as women. Regarding the education of mothers 106 (91.4%) are fully illiterates. This shows that the situation is worse for them than their male partners.

Regarding the occupation of fathers, 76(65.5%) are farmers, 10(8.6%) are traders, 10(8.6%) semi-skilled craftsmen, and 9(7.8%) are manufacturers. In case of the occupation of mothers, 90(77.6%) are house-wives and the rest are fairly evenly distributed throughout the other categories.

With regard to income level of parents, 57 (49.1%) and 49(42%) are poor and with medium level status respectively. In both zones the majority of the pupils come from households that do not enjoy better living standard.

TABLE V

Household Composition and Domestic Responsibility of NFBE Learners
(Given in % N Sample)

Items	No	%
Who do you live with?		
A) Father and mother	14	14
B) Father alone	8	8
C) Mother alone	7	7
D) Another Person	5	5
E) With husband	36	36
F) Alone	30	30
How many brothers do you have?		
A) 1 - 3	32	32
B) 4 - 6	28	28
C) 5 - 7	16	16
D) More than 7	1	1
How many are older than you?		
A) 1 - 3	34	34
B) 4 - 6	5	5
C) 7 - 9	-	-
How many children are younger than you?		
A) 1 - 3	28	28
B) 4 - 6	12	12
C) 7 - 9	-	-
How many children are staying at home		
A) 1 - 3	29	29
B) 4 - 6	9	9
C) 7 - 9	-	-
How do your sisters help at home?		
A) Fetching water	26	26
B) Working on the farm	8	8
C) Preparing meals	24	24
D) raising siblings	18	18
E) Collecting firewood	24	24
How do your brothers help at home?		
A) working on farm	34	34
B) look after cattle	37	37
C) Collecting firewood	20	20
How do you help at home?		
A) Fetching water	29	29
B) Prepare food	30	30
C) look after siblings	31	31
D) washing	7	7
E) other	-	-

As indicated in table V, certain trends occur with regards to household composition and domestic responsibility of learners. Where as 36% of the learners live with their husbands, while 30% live alone. The rest are fairly evenly distributed throughout the other categories: 14% with father and mother, 8% with father alone and 7% with mother alone. The remaining 5% live with other persons.

With regard to item Number 2, 32% of the female learners mentioned to have 1-3 brothers, while 28% responded to have 4-6 brothers. The remaining 17% mentioned to have 5-7 brothers. In case of item number 3, 34% of the female learners responded to have 1-3 older brothers at home, while 29% of the respondents said that 1-3 children stay at home. This finding substantiates the extended nature of rural households and the important role that children play in providing help at home.

Most learners were found to assist at home; (see items of the 6th, 7th and 8th rows), regarding boys 37% look after cattle, 34% work on farms, and 20% collect firewood. With regard to females, 26% fetch water, 24% prepare meals, 24% collect firewood and 18% take care of younger siblings. From the replies we can conclude that most parents give more emphasis to domestic responsibilities of their daughters and boys than to send them to school.

TABLE VI

Explanations on the degree of Utilization and Effectiveness of Nonformal Education Programs by Nonformal Learners, Program Co-ordinators and Facilitators
(Given in % N Sample)

Items	Learners		Co-ord & Facilit.		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
What Proportion of the learners in the present center previously attended regular class?						
A) Almost all of them	-	-	-	-	-	-
B) Many of them	54	54	15	48.4	69	52.7
C) few of them	36	36	10	32.3	46	35.1
D) none of them	10	10	6	19.4	16	12.2
If your answer for the above question would either be "A" or "B", then the expected reason for dropping out schooling is						
A) School instruction is not life-oriented	31	31	9	29	40	30.5
B) Schooling offers no time for labour at home	40	40	12	38.7	52	39.7
C) Parents fear of co-education	3	3	2	6.5	5	3.8
D) Unwanted Pregnancy	8	8	4	12.9	12	9.2
E) early marriage	16	16	3	9.8	17	12
F) Other reason	2	2	1	3.2	5	3.8
Explanations for not sending children to school						
A) Absence of school in the village	7	7	3	9.8	10	7.6
B) economic reason	27	27	5	16.1	32	24.4
C) Absence of educated women models in the village	8	8	3	9.8	11	8.4
D) Cultural and religious reasons	26	26	10	32.3	36	27.5
E) Parents want their girls help them at home	32	32	10	32.3	42	32.1
F) Other reason	-	-	-	-	-	-
More attention for enrolment in the center is given to:						
A) older age groups	74	74	18	58.1	92	70.2
B) younger age groups	13	13	2	6.5	15	11.5
C) equally open to all age-groups	13	13	11	35.5	24	18.3
The learning program is attained in						
A) less than two years time	81	81	17	54.8	98	74.8
B) Two years	5	5	4	12.9	9	6.9
C) Three years	6	6	6	19.4	12	9.2
D) Four years	8	8	4	12.9	12	9.2
The learning program is provided in						
A) Regular school rooms	29	29	9	29	38	29
B) In mobile tents	35	35	9	29	44	33.6
C) In rooms constructed for this purpose	9	9	-	-	9	6.9
D) Under the shade of tree	12	12	-	-	14	10.7
E) in rented rooms	10	10	7	22.6	17	13
F) others	5	5	6	12.9	11	8.4

As indicated in TABLE VI, the majority of the non-regular learners who are currently learning in non-formal basic education centers and tent schools are those who once attempted regular schooling and dropped out at the initial stage. The reason for dropping out schooling and coming to the present centers (see Table VI), as explained by (39.7%) of the respondents, is the concern of time for labour at home. (30.5%) replied that school instruction is not life-oriented.

If we look more specifically at the replies of the learners and co-ordinators and facilitators, nearly equal number of respondents from both groups (40% learners and 38.7% co-ordinators and facilitators) concern the problem of longer school hours in regular schooling. Another (30% learners and 29% co-ord. & facil.) concern the too academic nature of instruction in regular schools. The rest are fairly evenly distributed through out the other categories (13%) problem of early pregnancy, (9%) fear of co-education and (3.8%) problem of early marriage, the rest (3.8%) are "other reasons". There is no real contrast in emphasis between the two groups.

As the explanations for non-enrolment in schools indicate, although this question is responded by female learners, no specific reference was given either to boys or girls. As Table VI shows, the need of females by their parents for home chores, cultural and religious outlooks and economic reasons are mentioned most frequently by all subjects as major reasons.

If we look more specifically at the replies; (32.1%), (27.5%) and (24.4%) of the subjects' replies concern the need for children to stay at home to help with domestic chores, religious and cultural outlooks and economic reasons respectively. The other replies spread over the others (7.6%) absence of school in the villages and (8.4%) absence of educated women models in the villages.

The majority of the subjects (70.2%) responded that more attention for enrolment in the centers is given to older-age groups, except in tent schools where the chance is equally open for all age-groups.

The educational programs in the majority of learning centers, as responded by (74.8%) of the subjects, are attained in less than two years time (exception is the Agri-service program which is attained in less than 6 months). Here as can be seen from the responses of the subjects concern was not given by most of the out-of-school educational programs to the attainment of universal basic education. Rather the focus of the programs is on eradicating illiteracy, a direction which seldom complements the efforts done by the formal educational program to attain universal basic education.

The learning programs are mainly provided (see table VI) in tents and regular school rooms. Few of the non-formal educational programs have rooms constructed for learning purpose. Others provide learning under the shade of trees and in rented rooms.

TABLE VII

Expectations from the Non-formal Educational Programs as perceived by Learners,
Program Facilitators and Co-ordinators (Given in % N Sample = 131)

Items						
What would be useful for learners to learn at this stage?						
A) about improved farming	61	61	14	45.16	75	57.25
B) manufacturing	20	20	8	25.80	28	21.37
C) trading	9	9	4	12.90	13	9.92
d) clerical work	6	6	4	12.90	10	7.63
e) other	4	4	1	3.22	5	3.81
Expectations when your learning is considered terminal						
A) further education in regular schools	30	30	8	25.80	38	29
B) Go home to help parents	21	21	12	38.70	32	24.42
C) marriage	19	19	6	19.35	25	19.08
D) make use of learned skills	6	6	1	3.22	8	6.10
E) not yet decided	24	24	4	12.90	28	21.37
If your expectations would be to terminate learning, then the reason is likely to be;						
A) Marriage						
B) family responsibility	15	15	7	22.58	22	16.79
C) Overageness	29	29	11	35.48	40	30.53
D) family enterprise offers more benefits than the returns from schooling	13	13	2	6.45	15	11.45
E) Other	36	36	9	29.03	45	34.35
	7	7	1	3.22	8	6.10
	-	-	-	-	-	-
In your opinion, do you think that the expansion of NFBE would be useful to improve the opportunity of equal access for rural women?						
A) Yes	69	69	17	54.83	86	65.64
B) No	19	19	8	25.80	27	20.61
C) Needs further convestigations	12	12	6	19.35	18	13.74
The contribution of the community to the improvement and smooth-running of the NFBE programs is						
A) Higher	44	44	14	45.16	58	44.27
B) Lower	51	51	16	51.61	67	51.14
C)They know nothing about the programs	5	5	1	3.22	6	4.58

With regard to Table VII, out of the subjects asked to reply on what would be useful for learners at this stage 57.25% frequently mentioned that they prefer to learn about improved farming, while 21.37% said that they prefer to learn manufacturing.

If we look more specifically at the replies of each category of respondents, 61% of the learners and 45.2% of the co-ordinators and facilitators have mentioned to prefer improved farming, while 20% of the learners and 25.8% of the co-ordinators and facilitators have selected manufacturing as a course to learn. The other replies are spread widely across the other categories: trading, clerical work, and other skills. There is no real contrast in emphasis between the two groups of respondents. Most of the subjects have expressed their choice to earn about improved farming perhaps because they earn their livelihood from agricultural products.

With regard to the expectations of learners when learning is considered terminal, 30% of the learners and 26.8% of the co-ordinators and facilitators said that they have a desire to continue further education, while 21% of the learners and 38.7% of the co-ordinators and facilitators responded to have a wish to go home and help parents. Still 24% of the learners and 12.9% of the co-ordinators and facilitators replied that they have a plan to make use of the skills learned. There is a real contrast of emphasis between the two groups of subjects concerning the latter. Where as learners give more emphasis to make use of the skills learned, while co-ordinators and facilitators show less interest to the item. The great majority of the respondents have forwarded various replies as to what to do after learning is considered terminal 34.4% and 30.5% of the replies show desires to work in family enterprise and to take care of family. Overageness and wishes to get married are also offered considerable percent by respondents. Ambiguous set of replies are also observed.

With regard to the fourth item, 69% of the learners and 54.8% of the co-ordinators and facilitators accepted the suggestion that the expansion of NFBEP would ensure the opportunity of equal access of women to basic education, while the remaining subjects did not.

