SUCCESSES, CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS TO ACHIEVE UPE IN BENISHANGUL GUMUZ REGION: THE CASE OF AGRO-PASTORALIST GUMUZ COMMUNITY CHILDREN

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AAU- Addis Ababa University
AED- Academy for Educational Development
ADB- African Development Bank
ANCEFA- African Network Campaign on Education for All
BESO – Basic Education Strategic Objective
BGREB- Benishangul Gumuz Regional Education Bureau
BGRS- Benishangul Gumuz State
CSA- Central Statistics Agency
DVV- Desdeutschen Volkshochshul- Verbandes
EFA- Education For All
EMPDA- Educational Material Production and Distribution Agency
EPaRAD- Ethiopian Pastoralist Research and Development Association
ERGESE- Evaluation Research on the General Education System of Ethiopia
ESDP- Education Sector Development Program
ESR- Education Sector Review
ETP- Education and Training policy
FAWE- Forum for African Women Educationalist
FDER-Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
FGD- Focus Group Discussion
GB- Great Britain
GER- Gross Enrolment Rate
IER- Institute of Educational Research
IICBA- International Institute for capacity Building in Africa
IIEP- International Institute for Educational Planning
IIZ- Institute for International Zusammenarbit
JRM-Joint Review Mission
KETB- Kebele Education and Training Board
MDGs- Millennium Development Goals
MoE- Ministry of Education
NER- Net Enrolment Rate
PTA- Parent Teacher Association
REB- Regional Education Bureau
SMAPP- School Mapping and Micro-planning Project
TGE- Transitional Government of Ethiopia
UN- United Nation
UNESCO - United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA- United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF- United Nations Children's Fund
UPE- Universal Primary Education
USAID- United States Agency for International Development
WCEFA- World Conference on Education for all

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the major success, challenges and prospects in achieving the target of UPE in the agro-pastoralist areas of BenishangulGumuz Region of Metekel zone. Based on this, analyzing the status of primary education with respect to the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz localities is very important to decide up on the future goals which are intended to meet the target at the year 2015. Particularly to provide primary education to all children of the official school admission age, evaluating the challenging factors and identifying the cause for prevailing problem and suggesting the possible strategies to alleviate the problems enables to achieve the UPE target.

The research design employed in this study was descriptive survey. Apart from consultation of relevant documents from different source, data were gathered from 305 Gumuz students, 86 teachers, 15 school principals, 21 REB, zone and woreda educational experts and officials, 21 PTA members 12 Gumuz community elders and 15 KETB teams. The data collected was analyzed using some statistical tools like percentage, mean and chi-square test.

The data from documentary analysis indicated that the educational status of Agro-Pastoralist Gumuz children participation in primary school is extremely low. This indicated that there were challenging factors for the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz localities to achieve the target of UPE. Based on this finding, school related and out-of-school related constraints were assessed to identify the challenging factors. The school related challenges like irrelevance of curriculum, inappropriate medium of instruction, shortage of student text book, absence of upper primary (5-8) school have been identified as major challenges that hinder the achievement of UPE. The out-of-school challenging factors were further categorized as socio-economic, socio-cultural and socio-climatic problems. The socio-economic constraints like low parental income, high demand of child labor by their parents, distance from home to school and lack of awareness of Gumuz parents about the value of education were found to be the major barriers to the educational involvement of the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children. Moreover, socio-cultural constraints like existence of exchanging Gumuz females to get wife for her brother, lack of educated role model, and lack of awareness of Gumuz parents about the value of girls' education were also found to be the major barriers to educational participation of the agro-pastoralist Gumuz children. Furthermore, socio-climatic constrains like the impact of malaria on the students health were found as a major problem. Hence, it is concluded that in most cases there was challenges that hinder the involvement of Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children in primary schools which was a function of school related, Socio-economic, socio-cultural and socio-climatic constraints, which altogether indicated as there were challenges in achieving UPE particularly in the agro-pastoralists localities and generally in the region. Depending on this findings the recommendation made for addressing the challenges are upgrading the existing schools, using the non-formal approach, using resettlement program, realizing awareness and advocacy program, using boarding school, school feeding program and using alternative basic education.