TABLE VIII

Proposals on the Shortcomings of the NFBE Programs as Suggested by Learners and Co-ordinators and Facilitators (Given in % N Sample)

Items	Learners		Co-ord. & Facilitate		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
In your opinion, what is the major shortcoming of the NFBE program in your village?						
A) The inadequacy of the learning time set	24	24	7	22.6	31	23.7
B) The inadequacy of the program to enroll as many women as desired	30	30	10	32.3	40	30.5
C) Shortage of water in the area	8	8	6	19.4	14	10.7
D) The acute shortage of trained instructors	16	16	5	16.1	21	16.0
E) Absence of practical course work	17	17	2	6.5	19	14.5
F) Prevalence of transmitted diseases in the learning area	7	7	1	3.2	8	6.1
How can, in your opinion, the provision of the educational program be improved?						
A) By setting adequate time for learning	15	15	12	38.7	27	20.6
B) By offering more practical coursework	27	27	10	32.3	37	28.2
C) By employing sizeable force of part-time teachers from the local villagers	28	28	4	12.9	32	24.4
D) By issuing equivalent certificate for achievement	30	30	5	16.1	35	26.7

As we can see from the replies of the subject (see Table VIII), as far as the inadequacy of the NFBE programs is concerned, 30% of the learners and 32.3% of the co-ordinators and facilitators responded that the program fails to enrol as many women as desired. On the other hand, 24% of the learners and 22.6% of the co-ordinators and facilitators concern the inadequacy of the learning time set. The other responses fairly evenly distributed over the other categories.

With regard to the proposals of change in the learning program, 28% of the total subjects mentioned the need to set more practical coursework, while 26.7% of the total subjects proposed the issuance of equivalent certificate for achievement. The remaining 24.4% and 20.6% proposed the employment of part-time teachers from the local community and the need for adequate learning time.

TABLE IX
Household Composition and Domestic Responsibility of Girl Pupils
(Given in % N Sample)

Item	Pupils		Communi. Rep.		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Number of dependants						
A) 1 - 3	31	29.24	5	27.8	36	29.03
B) 4 - 6	58	54.71	8	44.44	64	51.61
C) 7 - 9	14	13.20	3	16.7	17	13.70
D) 10 and above	3	2.83	2	11.11	5	4.03
Number of children staying at home						
A) 1 - 3	62	58.49	12	66.7	74	59.7
B) 4 - 6	38	35.84	5	27.8	43	34.7
C) 7 - 9	-		1	5.6	1	0.8
How do girls help at home?						
A) Fetching water	31	29.24	4	22.22	35	28.22
B) working on farm	10	9.43	2	11.11	12	9.7
C) Preparing food	30	28.30	5	27.8	35	28.22
D) looking after siblings	29	27.35	5	27.8	34	27.41
E) Collecting firewood	6	5.7	2	11.11	8	4.5
How do boys help at home?						
A) working on farm	46	43.4	7	38.9	53	42.74
B) look after cattle	24	22.64	6	33.33	30	24.19
C) Collecting firewood	16	15.1	4	22.22	20	16.12
D) Washing clothes	14	13.20	1	5.6	15	12.1
How do children usually go to school?						
A) On foot	87	82.1	14	77.8	101	81.45
B) Other means	13	12.3	4	22.22	17	13.70
How long does it take children from home to school?						
A) 10 to 20 min.	23	21.7	5	27.8	28	22.6
B) 20 to 30 min.	40	37.7	6	33.33	46	37.1
C) half an hour to an hour	26	24.52	4	22.22	30	24.2
D) One hour to one and half an hour	6	5.7	2	11.11	8	6.5
E) more than one and half hours	5	4.71	1	5.6	6	4.83

As indicated in Table IX, 54.7% of the pupils and 44.4% of the community representatives replied that there are 4-6 dependants in the home, while 29% of the pupils and 27% of the community representatives replied that there are 1-3 dependants in the home. The remaining 16% of the pupils and 28.7% of the community representatives mentioned the number of dependants to be 7-9 and 10 and above respectively.

With regard to the non-enrolment of children, 58.5% of the pupils and 66.7% of the community representatives said that there are 1-3 children staying in the home, while 35.8% of the pupils and 27.8% of the community members mentioned that there are 4-6 dependants in the home lacking access to schooling.

Most learners were found to provide assistance at home. As we can see from the responses of the subjects, 28.2%, 28.2% and 27.4% replied that girls fetch water, prepare meal, and look after cattle respectively. There is no real contrast between the groups of subjects regarding their responses. Similarly, with regard to boys responsibility, 42.7% and 24.19% of the subjects replied that boys engage in farm activities and looking after cattle respectively. From this it is possible to say that girls are more occupied with domestic tasks than boys do.

With regard to distance to school, 81.4% of the total subjects mentioned that children usually go to school on foot. 37.1%, 24.2% and 22.6% of the total subjects replied that the distance from home to school takes children to walk 10-20 minutes, 20-30 minutes and half an hour to an hour respectively. As we can observe from the replies of respondents, the geographical locations of schools are expected to be the major variables isolating pupils from their communities and weakening pupil-community-teacher networks of contact and co-operation.

TABLE X

Variables Linked with School characteristics Affecting Female Participation in Basic Education as Perceived by Educational Personnel, NFBE learners, Community Representatives and Girl Pupils and Dropouts.

Number of Respondents with Agreement Response

Item No.	Variables	Educat. Personnel	NFBE Learners	Comm. Rep	Girl Pupils & Dropouts
1	Long walking distance to school	42	37	10	41
2	Longer school hours taking the time for labour at home	67	78	14	67
3	school instruction is not life-oriented	55	71	15	80
4	full-day schooling	53	69	14	90
5	Heavy load of home work	39	20	6	30
6	Corporal punishment	36	46	8	40
7	teachers treat both girls and boys in the same way although their life condition is different	59	71	13	71
8	Rigid school calendar	66	83	17	92
9	lack of separate toilet for girls	31	40	4	31
10	lack of separate toilet for girls	29	16	7	38
11	lack of female teachers to serve as models in the school	63	66	13	74
12	Masculinity in school text books, reinforcing female subordinate position in the society	54	67	16	91
13	Teachers taking girls for less talented as compared to boys	69	79	18	87

Percentage of Respondents with Agreement Response
From the total

Item No.	Variables	Educat. Personnel	NFBE Learners	Comm. Rep	Girl pupils & Dropouts	Mean	S.D
1	Long walking distance to school	46	37	56	39	44	8
2	Longer school hours taking the time for labour at home	74	78	78	63	73	7
3	school instruction is not life-oriented	60	71	83	75	73	10
4	full-day schooling	58	69	78	85	72	12
5	Heavy load of home work	43	20	33	28	31	10
6	Corporal punishment	40	46	44	38	42	4
7	teachers treat both girls and boys in the same way although their life condition is different	65	71	72	67	69	3
8	Rigid school calendar	73	83	94	87	84	9
9	lack of water in the school	34	40	22	29	31	8
10	lack of separate toilet for girls	32	16	39	36	31	10
11	lack of female teachers to serve as models in the school	69	66	72	70	69	3
12	Masculinity in school text books, reinforcing female subordinate position in the society	59	67	89	86	75	14
13	Teachers taking girls for less talented as compared to boys	76	79	100	82	84	11
	Mean	56	57	66	60		
	S.D	15	23	25	23		

Significance level $\alpha = 0.05$, D.F between groups 3 and within groups 12 F.Ratio within 8.86 (unequal means), F.Ratio between 63.18 (unequal means)

The above results from Table x indicate statistically significant mean variations between the items rated. As the outcomes show “Teachers taking girls for less talented” (mean= 84) and “Rigid school calendar” (mean=84) were frequently rated by the study groups as the major impediments to girls’ schooling. Masculinity in school textbooks (mean=75), longer school-day taking the time for labour at home (mean=73), the too academic nature of schooling (mean=73) and full-day schooling

(mean=72) were the next frequently rated items laying profound effect on girls' schooling. The other items: treating both girls and boys in the same way by teachers and shortage of female teachers to be seen as models in schools were also given attention by respondents to have considerable effect on girls' schooling.

When we see specifically at the responses of each group of respondents we observe real contrast of emphasis between them. For instance, in case of rigidity of school calendar, the item is frequently rated by community representatives (94%), girl pupils and dropouts (87%) and NFBE learners (83%), while not by educational personnel, although the rate is still above average. With regard to item number 12, community representatives and girl pupils and dropouts frequently responded to the reflection of masculinity in school textbooks, while the rest two groups did not. In case of item number 4, community representatives and girl pupils and dropouts lay their blame at full-day schooling, while the rest two groups did not.

The remaining items: long walking distance to school, heavy load of homework, corporal punishment, lack of water and lack of separate toilet for girls were not considered as major impediments to girls' schooling.

TABLE XI

Variables Linked with Socio-Economic Conditions Affecting Female Participation in Basic Education as Explained by Educational Personnel, NFBE Learners, Girl Pupils and Dropouts and Community Representatives

Number of Respondents with Agreement Response

	Variables	Educational Personnel	NFBE Learners	Commun. Rep	Girl Pupil & Dropouts
1	Family can not afford to pay	66	70	14	67
2	Heavy load of labour at home	71	81	11	78
3	uneducated household heads	69	83	7	80
4	lack of place to work for school at home	73	91	8	91
5	sickness of the girl and other family members	49	67	12	70

Percentages of Respondents with Agreement Response from the Total

	Variables	Educ Personn	NFBE Learners	Comm. Rep.	Girl Pupils & Drop-outs	Mean	S.D
1	Family cannot afford to pay for education	73	70	8	63	50	31
2	heavy load of labour at home	78	81	6	74	60	36
3	uneducated household heads	76	83	4	75	60	37
4	lack of place to work for school at home	80	91	4	86	65	41
5	Sickness of the girl and other family members	54	67	7	66	48	28
	Mean	72	78	6	73		
	S.D	11	10	2	9		

$\alpha = 0.05$, DF between groups 3, DF within group 4, F.Ratio within 8.86 (unequal means), F.Ratio between 63.18 (unequal means)

As indicated in Table XI, there are significant mean differences between the group of respondents. As far as the mean scores of item numbers 2,3 and 4 are concerned, they were rated 60, 60 and 65 respectively, which show that heavy load of labour at home, uneducated household heads and lack of place to work for school at home are the major impediments to the schooling of rural girls. The remaining two items: family' inability to pay for education (mean=53) and sickness of the girl and other family members (mean=48) were not considered as major obstacles to girls' schooling.

When we see specifically at each item we find no real contrast between the group of respondents, except that NFBE learners and girl pupils and dropouts put slightly more emphasis on lack of place to work for school at home. This finding substantiates more of economic and attitudinal factors that are commonly affecting the education of rural children as well as their performance in schools.

Although the rest two items were rated below average it is obvious that they have considerable effect on the education of children elsewhere in rural areas.

Number of Respondents with Agreement Response

	Variables	Educ Personn	NFBE Learners	Commu. Rep.	Girl Pupils & Drop-outs
1	Tenage Pregnancy	30	20	8	25
2	Early Marriage	29	17	7	21
3	Fear of C-education	54	30	12	60
4	Religious factors favor the education of boys	61	81	11	66
5	Girls lack of motivation/interest in schooling	60	33	9	52
6	Fear of sexual harassment or abduction	40	49	13	30
7	Boys gain preference in parental decision	63	74	14	75
8	Male household heads are not keen on girls education	74	77	11	81
9	Female household heads are not keen on girls education	66	78	12	83
10	Negative attitude parents towards secular education	59	76	7	73

Percentage of Respondents with Agreement Response form

	Variables	Educ Personn	NFBE Learners	Commu. Rep.	Girl Pupils & Drop- outs	Mean	S.D
1	Tenage Pregnancy	33	20	44	24	30	11
2	Early Marriage	32	17	39	20	27	10
3	Fear of co-education	59	30	67	57	53	16
4	Religious factors favour the education of boys	67	81	61	62	68	9
5	Girls lack of motivation/interest in schooling	66	33	50	49	49	13
6	Fear of sexual harassment or abduction	44	49	72	28	48	18
7	Boys gain preference in parental decision	69	74	78	71	73	4
8	Male household heads are not keen on girls education	81	77	61	76	74	9
9	Female household heads are not keen on girls education	73	78	67	78	74	5
10	Negative attitude parents towards secular education	65	76	39	69	62	16
	Mean	59	54	58	53		
	S.D	17	26	14	22		

As can be seen from Table XII, there are significant mean variations between the responses of the study groups. With regard to item numbers 4,7,8 and 9, they were rated relatively higher than the remaining items. The other responses fairly evenly distributed throughout the other categories.

If we look more specifically at the replies of the subjects, educational personnel, NFBE learners and girl pupils and dropouts considered the 8th and 9th items as the major obstacles towards girls' schooling, while NFBE learners, community representatives and girl pupils and dropouts considered the 7th item as one of the major factors affecting girls' schooling. As we can see from the above responses there is a real contrast of emphasis between the subjects of the study.

In general, the four items: female household heads are not keen on girls education, male households are not keen on girls education, boys gain preference in parental decision, and religious factors favour the education of boys (mean scores+74,74,73 and 68 respectively) were considered by almost all the subjects as the major obstacles towards girls' education. Again the findings substantiate the socio-cultural outlooks of traditional societies as determining the schooling of rural children.

The remaining items: early marriage, teenage pregnancy, fear of co-education, girls; lack of interest in education and fear of sexual harassment and abduction were not considered as major impediments to girl' schooling.

In general, we observe a real contrast of emphasis between the NFBE programs and formal schooling. Where as early marriage, teenage pregnancy and fear of co-education were considered as major obstacles in the earlier questions set for NFBE, while these items were not considered as major obstacles to schooling of girls in the preceding part of the subjects' responses. This may be judged as to do with maturity level of learners.

TABLE XIII

Variables Linked with political and Institutional conditions Affecting female Participation in Basic Education as Perceived by Educational Personnel, NFBE Learners, Girl Pupils and Dropouts and Community Representatives

Number of Respondents with Agreement Response

Item No.	Variables	Educat. Personnel	NFBE Learners	Commu-Represent	Girl Pupils & Dropouts
1	Government policies do not encourage the education of girls and women	49	54	7	47
2	High School inaccessible	70	74	14	91
3	Lack of alternative options for the education of girls and women	72	70	15	87
4	Absence of rural technologies such as grain mills, water-wells, carts etc.	80	79	16	98
	No awareness creating efforts are done by the political regime	81	47	7	40

Percentage of Respondents with Agreement Response From the Total

Item No.	Variables	Educat. Personnel	NFBE Learners	Commu-Represent	Girl Pupils & Dropouts	Mean	S.D
1	Government policies do not encourage the education of girls and women	54	54	39	44	48	7
2	High School inaccessible	77	74	78	86	79	5
3	Lack of alternative options for the education of girls and women	79	70	83	82	79	6
4	Absence of rural technologies such as grain mills, water-wells, carts etc.	88	79	89	92	87	6
5	No awareness creating efforts are done by the political regime	89	47	39	38	53	24
	Mean	77	65	66	68		
	S.D	14	14	25	25		

Significance level $\alpha = 0.05$, D.F between group 3 and within groups 4 F.Ratio within 4.15 (unequal means), F.Ratio between 27.2 (unequal means)

The above results indicate statistically significant mean variations between the items rated. As the results show the absence of rural technologies to save leisure time for education (mean=87), inaccessibility of high school (mean=79) and lack of alternative options for the education of girls and women (mean=79) were frequently rated by all the study groups as the major impediments to the education of rural girls and women. Others are thinly spread over the rest items, except that educational personnel rated the 5th item as the major factor affecting girls schooling, the only point that makes real contrast between and with other groups.

TABLE XIV

Strategies Proposed to Improve the Opportunity for Equal Access of Rural Women to Basic Education as Perceived by Educational Personnel, NFBE Learners and Community Representatives

Item. No.	Variables	Educational Personnel		Nonformal Basic Ed. Learners		Comm. Rep.		F.Ratio
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	
1	Maintain mobile tent schools	3.21	0.58	3.94	0.60	3.96	0.86	18.4210*
2	Maintain ungraded village school	3.40	1.16	3.12	1.26	2.45	1.07	1.8395
3	Maintain one-teacher village school	2.44	0.72	2.31	0.62	2.78	0.92	5.6371*
4	Maintain boarding schools	2.56	0.72	3.34	0.79	2.86	0.73	13.0225*
5	Establish segregated schools for females	2.07	0.74	2.20	0.60	2.78	0.92	13.4015*
6	Promoting family literacy programs	2.05	0.73	2.20	0.69	3.53	0.71	63.3214*
7	Using Kuranic/Church schools to irradiate illiteracy	2.02	0.69	2.18	0.64	2.73	0.91	13.2041*
8	Promote the role of NGO's in expanding village primary schools	2.23	0.61	2.13	0.68	2.75	1.02	7.6353*
9	Issuance of equivalent certificate by the non-formal educational programs	2.41	0.83	3.79	0.76	2.71	0.811	19.1463*
10	Promote hiring of part-time teachers from the local villagers themselves	2.46	0.75	2.20	0.64	3.10	1.10	11.4198*

*Significant at an alpha level <0.05 D.F between groups 3 and within groups 9 F.Ratio within 5.04 (unequal means) F.Ratio between 63.01 (unequal means)

As it can be observed from Table XIV out of the ten strategies proposed to improve the access of rural women to basic education, as the analysis results

(ANOVA) indicate, the total variations among the mean values of the study subjects are statistically significant at an alpha level less than 0.05 for ten of these variables. Exception is item number 2.

The outcome of the pair wise comparison (Tukey-HSD procedure) shows significant mean variations between educational personnel (3.21=Group A), nonformal basic education learners (3.94 = Group B), and community representatives (3.96=Group D) for item number 1. This shows that learners and community representatives highly responded to the importance of setting up mobile tent schools, while educational personnel rated less than the two categories of respondents, although the response is still beyond average. It is, thus possible to say that mobile tent schools are one of the highly desirable strategies to be maintained in somewhere else in these areas.

Regarding item number 2, the comparison outcome showed significant mean variations between group A=3.40, group B=3.12 and group D=2.45. The results indicated that educational personnel and NFBE learners have rated the need for ungraded village schools more frequently than community representatives. Community representatives did not perceive the need for ungraded village schools since the mean outcome of the group shows less than average. In case of item number 3, the comparison indicates significant mean variations between group A=2.44, group B=2.31 and group D=2.78. Although community representatives rated above average for this item, the rest two groups rated less than average. Therefore, since the mean outcomes of all groups indicates below average, no need was expressed to maintain one-teacher village schools in the areas.

With regard to item number 4, the analysis of variance shows that the two groups (educational personnel and community representatives) have given relatively

low credit to the need of maintaining boarding schools, while NFBE learners considered it as one of the major desirable strategies. In case of item number 5, the analysis indicates that no significant mean variations between all groups are observed although community representatives rated beyond average. Since the two groups rated this item below average, maintaining separate schools for girls were not considered as desirable strategies in the areas, although there may be need for such strategy of learning somewhere else. In case of item number 5, the comparison outcome shows significant mean variations between group A = 2.05, group B=2.20 and group D=3.53. This means community representatives identified the family literacy programs as highly desirable factor, while educational personnel and NFBE learners did not.

The outcomes of the analysis of variance for items number 7 and 8 show significant mean variations between the three groups. As it can be seen from the table the mean values for all the items were below average. Yet, community representatives have offered slightly higher values for both items.

The analysis of variance for item number 9 indicates significant mean variations between the three groups: group A= 2.41, group B=3.79 and group D=2.71. This indicates that NFBE learners have given high value to the issuance of equivalent certificate by the nonformal educational programs, while the item was rated low by educational personnel and community representatives. This could imply the influence of formal education over the nonformal education in the sense that the out-of-school education learners have the desire for maintaining equivalent status with regard to the certificates issued by the NFBE programs.

The analysis of variance for item number 10 shows significant variations between the three groups: group A = 2.46, group B=2.20 and group D=3.10. This

shows that community representatives highly valued the hiring of part time teachers from the local community themselves. This result confirms the fact that teaching as a part-time job can make a marginal addition to the farmers income as well as increase the villagers' interest and motivation for learning (Chitra Naike, 1982).

Table XV

Strategies Proposed to Improve the Opportunity for Equal Access of Rural Women to Basic Education as Perceived by Educational Personnel, NFBE Learners and Community Representatives

Item. No.	Variables	Educational Personnel		Nonformal Basic Ed. Learners		Comm. Rep.		F.Ratio
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	
1	Using multiple shift and multiple teaching in formal schooling	3.42	0.86	3.63	1.10	3.89	0.83	3.0791*
2	Exercise shorter school-day in regular schools	3.87	0.61	3.68	0.72	3.20	0.54	8.4734*
3	Maintain flexible schedule	4.01	0.63	3.69	0.83	3.40	0.59	8.7553*
4	Hiring sizable female teachers	2.87	0.75	3.20	0.82	3.32	0.74	3.3994*
5	Arranging temporary child varying centers in the village	2.74	0.81	3.40	0.90	3.21	0.73	8.3110*
6	Providing educational materials in lower costs	2.93	0.86	3.24	0.75	3.24	0.74	5.3334*
7	Promoting community-school relationship	2.73	0.73	3.01	0.74	3.20	0.71	5.3334*
8	Make instructions life-oriented	2.74	0.75	3.02	0.76	3.01	0.72	5.3554*
9	Provide incentives for parents	2.90	0.86	2.63	0.86	3.18	0.91	2.7663
10	Involving the community in educational matters related to girls' particular problems	3.16	0.99	3.10	1.32	3.19	0.91	0.3175
11	Promote the use of rural technologies such as grain mills, water wells, carts etc. to save leisure time for education	3.44	0.79	3.20	0.92	3.21	0.89	1.6955

* Significant at an alpha level < 0.05 D.F between groups 3 and within groups 9 F.Ratio within 5.63 (unequal means) and F.Ratio between 155.81 (unequal means)

As it can be seen from Table XV, out of the eleven strategies suggested to open up better access for the education of rural women to basic education, as the outcome of the analysis indicates, the overall variations among the mean values of the study subjects are statistically significant at an alpha level less 0.05 except for items number 9,10 and 11.

In case of using multiple shift and multiple teaching in formal schooling, the comparison outcome indicated mean variations between group A = 3.42, group B=3.63 and group D= 3.89. Although educational personnel rated less than the two groups, all seemed to perceive multiple shift and multiple teaching in schools as one of the desirable strategies to improve the participation rate of women in basic education.

The comparison result for item number 2 indicates significant mean variations between group A=3.87, group B=3.68, and group D=3.20. The interpretation is that both educational personnel and NFBE learners have rated maintaining shorter school-day in regular schools as one of the major strategies to increase the rate of participation of females in basic education. Although community members rated less than the two groups it is still beyond average. The perception of the respondents imply that as the school-day gets shorter learners will have the opportunity to save time for domestic engagements.

As far as item number 3 is concerned all groups: group A=4.01, group B=3.69, and group D=3.40 have rated maintaining flexible schedule as a major strategy to retain more female learners in schools. The comparison result for item number 4 shows significant mean variations among the study groups: group D=3.20, group B=3.20 and group A=2.87. This indicates that NFBE learners and community representatives have rated the hiring of sizable female teachers as one of the major

strategies to increase rate of participation of females, while educational personnel rated the item less than the two groups.