CHAPTER ONE

1. THE PROBLEMS AND ITS APPROACH

1.1. Background of the Problem

Education, particularly primary education, is one of the most powerful instruments known for reducing poverty and inequality, for laying bases to sustained economic growth, sound governance, and effective instruction (Bruns & Mingat, 2003). It is also taken as a fundamental tool in the service of construction of democratic societies and dynamic, globally competitive economies. Moreover, primary education as a provision of skill and knowledge has strong influence on the economic growth. In light of its importance, it is assumed that many of the developing nations are economically poor mostly because they lack literate societies that can wisely exploit the available resources (Psacharopoulos & Woodhall, 1991).

In this respect the issue of universal primary Education was a desirable and essential goal for the political, social and economical development of the poor nations of the world and has been accepted for a very long time. In realizing these facts, many developing countries made tremendous efforts to provide education to their citizens. Most of the African countries held a historical educational conference in 196o, 1961, 1962 and 1966 at Karachi, Addis Ababa, Santiago and Tripoli respectively to achieve UPE by 1970 in Latin America and 1980 in Africa, Asia and Arab State. However, this has not been applicable because of different social and political problems (Colclough and Lewin in Derebssa, 1999). According to the resolution of the conference on African Education, Ethiopia compared to other African countries, lagged far behind in meeting the target of UPE in educational development (Bastian, 2004).

Similarly, the world education forum held in Jomtien, Thailand, in the year 1990 involving 155 countries set the goal for EFA by the year 2000 also targeted UPE as a goal that all children, young people and adults would have the fundamental right to basic education. However, the goal of primary education in most of these countries remains to be elusive even after many years of their commitment (Mulugeta, 2007).

On this side, Ethiopia during the Imperial period set strategies of ESR in 1971 for the rapid expansion of primary education with the view of achieving universal literacy before the year 2000 by targeting the rural population as educational policy which also doomed to failure (Tekeste, 1990).

Ten years later(in the 2000), the Dakar (Senegal) conference was held considering performance after Jomtien conference and noted the goals set were not achieved so that the time frame was extended from 2000 to 2015 to achieve the goals (UNESCO,2000). Of course, the 2000 assessment demonstrates that there have been significance progress in many countries towards the vision set but the prospects for such success appears bleaker in many other countries particularly in Africa (Derebssa, 1999). Moreover, UNESCO (2005) states that for all the inherent goodness that primary educations offered have been pursued by all concerned for some decades, the goal of UPE remains beyond the reach of many developing countries.

The problem seems to be more dominant in areas of the nomadic population of African countries. According to Carry-Hill and Peart (2005), the rate of primary enrollment for children was significantly below the national average where the nomadic pastoralists and agro-pastoralists constitute about 6% of the African population and can be found in no less than 20 African countries. At present these groups of African population are in a particular challenge for development in general and education in particular.

With this regard Getachew (2001) also states that, in Ethiopia pastoralists were estimated to be about 8 million, which constitute 13 percent of the total population and occupied the range land of about 500,000km2, which is about 65 percent of the total area of the nation but account large percent of illiteracy. Moreover, in indicating the severity of the problem with the marginalized group in Ethiopia, Shibashi Degafa and G/Kidan (as cited in Ezomah, 1995) explained that, in the past regimes except the very few children who were given the chance of education and

training in order to serve the then regime, most of the nomadic pastoral population had not benefited much from the education system.

In this regard, in Ethiopia it is believed that provision of basic education to all the future citizens of the country is one of the policy goals articulated in the new ETP program (TGE, 1994). But, Ethiopia faced a difficulty and unenviable uphill task to expand education system and provide equitable access to children of both genders, urban and rural, in all geographic areas, remote and near (Bastian, 2004).

Throughout the relatively long history of basic education in the country, the problem of provision of education not only discontinued but also became ever complex and challenging particularly in the peripheral areas of the regions like Afar, Somali, Benishangul and other parts of the country (Ayalew Shibeshi et.al, 2002). In line with this, the MoE (2007) states that basic development of infrastructures and social services including education and training in the pastoral areas were very skimpy. Various research findings also illustrate that the salient problems of nomadic education are closely associated with the socio-economic, socio-cultural and nature of the environment they found in, which includes drought, poverty, far school home distance and harmful traditional practices, etc (MOE, 2002).

As explained by Psacharopolous and Woodhall (1991) and also by Ayalew Shibeshi et al. (2002), in some cases school enrolment was low as school supply was low while in other cases young people or their families do not chose to take the advantage of this existing opportunity in educating their children. Focusing on the second point they further states that even when the supply of school was sufficient to provide the opportunity to UPE, shortfalls may occur since a wide variety of further factors also affects enrolment. The educational, social, economic bases, general level of living conditions and cultural characteristics of rural household are the determinant factors of the demand for schooling.

Moreover, educational planners often attribute the low levels of educational participation to supply side constraints, and government efforts were directed at expanding the supply of school. However, the low level of supply in many poor

countries serve to obscure to what extent the lack or limited demand for educational service by household because of their incapability of low level income to educate their children negatively affected their children educational participation (AID/BESO, 2005).

Many attempts have been made to establish educational service to meet the learning needs of nomadic pastoralist but they have, on the whole failed. This largely appears to be due to the failure of educational provision to respond appropriately to the nomadic way of life, to their culture, social, economic and climatic conditions. Furthermore, curriculum, language time of education, proximity of school to home and their culture should be given attention (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Moreover, most habitats that nomadic group occupies temporarily is found to have the most underdeveloped transport and communication infrastructures, making it difficult to open school. Even where schools exist, learners might not be there because of barriers of the social, economic, cultural and other related factors (Tekeste, Tsehaye, and Dagnew in Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

As far as achieving UPE is concerned, the most challenging factors that are resource constraints, shortage of schools etc. are obvious and common reasons for a country. In both cases, the solution to the problem would undoubtedly be getting money and building more and more schools. But, there are other most prominent bottlenecks that hinder the achievement of UPE in the agro-pastoralist localities which can further go beyond the supply side problems in which it needs to consider their social, economical and other factors to improve their participation in primary schools (Ezomah, 1995).

The peripheral areas of Metekel Zone, which is found in Benishangul Gumuz regional state, is one of the most neglected and disadvantaged area with regard to access to social service like education and health etc. The region is divided in to three administrative zones, namely, Assossa in which the capital of the region is found, Metekel, and Kamashi. The zones are further divided into 20 'Woredas'

comprising 504 'Kebeles'. According to the Annual Statistical Abstract of the Region (FDRE CSA, 2008) the area covers about 50,380km and a population of 670,847 which consists indigenous population of five ethnic groups namely Gumuz, Berta, shinasha Mao and Komo. There are also other large ethnic groups like Amhara, Oromo and others living in the region (BGRS, 2004).

Among the indigenous population of the region, Gumuz, Shinasha, Mao, and Komo's are considered to be Agro-pastoralist communities and live at the harsh and hard to reach conditions with very low participation in the education system and illiteracy rate of 82.1%(BGRS,2004). Henceforth, the regional government was committed to provide primary education and given emphasis to the sector with the expansion and construction of many schools at various places of the region and as the result the participation rate of the region in general has increased to 76.6%. Moreover, according to the statistical data of 2003/4-2007/8, the GER for the primary education in the region was increased from 100.5 percent to 107.5 percent with an average annual growth of 1.4 percent (BGREB, annual abstract, 2007/08).