With regard to item number 6, the multiple comparison indicates the significant mean variations among the study subjects: group A=2.74, group B=3.40 and group D=3.21. This shows that NFBE learners and community representatives have rated the item as a major strategy to save leisure time for the education females, while educational personnel have rated less than the two groups i.e they did not value the strategy of arranging child care centers in the villages. From the responses of group B and D it is possible to conclude that females can have adequate time for learning if they have the chance of getting place where they can leave their children in the temporary care of others.

The results of the analysis of variance for items number 6,7,8 and 9 indicate significant mean variations among the study groups. NFBE learners and community representatives have rated high for the items: providing educational materials in lower costs, promoting community-school co-operation and make instructions life-oriented, while educational personnel did not consider all the three strategies as means to retain more girls and women in schools. In case of item number 9, only community representatives have rated high.

With regard to item numbers 10 and 11, the analysis of variance show significant mean variations among the study groups: for item number 10=group A=3.16, group B=3.10 and group D=3.19, while for item number 11=group A=3.44 group B=3.20 and group D=3.21. This shows that all the groups have perceived the involvement of the community in educational matters related to girls' particular problems and the promotion of rural technologies such as grain mills, water-wells, carts etc. as major strategies to increase the rate of participation of girls' and women in basic education.

TABLE XVI

Zonal-Dichotomy of Alternative Educational Strategies Proposed to Improve the Opportunity for Equal Access of Women to Basic Education

Item No.	Variables	Bale		Borana		Total		F.Ratio
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	
1	Maintain mobile tent schools	2.73	0.96	3.10	0.82	2.86	0.92	3.1203
2	Maintain ungraded village schools	2.40	0.98	2.68	0.96	2.54	0.57	2.9501
3	Maintain one-teacher village schools	2.20	0.68	2.49	0.91	2.30	0.84	8.39*
4	Maintain boarding primary schools	3.62	0.75	3.79	0.79	3.73	0.78	1.7213
5	Establishing segregated schools for females	3.79	0.76	1.87	0.60	2.93	1.09	266.62*
6	Promoting family literacy program	2.10	0.66	2.50	0.92	2.30	0.83	8.29*
7	Using Kuranic/Church schools to irradiate illiteracy	3.79	0.77	1.86	0.59	2.89	1.19	268.63*
8	Increase the role of NGO's to expand nonformal village schools	2.42	0.88	2.77	0.87	2.59	0.89	5.1449*
9	Issuance of equivalent certificate by the nonformal learning programs	2.39	0.98	2.66	0.96	2.57	0.97	2.8901
10	Promote hiring of part-time teachers from the local villagers themselves	2.81	0.90	3.10	0.76	2.94	0.93	3.2286

*Significant at an alpha level <0.05 D.F between group 1 and within groups 9 F.Ratio within 8.81 (unequal means) and between 24.05 (unequal means)

The overall variations among the means of the study areas, as indicated in Table XVI, are significant at alpha level less than 0.05 for item numbers 3,5,6,7 and 8. Here it is not important to undertake multiple comparison tests since it is easy to indicate the variations from the mean outcomes.

As it can be seen from the table, mobile tent schools were given more emphasis in Borana, while less emphasis in Bale. With regard to one-teacher schools, both areas rated below average. Here the results of the analysis of variance indicates no significant variations in their average scores.

With regard to boarding primary schools, both areas have given high value to the item. Maintaining the strategy was rated 3.62 in Bale, while 3.79 in Borana. Despite the mean variations appeared between the two zones, both areas considered

boarding primary schools as one of the major strategies to increase the rate of participation of females in Basic education.

In case of separate schools for females, there is real contrast of emphasis between the two areas. The strategy was given more emphasis in Bale, while less emphasis in Borana. This is so perhaps because communities in Muslim dominated areas usually have fear of co-education.

Regarding Kuranic/Church schools, as the mean results show, the strategy was highly appreciable in Bale, while not in Borana.

In case of item numbers 6,8,9 and 10, the outcomes of the analysis of variance show significant variations between the study groups in the two zones, although the strategy was rated below average in both areas except for item number 10 which is slightly above average.

Hiring part-time teachers from the local villagers was given higher emphasis in both areas since it adds up a considerable sum to the income of those farmers who can get the opportunity to be employed as teachers of the NFBE programs.

TABLE XVII

Zonal-Dichotomy of Alternative Educational Strategies Proposed to Improve the Opportunity for Equal Access of Women to Basic Education

Item No.	Variables	Bale		Borana		Total		F.Ratio
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	
1	Using multiple shift and multiple teaching in formal schools	3.40	0.84	3.59	1.20	3.80	0.81	8.2201*
2	Exercise shorter school-day in regular schools	3.46	0.61	3.51	0.89	3.46	0.75	8.0432
3	Maintain flexible schedule	3.61	0.77	3.83	0.82	3.71	0.78	1.7333
4	Hiring sizable female teachers	1.86	0.59	3.79	0.76	2.90	1.19	269.59*
5	Arranging child rearing centers in the village	3.63	0.76	3.79	0.82	3.71	0.78	1.7324
6	Providing educational materials in lower costs	2.40	0.98	2.70	0.96	2.53	0.98	2.9313
7	Increase community-school co-operation	2.21	0.78	2.52	0.87	2.34	0.82	5.2011*
8	Make instructions life-oriented	2.21	0.76	2.49	0.87	2.40	0.83	5.1822*
9	Provide incentives for parents	2.08	0.63	2.50	0.93	2.31	0.85	8.4301*
10	Involving the community in educational matters related to females particular problems	3.02	0.71	3.20	0.89	3.12	0.88	5.1408*
11	Promote the use of rural technologies such as grain mills, water wells, carts etc. to save leisure time for education	3.63	0.76	3.80	0.82	3.71	0.78	1.7430

* Significant at an alpha <0.05 D.F between groups 1 and within groups 10 F.Ratio within 10.72 and between 20.94 (unequal means)

As indicated in Table XVII, the total variations of the study areas are significant at alpha level less than 0.05 for item numbers 1,4,7,8,9 and 10. Here also

no multiple comparison tests were applied since it is not difficult to indicate the variations from the mean outcomes.

As it can be observed from the table, using multiple shift and multiple teaching, exercising shorter school-day and maintaining flexible schedules were rated high in both areas, although there are slight variations in the means of both groups. In case of hiring sizable female teachers, item number 4 shows significant mean variations between the zones. Where as the item was rated below average in Bale (1.86), while in Borana it was rated high. With regard to item number 5, both study groups rated high (Bale = 3.63, Borana=3.71). This shows that child raring places are highly desired by women to save spare time for learning.

With regard to item numbers 6,7, 8 and 9, as the outcomes of the analysis of variance indicates there is significant mean variation among the study areas. Both areas rated low for these items, all below average. In case of item numbers 10 and 11, the analysis of variance show significant variations among the study areas. Involving the community in educational matters related to girls' particular problems and promoting the use of rural technologies to save spare time for education were rated high in both areas. From this it is possible to say that while providing education in rural areas the consideration of other social and infrastructure activities are of paramount importance. This require integrated approach between line organizations.

CHAPTER V

5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

The major objective of this study was to examine the alternative strategies for the education of women at fundamental level and to come up with sound strategies that need to be implemented to open up opportunities for equal access of women to basic education in rural Bale and Borana. To this end, five basic questions were mentioned concerning the rate of participation of women to basic education, planning of alternative options for the education of rural women, the economic, social, cultural and political factors affecting the schooling of rural girls and women and other related activities to be considered in the education of women.

The study was carried out in 29 primary schools selected from Bale and Borana and the non formal basic education centers operating in both areas. 100 learners and 31 program co-ordinators and facilitators from the NFBE programs; 30 educational experts from zonal education departments and primary schools; 18 community representatives; 98 girl pupils and 18 dropouts were taken as subjects of the study. The necessary data were secured from these subjects through survey questionnaires and interviews. In addition education statistics annual abstracts of OEB and MOE, and student enrollment statistics from Bale and Borana Zonal Education Departments were used to assess the educational status of girls and women in the rural areas of the two zones.

Various statistical tools such as percentages, mean values, ANOVA and Tukey-HSD tests were applied to analyze the data obtained from the respondents.

The following major findings, thus were obtained on the basis of the analysis of the data obtained from different sources.

1. The view of female education taken in this study was a comprehensive one, taking into account not only rates of participation of women in basic education, but also the way in which alternative educational services are provided for women. As indicated by the total results of the study, although the nation is committed to a policy of increasing the participation of children in basic education, the continuing disparities between female and male enrollments have made the goal difficult to achieve. The efforts done to increase female participation by manipulating the supply of schools and facilities and planning of alternative educational strategies were found to be very little.

2. As the percentages and mean value tests indicate the alternative educational services and facilities available to rural girls and women as perceived by learners, educational experts, program co-ordinators and facilitators of the NFBE and community representatives were explained as follow.

- a) Although large number of females in rural areas have expressed their interest to pursue their learning at least at basic stage, alternative options are not yet fully open to them. The scant educational services provided by the non formal educational programs were found to be unable to enroll as many women as desired.
- b) Considerable number of female learners pursuing their education in NFBE centers (except the ASE program) were found to be those who once attempted formal schooling and dropped out at the initial stage.

- c) The major reasons given by learners for dropping out schooling and entering the NFBE centers were found to be the suitable learning time set by the out-of-school educational programs, economic reasons and socio-cultural problems.
- d) Many of the NFBE learners were found to have 1 to 6 brothers or sisters at home in which about half of them are non-school goers and few of them were found attending formal classes.
- e) The learning programs in most of the NFBE centers (except the tent schools) were found to be attained in less than two years time and in some instances in less than six months.
- f) The majority of the NFBE learners were found to realize that it would be useful for them to learn more of improved farming and practical course work at this stage.
- g) The expectations of the majority of the NFBE learners were found to continue further learning, make use of the skills learned and go home to help parents in their respective order when their learning is considered terminal.
- h) The majority of the female learners were found to help at home: fetching water, preparing meal, rearing younger siblings and collecting firewood, while males are responsible to look after cattle, working on farm and collecting firewood.

3. The results of the data analyzed (the percentages and mean value tests) indicate the school-related factors affecting girls' rate of participation in basic education, as explained by girl pupils and dropouts, NFBE learners, educational experts and community representatives.

- a) Longer school hours were found taking the time for domestic engagements
- b) The too academic nature of schooling was found to be one of the major obstacles to learners in both areas.
- c) Teachers' taking girls for less talented as compared to boys was found to discourage girls; participation in formal schooling.
- d) Lack of female teachers to be seen as models in rural areas was found to discourage girls; from going to school.

4. As the percentages and mean value tests indicate, the major socio-economic variables affecting girls; participation in basic education, as perceived by girl pupils and dropouts, NFBE learners, educational experts and community representatives, are the following:

- a) Heavy load of labour at home and family's inability to pay for education were found to be among the major obstacles withholding girls from schooling in both areas.

- b) Uneducated household heads were found to be one of the major obstacles to girls' schooling
- c) Sickness of the girl and other family members was found to interrupt girls; schooling
- d) Lack of appropriate place to work for school at home was found to be one of the obstacles to girls' performance in school.

5. The data analysis outcomes of the percentages and mean value tests show the major socio-cultural factors affecting the education of girls, as perceived by girl pupils and dropouts, NFBE learners, educational experts and community representatives

- a) Religious factors were found to affect the schooling of girls, particularly in rural Bale
- b) Fear of co-education was found to be one of the major obstacles to girls' schooling, particularly in rural Bale.
- c) The negative attitude of parents towards formal schooling was found to affect girls' schooling in both areas

6. The data analysis outcomes of the percentages and mean value tests show the major political factors affecting girls' schooling as perceived by the study subjects

- a) The inaccessibility of secondary school was found to discourage girls' to dropout schooling at the initial stage.
- b) Lack of modern rural infrastructures like water supply, carts, grain mills etc. was found to over-burden rural girls and women thereby taking the time for learning.

7. The analysis results of the mean, the one-way ANOVA and Tukey-HSD tests indicate the alternative educational services and facilities for basic education of rural women, as perceived by NFBE learners, educational experts, community representatives and girl pupils and dropouts.

- a) Maintaining boarding schools and ungraded village schools were found to be rated by the majority of the study subjects as the best options to increase the rate of participation of rural women in basic education.
- b) Maintaining mobile tent schools in nomadic areas was found to have considerable advantages, particularly in Borana.
- c) Hiring of part-time teachers from the local villagers was found to encourage the rural people to come to the learning centers in sizable number.
- d) The arrangement of child rearing centers in rural villages was found to encourage females for learning.

- e) The provision of educational materials in lower costs/ free of charge was found to motivate learners for education.
- f) Increasing the involvement of community representatives in educational planning and decision-making was found to have great contribution to raise the rate of participation of rural women in basic education.

5.2 Conclusions

On the basis of the major findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn.

Where as the provision of educational services and facilities are generally accepted as a major means to progress, this is not usually the case for women in a country like ours because of their family role and the fact that they are seen as examples and assets of traditional values.

In traditional societies any attempt made to change the status of women ends up with the expression of deeply rooted opposition. In many rural areas it is feared that promoting education among women will end up with dire consequences. Changing women' traditional role is usually seen as breaking down of moral and cultural values. To change the attitudes held by both men and women which sustain the above outlooks, thus requires a long process of education in the broadest sense.

As can be drawn from the findings of this study the construction of more schools in rural areas was proved not to increase girls' participation in basic education. In a place where parental perceptions and motivations affect access of

the girl to education, the free school across the road was seen to be inaccessible. As the results of this study indicates, therefore, refusal of families to make use of available educational services and facilities due to certain reasons external to the existing school system usually seen deciding the education of rural girls and women.

From the experiences acquired so far and as the findings of this study indicates, it may be concluded that there are three areas of concern with regard to the strategies of equal access of women to basic education in rural areas. These are; flexibility of the educational program, adaptability to the needs of the target groups and integrated approaches between the different governmental and non-governmental organizations.

Claim is made by the researcher that what was found out in sample areas is more likely to occur in other rural areas of the country.

5.3 Recommendations

1. The girl's immediate socio-economic and socio-cultural environments are measured by the household education. The rate of adult literacy in the girls' family can be very important factor in formulating policies regarding adult literacy program. Implementing family literacy programs in an integrated approach may have a great contribution in creating literate environment and lay a far-reaching effect in the contribution of raising up the rate of participation of girls and women in basic education.

2. The girls' cultural and religious environment that discourage schooling, encourage girls for labour at home and generate extended families may be achieved through expansion of literacy programs among the households.

2.1. Providing NFBE for women who lack access to education and who dropped out schooling at the initial stage with inputs as development packages aimed at enabling learners to develop problem-solving attitudes and skills.

2.2 It is expected that a strong link between the developments of NFBE and efficiency of formal schooling could assist the efforts being done to attain universal basic education within the near future, as literate adults are more likely to send their children to school than those otherwise.

3. It is likely that another solution in the derive towards increasing female rates of participation in basic education is maintaining ungraded village schools and mobile tent schools in arid and heavily rural areas where the population is thinly dispersed, nomadic and relatively less exposed to new ideas about women' roles in society.

4. Although girls separate schools are common in some Asian and Muslim countries, their effects have so far been perceived in relation to participation than performance. The strategy is an area where further investigation is needed. But, as a temporary solution, particularly in Muslim dominated areas separation within schools for specific subjects and lessons would help to reduce the fear for co-education from the part of parents.

5. In arid and semi-arid areas maintaining boarding primary schools may help in keeping girls in schools.

6. Another issue relating to the provision of education for females concerns the availability of female teachers. In areas where resistance to schools dominated by male teachers could perhaps be strong the impact of female teachers upon attendance is likely to be higher. In such case the relative importance of hiring sizable female teachers should not be overlooked.

7. Women and girls, particularly in rural areas, are found to carry out more household activities than males, such as the care of younger siblings, fetching water, preparing meals, collecting firewood etc. Part of the important provisions that may assist in strengthening the rate of participation of girls and women in basic education can be:

7.1 The expansion of modern social infrastructure like water wells, grain mills, carts etc. to save spare time for learning.

7.2. The arrangement of places that allow women to leave younger siblings in the temporary care of others while learning/attending class.

8. Another area of concern may be the predominantly academic nature of teaching which discourages and frightens children as well as parents because it lacks relevance to them and does not assist in developing self-reliance. Efforts are needed from both the formal as well as the NFBE programs to make learning more practical and relevant to the environment of rural women so as to increase their participation in basic education.

9. Many of the nonformal educational programs, except the tent schools, are found to be considered terminal in less than 6 months. In view of attaining the target for universal basic education, however, the duration of time set seems inadequate to achieve the target. What should be done in this case, therefore is to plan and implement school-equivalency program within the NFBE programs so as to complement the formal educational program if to reach the target.

10 Another area to be considered in both formal as well as nonformal educational programs in rural areas has to be to maintain greater flexibility in entry age and age-grading.

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APPENDIX 1

Mean Range Tests

Group = A = Educational Personnel

Group = B = NFBE Learners

Group = C = Girl pupils and Dropouts

Group = D = Community Representatives

TABLE X

- a) Significance Level $\alpha = 0.05$
- b) D.F = between groups 3
- c) D. F = within groups 12
- d) F. Ratio within 8.86 \Rightarrow unequal means
- e) F. Ratio between 63.18 \Rightarrow “ “

TABLE XI

- a) Significance Level $\alpha = 0.05$
- b) D.F = between groups 3
- c) D. F = within groups 4
- d) F. Ratio within 3.51 \Rightarrow unequal means
- e) F. Ratio between 117.6 \Rightarrow “ “

TABLE XII

- a) Significance Level $\alpha = 0.05$
- b) D.F = between groups 3
- c) D. F = within groups 9
- d) F. Ratio within 6.13 \Rightarrow unequal means
- e) F. Ratio between 29.89 \Rightarrow “ “

TABLE X III

- a) Significance Level $\alpha = 0.05$
- b) D.F = between groups 3
- c) D. F = within groups 4
- d) F. Ratio within 4.15 \Rightarrow unequal means
- e) F. Ratio between 27.2 \Rightarrow “ “

Appendix

Multiple Range Tests

Significance Level $\alpha = 0.05$

Group = A = Educational Personnel

Group = B = NFBE Learners

Group = D = Community Representatives

*Indicates Significant Variations within the lower triangle

Table	Variable No.	Community	Mean
XIV	1	Grp A	3.2210
		Grp B	3.9441
		Grp D	3.9650
	2	Grp A	3.4000
		Grp B	3.1221
		Grp D	2.4553
	3	Grp A	2.4431
		Grp B	2.3111
		Grp D	2.7855
	4	Grp A	2.5660
Grp B		3.3441	
Grp D		2.8631	
5	Grp A	2.0731	
	Grp B	2.2000	
	Grp D	2.7866	
6	Grp A	2.0531	
	Grp B	2.2000	
	Grp D	3.5331	
7	Grp A	2.0221	
	Grp B	2.1871	
	Grp D	2.7332	
8	Grp A	2.2331	
	Grp B	2.1331	
	Grp D	2.7553	
9	Grp A	2.4100	
	Grp B	3.7961	
	Grp D	2.7110	
10	Grp A	2.4633	
	Grp B	2.2000	
	Grp D	3.1000	

Table
XV

Variable No.	Community	Mean
1	Grp A	3.4221
	Grp B	3.6331
	Grp D	3.8900
2	Grp A	3.8761
	Grp B	3.6883
	Grp D	3.2000
3	Grp A	4.0123
	Grp B	3.6982
	Grp D	3.4000
4	Grp A	2.8771
	Grp B	3.2000
	Grp D	3.221
5	Grp A	2.7441
	Grp B	3.4000
	Grp D	3.2110
6	Grp A	2.9330
	Grp B	3.2441
	Grp D	3.2330
7	Grp A	2.7331
	Grp B	3.0112
	Grp D	3.2000
8	Grp A	2.7431
	Grp B	3.0211
	Grp D	3.0122
9	Grp A	2.9000
	Grp B	2.6331
	Grp D	3.1822
10	Grp A	3.1655
	Grp B	3.1000
	Grp D	3.1973
11	Grp A	3.4420
	Grp B	3.2000
	Grp C	3.2110

Table
XVI

Variable No.	Community	Mean
1	Grp A	2.7331
	Grp B	3.1000
	Grp D	2.8640
2	Grp A	2.4000
	Grp B	2.6851
	Grp C	2.5441
3	Grp A	2.2000
	Grp B	2.4931
	Grp D	2.3000
4	Grp A	3.6221
	Grp B	3.7992
	Grp D	3.7330
5	Grp A	3.7991
	Grp B	1.8733
	Grp D	2.9320
6	Grp A	2.1000
	Grp B	2.5000
	Grp D	2.3000
7	Grp A	3.7933
	Grp B	1.8653
	Grp D	2.8933
8	Grp A	2.4221
	Grp B	2.7730
	Grp D	2.5932
9	Grp A	2.3991
	Grp B	2.6630
	Grp D	2.5722
10	Grp A	2.8100
	Grp B	3.1000
	Grp C	2.9441

Table
XVII

Variable No.	Community	Mean
1	Grp A	3.4000
	Grp B	3.5933
	Grp D	3.8000
2	Grp A	3.4661
	Grp B	3.5100
	Grp D	3.4633
3	Grp A	3.6100
	Grp B	3.8331
	Grp D	3.7110
4	Grp A	1.8643
	Grp B	3.7933
	Grp D	2.9000
5	Grp A	3.6331
	Grp B	3.7921
	Grp C	3.7110
6	Grp A	2.4000
	Grp B	2.7000
	Grp D	2.5331
7	Grp A	2.2110
	Grp B	2.5221
	Grp D	2.3440
8	Grp A	2.2110
	Grp B	2.4933
	Grp D	2.4000
9	Grp A	2.0831
	Grp B	2.5000
	Grp D	2.3110
10	Grp A	3.0211
	Grp B	3.2000
	Grp D	3.1220
11	Grp A	3.6331
	Grp B	3.8000
	Grp D	3.7110

Appendix 2A

The Participation of Females in Basic Non formal
Education in Bale and Borana (1988-1991 E.C)

Year	Bale		Borana		Total	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
1988	1054	238	744	168	1798	406
1989	2295	697	1620	492	3915	1189
1990	3871	570	2529	397	7400	967
1991	11282	4501	8987	2996	14269	7497

Appendix 2B

Number of Sample Woredas and Schools

Woreda	Total Number of Schools	Number of Sample Schools	%
Gololcha-Gassera	46	5	11
Kokosa	22	4	18
Mena-Harena	26	4	15
Uraga	32	5	16
Bore	29	5	17
Liben	22	4	18

Appendix 2C

Gross Enrollment in Lower Cycle of Primary Schools of Bale and Borana (1994-1998)