The GER and NER of the agro-pastoralist areas of Metkel zone was 76.6 percent and 62.3 percent respectively (BGREB, Annual Abstract, 2007/08). These enrolment ratios compared to the regional 107.5 and 82.7 percent and the national 91.7 and 79.1 percent GER and NER respectively was also discouraging conditions that challenges the achievement of UPE. In this case, as it was described by Derebssa (2006) who states that only those countries whose NER is 80 percent and above currently can achieve UPE in 2015, it seemed the region faced difficulty to achieve the target as far as the agro-pastoralist areas was considered with NER of 62.3 percent.

Today, the government is committed to provide quality education for all by the year 2015 which is also the major priority of ETP of 1994. However, it is very difficult for the region to achieve the goal of equity of opportunity in universal primary education so long as the Agro-pastoralist groups of the region are forgotten educationally.

Moreover, the researcher is in doubt about the reported NER (82.7percent) of the region (BGREB, Annual Abstract, 2008/9). This is mainly because the total school age children in the region is 111,033 while the report of Ethiopia Population and house census in 2007 indicates the school age (7-14) population in the region that accounts 152,747 in which the NER of the region should be 72.7 percent instead of 82.7 percent.

Therefore, it is imperative and timely to investigate the challenging factors that affect the participation of primary education in achieving UPE by the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region. Moreover, exploring possible alternative strategies and suggesting some solutions are also important to facilitate the achievement of UPE to the deprived children's of Agro-pastoralist Gumuz communities as they constitute the large number among the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The transitional government of Ethiopia has designed the new education and training policy in 1994 which has the objective of improving relevance, quality, access and equity of education (TGE, 1994). The international declaration of Human Right also contains provision of compulsory and free primary education on non-discrimination approach to education (Lerner, 1991).

Therefore, everybody is expected to enjoy with this right because of its individual nature of right and hence education is believed to be a corner stone of economic growth and social development as well as major means of improving the well being of individuals which can be realized only by being involved in education. However, the people who live in pastoralist and Agro-Pastoralist areas of Ethiopia are under the influence of harsh climatic condition, deprived of basic educational service and there was no much attention given to these groups of people since the introduction of modern education in Ethiopia (Petros, 2008).

As Carr-Hill and Peart (2005), pastoralist groups are scattered across a wide area and usually in the most inaccessible parts of the country that makes the problem of

expansion of primary education probably to alleviate than solved. Accordingly, there were no significant strategies and options designed to alleviate the existing problem of educational provision and achieving the target of EFA through expansion of primary education to the deprived Gumuz Agro-Pastoralist.

Moreover, many children in Ethiopia have access to schooling but they do not attend. Some families especially from the farming and nomadic background tend to place greater values on the time children spend in other activities, such as performing work for income because of the constraints on their economic background (Ezomah, 1995).

Likewise, Mandura, Dangur and Guba Woredas with arid and semi-arid climate are the habitat of Gumuz Agro-Pastoralist in Metekel Zone of BGRS in which there is a significant number of pastoralists Gumuz children who are out of school. The enrollment rate in this area is lowest with NER of 62.3 percent when it was compared to all the 7 woredas of the zone as well as the regional enrollment rate, which is 79.3 percent and 82.7 percent respectively in 2006/07(BGREB, Annual Statistics Abstract, 2007/08:9).

The other demand side discouraging condition was the PSR and PTR of the agro-pastoralist area. In this case the PSR with 35.7:1 and PTR of 45:1 are very low compared to the regional 62:1 and 47.5:1 and the national standard of 60:1 and 50:1PSR and PTR respectively (BGREB, Annual Abstract, 2006/07). This shows the inefficient usage of resource and low quality provision of primary school respectively which also challenges the achievement of UPE.

Based on the above facts and according to BGREB perspective plan on achieving UPE in provision of quality primary education to all by 2015 would not be easy in the region because of the following major fears.

The first major fear was the fact that the large number of children who should get this opportunity were out of school. Particularly among school age children (7-14), 43.1 percent are out of school. This also contradicted with the idea that Bastian

(2004) states in the summary of operational definition of UPE in which a country must reach a minimum of 80 percent NIR latest by 2007/08 to achieve UPE.