Year	Bale		Borana		Total	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
1994	30321	16005	40348	10700	70669	26705
1995	42292	20237	46181	12518	88473	32755
1996	49189	22594	55522	14441	104711	37035
1997	63113	28184	63953	17934	127066	46118
1998	66297	31667	68253	20278	134550	51945

Appendix 2D

Number of Female Pupils and Sample Size

Name of School	Status of the School	Grade included	No. of female Pupils	Sample size	%
Betela	1-4	4	5	5	100
Dayu	1-4	4	4	4	100
Diki	1-8	4	7	5	71.4
Hebano	1-8	4	8	5	62.5
Haya Oda	1-4	4	6	4	66.7
Bulluq	1-4	4	5	5	100
Gomgoma	1-4	4	4	4	100
Meslo	1-4	4	5	4	80
Amigna Shirar	1-4	4	4	4	100
Bullala Kajawa	1-4	4	3	3	100
Dinsa	1-4	4	4	4	100
Qanjila	1-4	4	5	4	80
Dire Gudo	1-4	4	4	4	100
Anole Xim	1-8	4	6	4	66.7
Heto Oda	1-4	4	4	4	100
Suke Wara	1-4	4	4	4	100
Gerba Muluq	1-8	4	8	5	62.5
Wamana	1-8	4	7	5	71.4
Gutu Reji	1-4	4	5	5	100
Dara Tab	1-4	4	4	4	100
Jamjam Tat	1-8	4	8	4	50
Wate Bor	1-4	4	5	4	80
Litu	1-4	4	5	4	80
Guduba	1-4	4	4	4	100
Balambal	1-8	4	9	6	66.7
Lasa Gula	1-4	4	4	4	100
Melka Guba	1-4	4	4	4	100
29(Total)	1-4	4	145(Total)	116	

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL-FORM-A

Questionnaire prepared on the “Assessment of Alternative Strategies for the Basic Education of Women in rural Bale and Borana.”

This questionnaire is to be filled by educational personnel concerned for adult and non formal education in zonal education departments, principals, assistant principals and unit leaders in primary schools of rural Bale and Borana.

The major purpose of this questionnaire is to gather the necessary information on the educational status of rural women, assess the alternative strategies available to them and come-up with the appropriate strategies that need to be implemented to open up opportunities for access to basic education of rural women in Bale and Borana Zones.

You are, therefore, kindly requested to fill in the questionnaire to know your opinion about the various issues related to the study.

The success of this study depends upon your earnest and sincere response to the questions.

Thank you in advance for your co-operation.

Part I Background Data

Instruction:- Please indicate your answer by putting this (“✓”) mark in the space provided

1. Zone _____ A) Bale _____ B) Borana _____
2. Name of your school _____
3. Your position in the school/Zonal education office _____
4. Sex a) Male _____ b) Female _____
5. Age a) 20 to 25 _____ b) 26 to 30 _____ c) 31 to 35 _____
6. Religion a) Orthodox Christian _____ b) Muslim _____ c) Other _____
7. Marital status a) Married _____ b) Unmarried _____ c) Divorced _____
8. Educational Status a) 12th complete _____ b) 12 + TTI _____
c) 12 +1 _____ d) 12 + 2 _____ e) 12 + 4 and above _____
9. Years of service a) 1 to 5 _____ b) 6 to 10 _____
c) 11 to 15 _____ d) 16 to 20 _____
e) 21 years and above _____

PART II

Instruction:- Please indicate your answer by putting this (“✓”)mark in the space provided

- 1) What proportion of the learners currently attending non formal basic education programs in your village previously attended regular class?
A) Almost all of them _____ B) Many of them _____
C) Few of them _____ D) None of them _____
2. In your answer for the above question is either “A” or “B”, then can you give the reason why they dropped out schooling and registered for non formal educational program?
A) School instruction is not life-Oriented _____
B) Schooling offers no time for labour at home _____
C) Parents fear of Co-education _____
D) Due to unwanted pregnancy _____
E) Due to early marriage _____
F) Other _____
3. When compared to regular schools, the rate of dropouts from the center is relatively.
A) Higher _____ B) Lower _____ C) Almost the same _____
4. If your answer for the above question is “lower”, then What do you think to be the reason?
A) Instruction is life-oriented _____

- B) Learners can have plenty of time for labour at home _____
 C) Suitable learning time _____
 D) Teachers treatment for girls is motivating _____ E) Other _____
5. In your opinion, do you think that the expansion of nonformal educational program shall increase the opportunity for equal access of women for basic education?
 A) Yes _____ B) No _____ C) Needs further investigations _____
6. Do you think that most of the learners in out-of-school educational programs are over-aged for entrants to regular school?
7. If your answer for the above question is "yes", then is there anything they feel due to overageness?
 A) Yes _____ b) No _____
8. As you can observe from the profile of the out-of school learners most of them are.
 A) Immature dropouts of the regular classes _____
 B) Fully illiterates _____
 C) Those who shoulder family responsibility _____
 D) Those with low income _____
9. Which of the following subject(s) are not given in non formal basic education center in your village?
 A) Environmental education _____
 B) Agricultural education _____
 C) Health Education _____
 D) Home Science _____
 E) Small-scale handicrafts _____
 F) Civic education _____
10. In your opinion, which of the following subject(s) have more relevance to the life situation of rural women?
 A) Agricultural education _____
 B) Health education _____
 C) Home science _____
 D) Small-scale handicraft _____
11. In your opinion, What is the major shortcoming of the non formal basic education program in your village?
 A) The inadequacy of the time set _____
 B) The inadequacy of the program to enroll as many women as desired _____
 C) Shortage of water in the area _____
 D) The acute shortage of trained instructors _____
 E) Problem of transmitted diseases such as _____

12. More attention for enrollment in non formal basic education program in your village is given to:
- A) Older age groups _____
 - B) Younger age groups _____
 - C) It is equally open to all age groups _____
13. The non formal basic education program in your village is attained in
- A) Two years _____
 - B) Three years _____
 - C) Four years _____
14. The non formal basic education program is provided in:
- A) Regular school rooms _____
 - B) Mobile tent _____
 - C) In rooms constructed for this purpose _____
 - D) Under the shade of tree _____
 - I. Other _____
15. The contribution from the surrounding community for the improvement and smoth-running of the programme is:
- A) Higher _____
 - B) Lower _____
 - C) They know nothing about the programme _____

PART III

Instruction:- Please indicate the extent to which the following factors affect the participation of girls in rural primary schools. Put a “✓” mark in the column that you think nearly the right choice.

<i>No.</i>	<i>Statements</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>
1	Socio-economic variables		
1.1	Parents cannot afford to pay for schooling		
1.2	Heavy load of labour at home		
1.3	The traditional role of girls is too high		
2	School-related variables		
2.1	School is not closer to home		
2.2	Longer school hours offer no time for domestic tasks		
2.3	Rigid school schedule		
2.4	School instruction purely academic		
2.5	Full-day schooling		
2.6	Teachers treat girls and boys equally, although their life situations are different		
2.7	School textbooks reinforce masculine supremacy		
3	Socio-cultural variables		
3.1	Teenage pregnancy		
3.2	Early marriage		
3.3	Fear of coeducation		
3.4	Religious factors favour the education of boys		
3.5	Boys gain preference in parental decision		
4	Political and Institutional Variables		
4.1	Government policies do not encourage the schooling of girls		
4.2	High school inaccessible		
4.3	Lack of alternative options for the education of girls and women		
4.4	Absence of rural technologies such as grain mills, water well, carts etc to save leisure time education.		

What other factors other than those mentioned above, do you think withhold girls from going to school in your village?

- I. _____
 II. _____
 III. _____

Part III

In your opinion, which of the following strategies do you think can improve the opportunity for equal access of rural girls and women to basic education in your village? Use rating scale: High +5, High=4, Medium+3, Low+2 and Very Low =1

No	Statements	5	4	3	2	1
1	Set up mobile tent schools					
2	Establish ungraded village school					
3	Establish one-teacher school					
4	Use family literacy programme					
5	Set up boarding primary schools					
6	Set up segregated schools for females					
7	Use Koranic/church schools to complement formal schooling					
8	Increase the role of NGOs and other interest groups in expanding non-formal village schools					
9	Use multiple shift and multiple teaching					
10	Issuance of equivalent certificates by out of - school learning programmes					
11	Exercise shorter school day					
12	Use flexible schedule					
13	Promote hiring of part-time teachers from the villagers themselves					
14	Hire sizable female teachers					
15	Arranging child rearing centers in the villages					
16	Providing educational materials in lower costs					
17	Involving the community in educational matters related to girls' particular problems					
18	Promote the use of rural technologies such as grain mills, water wells, carts etc. to save leisure time for education					
19	Make instructions life-oriented					
20	Provide incentives for parents					

What other strategies do you think can improve the participation of rural girls and women in basic education?

- a) _____
 b) _____
 c) _____
 d) _____

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Non formal Programme Learners - FORM B

Questionnaire prepared on “An Assessment of Alternative Strategies for the Basic Education of Women in Rural Bale and Borana”

This questionnaire is to be filled by learners in basic education centers of Agri-Service Ethiopia in Bale Zone, Mobile Tent Schools in Borana Zone, and non formal basic education centers run by zonal education departments in Bale and Borana Zones.

The major purpose of this questionnaire is to gather the necessary information on the educational status of women, assess the alternative options available to them and come-up with sound strategies that can improve the opportunity for access of rural women to basic education in Bale and Borana Zones. You are therefore, kindly requested to fill in the questionnaire to know your opinion about the various issues related to the study.

The success of this study depends upon your sincere response to the questions.

Thank you in advance for your co-operation.

PART I
Personal Attributes

Instruction:- Please indicate your answer by putting this “✓” mark in the space provided

1. Zone _____ A) Bale _____ B) Borana _____
2. Center of learning _____
A) Educational center run by Agri-Service Ethiopia _____
B) Educational center run by government _____
C) Mobile Tent School _____
D) Other _____
3. Sex _____ A) Male _____ B) Female _____
4. Your religion _____ A) Orthodox Christian _____ B) Muslim _____
5. Age _____ A) Below 10 years _____ B) 10-15 years _____
C) 15-20 years _____ D) 20-25 years _____
E) 25 years and above _____

6. Marital Status _____ A) Unmarried _____ B) Married
C) Divorced _____
7. Literacy Status _____ A) Beginner _____ B) Post literacy _____
C) Other _____
8. Income Status _____ A) Rich _____ B) Medium _____
C) Poor _____
9. Who do you live with _____
A) Father and mother _____ B) Father alone _____
C) Mother alone _____ D) Another person _____
E) With husband _____ F) Alone _____
10. How many brothers do you have?
A) 1-3 B) 4-6 C) 5-7 D) More than seven _____
11. How many are older than you? _____ boys _____ girls
12. How many are younger than your? _____ boys _____ girls
13. How many children are staying at home _____ boys _____ girls
14. How do your sisters help at home? _____
A) Fetching water _____ B) Working on the farm _____
C) Preparing meals _____ D) Raring siblings _____
E) Firewood collection _____
15. How do you brothers help at home? _____
A) Working on farm _____ B) Look after cattle _____
C) Firewood collection
16. How do you help at home?
A) Fetching water _____ B) Prepare Food _____
C) Look after siblings _____ D) Washing _____ E) Other _____

PART II

Instruction:- Please indicate your answer by putting this “✓” mark in the space provided

1. Have you once been to a regular class?
A) Yes _____ B) No _____
2. If your answer for the above question is “A”, then why you dropped out schooling and registered for out-of-school educational program?
A) School instruction is not leaf-oriented _____
B) Schooling offers no time for labour at home _____

- C) Parents fear of Co-education _____
 D) Due to unwanted pregnancy _____
 E) Due to early marriage _____
 F) Other reason _____
3. What reasons are there for your absence from going to regular school?
 A) Absence of school in your village _____
 B) Economic reason _____
 C) Absence of women models in the village _____
 D) Cultural and religious factors inhibit the education of girls _____
 E) Parents want us to help at home _____
 F) Other reason _____
4. How many of your brothers/sisters are now attending regular classes?
 Boys _____ girls _____
5. What would be useful for you to learn at this stage?
 A) About improved farming _____
 B) Manufacturing _____
 C) Trading _____
 D) Clerical Work _____
 E) Other _____
6. In your opinion, when you compare the nonformal educational program with schooling which one is likely appropriate for you?
 A) Schooling _____ B) Learning in nonformal education center _____
7. If your answer for the above questions is "B", then What would be the reason?
 A) Flexibility of schedule _____
 B) Its lower costs _____
 C) The center is located nearer to home _____
 D) It offers enough time for domestic tasks _____
 E) Relevance of its curriculum _____
 F) Other _____
8. When compared to the regular schools, the rate of dropouts in your center is relatively:
 A) Higher _____ B) Lower _____
9. In your opinion, do you think that the expansion of non formal educational programs would be useful to improve the opportunity of equal access for basic education of rural women?
 A) Yes B) No _____ C) Needs further investigations _____
10. Do you think that most of the learners in your learning center are averaged for entrances to regular school?

- A) Yes _____ B) No _____
11. If your answer for the above question is “yes”, then is there anything do you feel due to overageness?
A) Yes _____ B) No _____
12. What can you do after finishing your lesson in this center?
A) You can go on to the next level of learning _____
B) You have no plan to go on to any other school _____
C) Not yet decided _____
D) Make use of skills learned
E) Others _____
13. If your answer for the above question is “B”, then the reason would be
A) Family responsibility _____
B) Due to overageness _____
C) Husband is unwilling _____
D) Lack of nearby school _____
E) Schooling has little or no return _____
14. What can you observe from the profile of the most of your classmate in the center?
A) immature dropouts _____
B) Beginners and fully illiterates _____
C) They are from poor families _____
D) Those who shoulder family responsibility _____
15. Which of the following are not given in the center?
A) Environmental education _____
B) Agricultural education _____
C) Health education _____
D) Home economics _____
E) Small-scale handcrafts _____
F) Civic education _____
16. In your opinion What is the major shortcoming of the educational program of the center?
A) The inadequacy of the time set _____
B) The inadequacy of the program to enroll as many women as desired _____
C) Shortage of water in the area _____
D) The acute shortage of trained instructors _____
E) Problem of diseases such as malaria _____
17. More attention for enrollment in the center is given to:-
A) Older age groups _____
B) Younger age groups _____
C) It is equally open to all age groups _____

18. The learning program is attained in
A) Two years B) Three years _____ C) Four years _____
19. The learning programme is provided in
A) Regular school rooms _____
B) Mobile tent _____
C) In rooms constructed for this purpose _____
D) Under the shade of tree _____
E) Other _____
20. The contribution from the surrounding community for the improvement and smooth-running of the educational programme is
A) Higher _____ B) Lower
C) They know nothing about the programme _____

PART III

In your opinion, which of the following variables do you think affect girls' educational participation in your village?

No.	Statements	Agree	Disagree
1	Variables linked with school characteristics		
1.1	Long walking distance to school		
1.2	Longer school hours, taking the time for labour at home		
1.3	School instruction is not life-oriented		
1.4	Full day schooling		
1.5	Heavy Load of homework		
1.6	Corporal punishment		
1.7	Teachers' treat both girls and boys in the same way		
1.8	Rigid school calendar		
1.9	Lack of water in the school		
1.10	Lack of separate toilet for girls		
1.11	Lack of female teachers to serve as a model in the school		
1.12	Masculinity in school textbooks, reinforcing female subordinate position in the society		
1.13	Teachers' taking girls for less talented as compared to boys		
2	Variables linked with socio-economic conditions		
2.1	Family cannot afford to pay for education		
2.2	Heavy load of labour at home		
2.3	Uneducated household heads		
2.4	Lack of place to work for school at home		
2.5	Sickness of the girl and other family members		
3	Variables linked with socio-cultural conditions		
3.1	Teenage pregnancy		
3.2	Early marriage		
3.3	Fear of coeducation		
3.4	Religious factors favour the schooling of boys		
3.5	Girls' lack of motivation/interest in schooling		
3.6	Fear of sexual harassment and abduction		
3.7	Boys gain preference in parental decision		
3.8	Male household heads are not keen on girls' education		
3.9	Female household head are not keen on girls' education		
3.10	Negative attitude of parents towards secular education		
4	Political & Institutional Variables		
4.1	Lack of alternative access for the education of girls and women		
4.2	No high school accessible		
4.3	Lack of modern technologies to save leisure time for education (Grain mills, water wells, carts etc.)		

What other factors other than those mentioned above, do you think withhold girls from going to school in your village?

- I. _____
 II. _____
 III. _____

In your opinion, which of the following strategies do you think can improve the opportunity for equal access of education of girls and women in your village?

Rating Scale: Very high: 5, High:4, Medium: 3, Low:2, Very low:1

No	Suggestions/statements	5	4	3	2	1
1	Establish mobile tent schools					
2	Establish upgraded village school					
3	Establish one-teacher school					
4	Expanding family literacy programme					
5	Establish boarding school					
6	use segregated school for girls and women					
7	use Koranic/Church school as a complement to formal schools					
8	Increase the role of NGOs and other interest groups in expanding non formal village schools					
9	Use multiple shift and multiple teaching					
10	Issuance of equivalent certificates by out-of-school learning programmes					
11	Use shorter school day					
12	Employ flexible schedule					
13	Promote hiring of teachers from the local villagers on part-time basis					
14	Increase the size of female teachers					
15	Arranging child raring centers in the villages					
16	Providing educational materials in lower costs					
17	involving the community in educational matters related to girls' particular problems					
18	Increase the use of rural technologies such as grain mills, water wells, carts etc. to save leisure time for education					
19	Make instructions life-oriented					
20	Provide incentives to parents					

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
PROGRAM FACILITATORS - FORM C

Questionnaire arranged for the “Assessment of Alternative Strategies for the Basic Education of Women in Rural Bale and Borana”

This questionnaire is to be filled by programme co-ordinators and facilitators in basic education centers run by zonal education departments in Bale and Borana; basic educational programme of Agri-Service Ethiopia in Bale; and Mobile Tent Schools in Boarana.

The main purpose of this questionnaire is to gather the necessary information on the educational status of rural women, assess the alternative options available to them and come-up with sound strategies that can widen the opportunity for Bale and Borena. You are, therefore, kindly requested to fill in the questionnaire to know your opinion about the various issues related to the study.

The success of the study depends upon your sincere response to the questions.

Thank you in advance for your co-operation

PART I
Personal Attributes

Instruction:- Please indicate your answer by putting this “☞” mark in the space provided

1. Zone _____ A) Bale _____ B) Borana _____
2. Center of learning _____
A) Educational center run by Agri-Service Ethiopia _____
B) Educational Center run by government _____
C) Mobile tent school _____
Other _____
3. Sex _____ A) Male _____ B) Female _____
4. Your Age _____ A) Below 18 years _____ B) 18 to 22 years _____
C) 22 to 26 years _____ D) 26 to 30 years _____
E) 30 years and above _____
5. Religion _____ A) Orthodox Christian _____ B) Muslim _____
C) Other _____
6. Marital Status _____ A) Married _____ B) Un Married _____
D) Divorced _____

7. Years of Service (if you are employed _____
 A) 1-5 years _____ B) 6-10 years _____ C) 11-15 years _____
 D) 16-20 years _____ E) 20 years and above _____
8. Educational Status
 A) Below grade 8 _____ B) Grade 8 to 10 _____
 C) Grade 10-12 _____ D) 12th complete _____
 E) T.T.I graduate _____ F) 12+2 and above _____

PART II

Instruction:- Please indicate your choice by putting this “ “ mark in the space provided

1. What proportion of the learners in the learning center formerly attended regular class?
 A) almost all of them _____ B) Many of them ____ C) Few of them _____
 D) None of them _____

2. If your answer for the above question is either “A” or “B”, then can you give the reason Why they dropped out schooling and came to learn in the center?
 A) School instruction is not life-oriented _____
 B) Schooling offers no time for labour at home _____
 C) Parents fear of co-education _____
 D) Due to unwanted pregnancy _____
 E) Due to early marriage _____
 F) Other reasons _____

3. When compared to regular schools, the rate of dropouts from the center is relatively
 A) Higher B) Lower _____ C) Almost the same _____

4. If your answer for the above question is “lower”, then What do you think to be the reason?
 A) Instruction is life-oriented _____
 B) Learners can have plenty of time for labour at home _____
 C) Suitable learning time for learners _____
 D) Teachers treatment for female is motivating _____
 E) Other reasons _____

5. In your opinion, do you think that the expansion of non formal educational programs widen the opportunity of equal access for the basic education of rural girls and women?
 A) Yes _____ B) No _____ C) Needs further investigations _____

6. Do you think that most of the learners in the center are overaged for enterants to regular school?

- A) Yes _____ B) No _____
7. If your answer for the above question is “yes”, then is there anything they feel due to overageness?
A) Yes _____ B) No _____
8. As you can observe From the profile of the learners most of them are
A) Immature dropouts of the regular class _____
B) Fully illiterates _____
C) Those who shoulder family responsibility _____
D) Those with low income _____
9. Which of the following subject/ subjects are not given in the center?
A) Environmental education _____
B) Agricultural education _____
C) Health education _____
D) Home science _____
E) Small-scale hand crafts _____
F) Civic education _____
10. In your opinion, which of the following subject (s) have more relation with the life situation of rural women?
A) Agricultural education _____
B) Health education _____
C) Family Planning _____
D) Home Science _____
E) Small-scale handicrafts _____
11. In your opinion, What is the major short coming of the educational program of the center?
A) The inadequacy of the time set _____
B) The inadequacy of the program to enroll as many women as desired _____
C) Shortage of water in the area _____
D) The acute shortage of trained instructors _____
E) Problem of transmitted diseases such as malaria _____
12. More attention for enrollment in the center is given to
A) Older age groups _____
B) Younger age groups _____
C) It is equally open to all age groups _____
13. The learning program is attained in
A) Two years _____ B) Three years _____ C) Four years _____
14. The learning program is provided in
A) Regular school rooms _____ B) Mobile tent _____
C) In rooms constructed for this purpose _____

- D) Under the shade of tree _____
- E) Other _____

15. The contribution from the surrounding community for the improvement and smooth-running of the programme is:-
- A) Higher
 - B) Lower
 - C) They know nothing about the programme ____

PART III

In your opinion, which of the following variables do you think affect girls' educational participation in your village?

No.	Statements	Agree	Disagree
1	Variables linked with school characteristics		
1.1	Long walking distance to school		
1.2	Longer school hours, taking the time for labour at home		
1.3	School instruction is not life-oriented		
1.4	Full day schooling		
1.5	Heavy Load of homework		
1.6	Corporal punishment		
1.7	Teachers' treat both girls and boys in the same way		
1.8	Rigid school calendar		
1.9	Lack of water in the school		
1.10	Lack of separate toilet for girls		
1.11	Lack of female teachers to serve as a model in the school		
1.12	Masculinity in school textbooks, reinforcing female subordinate position in the society		
1.13	Teachers' taking girls for less talented as compared to boys		
2	Variables linked with socio-economic conditions		
2.1	Family cannot afford to pay for education		
2.2	Heavy load of labour at home		
2.3	Uneducated household heads		
2.4	Lack of place to work for school at home		
2.5	Sickness of the girl and other family members		
3	Variables linked with socio-cultural conditions		
3.1	Teenage pregnancy		
3.2	Early marriage		
3.3	Fear of coeducation		
3.4	Religious factors favour the schooling of boys		
3.5	Girls' lack of motivation/interest in schooling		
3.6	Fear of sexual harassment and abduction		
3.7	Boys gain preference in parental decision		
3.8	Male household heads are not keen on girls' education		
3.9	Female household head are not keen on girls' education		
3.10	Negative attitude of parents towards secular education		
4	Political & Institutional Variables		
4.1	Lack of alternative access for the education of girls and women		
4.2	No high school accessible		
4.3	Lack of modern technologies to save leisure time for education (Grain mills, water wells, carts etc.)		

PART III

In your opinion, which of the following strategies do you think can improve the opportunity for equal access of rural girls and women to basic education in your village? Use rating scale: very High +5, High=4, Medium+3, Low=2 and Very Low=1

<i>No</i>	<i>Suggestions</i>	5	4	3	2	1
1	Set up mobile tent schools					
2	Establish ungraded village school					
3	Establish one-teacher school					
4	Use family literacy programme					
5	Set up boarding primary schools					
6	Set up segregated schools for females					
7	Use koranic/church schools to complement formal schooling					
8	Increase the role of NGOs and other interest groups in expanding non formal village schools					
9	Use multiple shift and multiple teaching					
10	Issuance of equivalent certificates by out-of school learning programmes					
11	Exercise shorter school day					
12	Use flexible schedule					
13	Promote hiring of part-time teachers from the villagers themselves					
14	Hire sizable female teachers					
15	Arranging child rearing centers in the villages					
16	Providing educational materials in lower costs					
17	Involving the community in educational matters related to girls' particular problems					
18	Promote the use of rural technologies such as grain mills, water wells, carts etc. to save leisure time for education					
19	Make instructions life-oriented					
20	Provide incentives for parents					

What other strategies do you think can improve the participation of rural girls and women in basic education?

- a) _____
- b) _____
- c) _____
- d) _____
- e) _____
- f) _____

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
COMMUNITY REPRESENTATIVES - FORM D

Structured interview set on “ An assessment of Alternative Strategies for the Basic Education of Women in Rural Bale and Borana”

PART I
Personal Attributes

1. Zone _____ A) Bale _____ B) Borana _____
2. Sex _____ A) Male _____ B) Female _____
3. Religion _____ A) Orthodox Christian _____ B) Muslim _____
C) Other _____
4. Occupation _____ A) Farmer _____ B) Petty manufacturer _____
C) Petty trader _____ D) Hand craft _____ E) Other _____
5. Income Status _____ A) Rich _____ B) Medium _____ C) Poor _____
6. Educational status of the husband _____
A) Illiterate _____ B) Read & Write _____
C) Primary school complete and above _____
7. Educational status of the wife _____
A) Illiterate _____ B) Read & write _____
C) Primary school complete and above _____
8. The number of dependants _____ boys _____ girls _____
9. The number of children attending regular school classes _____
boys _____ girls _____
10. The number of children attending regular school classes _____ boys _____
girls _____
11. The number of dependants learning in non formal basic education centers
boys _____ girls _____
12. How do girls help at home?
A) Fetching water _____ B) Working on farm _____
C) Preparing food _____ D) Looking after siblings _____
E) Firewood collection _____
13. How do boys help at home?
A) Working on farm _____
B) Look after cattle _____
C) Firewood collection _____

- D) Washing clothes _____
14. The number of dependants whose age is beyond 10 years, while not attending either the regular class or the out-of school educational programme
boys _____ girls _____
15. How do your children usually go to school?
A) On foot _____ B) Other means _____
16. How long does it take your children from home to school?
A) 10 to 20 min _____ B) 20 to 30 min _____
C) Half an hour to an hour _____
D) One hour to one and half an hour _____
E) More than one and half hours _____

Part III

Instruction:- Please indicate the extent to which the following factors affect the participation of girls in rural primary schools. Put a “ “ mark in the column that you think nearly the right choice

<i>No</i>	<i>Statements</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>
1	Socio-economic variables		
1.1	Parents cannot afford to pay for schooling		
1.2	Heavy load of labour at home		
1.3	The traditional role of girls is too high		
2	School-related variables		
2.1	School is not closer to home		
2.2	Longer school hours offer no time for domestic tasks		
2.3	Rigid school schedule		
2.4	School instruction purely academic		
2.5	Full-day schooling		
2.6	Teachers treat girls and boys equally, although their life situations are different		
2.7	School textbooks reinforce masculine supremacy		
3	Socio-cultural variables		
3.1	Teenage pregnancy		
3.2	Early marriage		
3.3	Fear of co-education		
3.4	Religious factors favour the education of boys		
3.5	Fear of sexual harassment, abduction or rape		
3.6	Boys gain preference in parental decision		
4	Political and Institutional Variables		
4.1	Government policies do not encourage the schooling of girls		
4.2	High school inaccessible		
4.3	Lack of alternative options for the education of girls and women		
4.4	Absence of rural technologies such as grain mills, water well, carts etc to save leisure time for education		

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION**

REGULAR PUPILS AND DROPOUTS-FORME

Questionnaire prepared on "An Assessment of Alternative Strategies for Basic Education of Women in Rural Bale and Borana"

This questionnaire is to be filled by regular pupils and Dropouts of the regular schools in rural Bale and Borana.

The major purpose of this questionnaire is to gather the necessary information on the educational status of rural women, assess the alternative options available to them and come-up with sound strategies that can improve the opportunity for access of rural women to basic education in rural Bale and Borana. You are, therefore, kindly requested to fill in the questionnaire to know your opinion about the various issues related to the study.

The success of this study depends upon your earnest and sincere response to the questions.

Thank you in advance for your co-operation

PART I

Personal Attributes

Instruction: Please indicate your answer by putting this"✓" mark in the space provided

- 1) Zone _____ A) Bale _____ B) Borana _____
- 2) Name of the School/district you are residing in _____
- 3) Sex _____ A) Male _____ B) Female _____
- 4) Age _____ A) Below 10 years _____ B) 10 to 15 years _____
C) 15 years and above _____
- 5) Religion _____ A) Orthodox Christian _____ B) Muslim _____ C) Other _____
- 6) Educational Status of mother _____
A) Illiterate _____ B) Read & Write _____ C) Primary school complete
and above _____
- 7) Educational status of father _____
A) Illiterate _____ B) Read & Write _____ C) Primary school complete
and above _____
- 8) Currently, you are A) attending regular class _____ B) Dropout _____
- 9) Occupation of your father _____ A) Farmer _____ B) manufacturer _____
C) trader _____ D) Small-Scale handcraft _____ E) Other _____
- 10) Mother's occupation _____ A) House-Wife _____ B) trader _____
C) Small-scale handcraft _____ D) Other _____
- 11) Income status of your parents _____ A) Rich _____ B) Medium _____
C) Poor _____
- 12) Who do you live with _____
I. Father and mother _____ B) Father alone _____ C) Mother
alone _____
D) husband _____ E) Another person _____ F) Alone _____
- 13) How many brothers do you have? A) 1-3 _____ B) 4-6 _____
C) 5-7 _____ D) 8 and above _____
- 14) How many sisters do you have? A) 1-3 _____ B) 4-6 _____

C) 5-7 _____ D) 8 and above _____

15) How many are older than you? boys _____ girls _____

16) How many are younger than you? boys _____ girls _____

17) How many children are staying at home? boys _____ girls _____

18) How do your sisters help at home?

A) Fetching water _____ B) Working on farm _____ C) preparing meals _____

D) Looking after siblings _____ E) Firewood collection _____

19) How do your brothers help at home?

A) working on farm _____ B) Look after cattle _____

C) Firewood collection _____

20) How do you help at home?

A) Fetching water _____ B) prepare food _____ C) look after siblings _____

D) Firewood collection _____ E) Other _____

21) How do you usually come to school?

A) on foot _____ B) other means _____

22) How long does it take you from your home to school

A) 10 to 20 min. _____ B) 20 to 30 min _____ c) half an hour to an hour _____

D) one hour to one and half an hour _____ E) more than one and half hours _____

PART II

In your opinion, which of the following variable do you think with hold girls and women from attending school in your village?

<i>No</i>	<i>Statements</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>
1	Socio-economic variables		
1.1	We cannot afford to pay for education		
1.2	Heavy load of labour at home		
1.3	The traditional role of girls is too high		
2	School-related variables		
2.1	School is not closer to home		
2.2	Longer school hours offer no time for domestic tasks		
2.3	Rigid school schedule		
2.4	School instruction is not life-oriented		
2.5	Full-day schooling		
2.6	Teachers treat girls and boys equally, although their life situations are different		
3	Socio-cultural variables		
3.1	We are not interested in girls' schooling		
3.2	Teenage pregnancy is common		
3.3	Early marriage		
3.4	Fear of co-education		
3.5	Religious factors favour the education of boys		
3.6	Fear of sexual harassment, abduction		
3.7	Boys gain preference in parental decision		
4	Political or institutional variables		
4.1	Government policies do not encourage girls' schooling		
4.2	High school in accessible		
4.3	Lack of alternative options for the education of girls		
4.4	Absence of rural technologies (grain mills, water wells, carts, etc). to save leisure time for schooling of girls		

What other variable,s other than mentioned above, do you think can affect the education of rural girls and women in your village? enumerate them:

- a) _____
- b) _____
- I. _____

- e) _____
 f) _____

Part III


Instruction:- Please indicate the extent to which the following alternative strategies can improve the participation of girls and women in basic education in your village. Put a “✓” mark in the columns provided.

No	Suggestions	5	4	3	2	1
1	Expansion of mobile tent schools					
2	Expansion of family literacy programme					
3	Expansion of small village schools					
4	Set up boarding schools					
5	Set up segregated schools					
6	Use Koranic/Church schools as a complement to regular schools					
7	Increase the role of NGOs and other interest groups in expanding non-formal village schools					
8	Use one-teacher ungraded schools					
9	Issuance of equivalent certificates by out-of-school Programmes					
10	Use multiple shift and multiple teaching					
11	Use shorter school day					
12	Promote hiring of teachers on part-time basis from the local villagers themselves					
13	Hiring sizable female teachers					
14	Employ flexible schedule					
15	Arranging child rearing centers in the villages					
16	Providing educational materials in lower costs					
17	Involving the community in educational matters related to girls particular problems					
18	Increasing the involvement of community representatives in educational planning and decision-making					
19	Making education life-oriented					
20	Eliminating masculinity in textbooks					
21	Increase the use of rural technologies such as grain mills, water wells, carts etc. to save leisure time for education					

DECLARATION

The thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University and that all the materials used for this research have been duly acknowledged

Name Abdo Abafog'

Sign. 

Date June 19, 2000

The thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as a
University Advisor

Name: Seyoum Teferra (Ph.D)
Associate Professor

Signature Seyoum
Date of Submission 29/5/2000