Secondly, even among children who come to school, a significant number of them dropout and repeated before the necessary knowledge which contradicted the idea that repetition and dropout rates should be brought down to 5 percent in all grades as soon as possible latest 2006/7 to achieve the UPE target(Bastian, 2004).

Thirdly, even though schools are there, the lowest PSR and PTR of the agro-pastoralist localities indicated inefficiency and suffer low participation in primary schooling which is worse and might be because of the other social, economical, cultural and climatic problems of the agro-pastoralist Gumuz community as stated by Psacharopolous and woodhall(1991) and Ayalew Shibeshi et.al (2002) above.

In general the situation in Metekel zone of Agro-Pastoralist still was not only frustrating but also creating serious challenges in achieving the goal of EFA. Thus identifying the major challenging factors that contribute to low primary school participation in the study area and coming up with some possible strategic interventions taken by the region in general and agro-pastoralist areas in particular to overcome the problems to achieve the UPE target is the concern of the study.

1.3. Objective of the Study

1.3.1. General Objective

The general objective of this study is to assess the current status of promoting primary education and to investigate the school related and out-of-school related challenging factors that hinder the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas of BGRS.

1.3.2. Specific Objective

1. To assess the status of primary education in the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region;

2. To identify the major challenging factors those hinder the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region;
3. To investigate the extent to which the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children obtain access, quality and equity in primary education; and
4. To recommend appropriate strategies that could enhance educational participation of Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children in Metekel zone.

To realize the above objective in the course of the study, the following basic questions were addressed:

1) What is the current status of primary education at the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region?
2) To what extent the out- of school factors (like socio-economic, socio-cultural, socio-climatic etc.) affect the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region?
3) To what extent the school related factors (like, curriculum, teaching material, language etc.) affect the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region?
4) What possible strategies are there to increase the chance of achieving UPE in Metekel zone of Gumuz communities

1.4. Significance of the Study

According to the new education and training policy of Ethiopia (TGE, 1994), education should be relevant to respond the needs and interest of the people which should also be true for Agro-pastoralist areas of the region. Education should also be based on their daily life and could able to solve the problems that the Agro-pastoralist encounters. As the Agro-pastoralist is deprived with many problems such as inaccessible areas, socio-economic socio-demographic factors etc, and hence the type and method of education given should be appropriate with their life. In this regard assessing and identifying the major factor that hinders the achieving of UPE in the Agro-Pastoralist areas of the region and suggesting an applicable strategy is essential. Even though, the study might not exhaustively provide solution for the problem under considerations it will have the following significance:

1. The study may help the region to examine and be aware of the challenging factors that hinder the achievement of UPE by the intended time
2. Since there is no any study carried out on the issue under the study in the Agro-Pastoralist areas of Gumuz prior to this, it is hoped that the study may indicate the major problems related to providing primary educational service so that concerned authorities will take corrective measures to reverse the trend and to alleviate the existing problems
3. It provides BGREB with an information regarding the problems pertinent to the Agro-Pastoralist and hence plan an action to alleviate these problems to achieve the UPE by the year 2015
4. It helps as preliminary information for local educational administrators to identify the various challenging factors that hinder the achievement of UPE and put a strategy to solve them in their order of seriousness
5. It enables the non-governmental and governmental organizations by providing information to plan specific actions for these areas so that the Agro-pastoralist children of the region will be attracted to school
6. The study also helps to provide valuable suggestion for the policy makers, planners, and other concerned authorities to minimize, even though difficult to solve, the problems
7. Finally, the study will serve as a preliminary information/base for those who wish to conduct further and detail studies on Agro-pastoralist education in this area or in all of the country where Agro-Pastoralist is common

1.5. Delimitation of the Study

According to Seyoum and Ayalew (1999) to carry out any research work it should be important to delimit the study to a manageable size. Similarly, the spatial boundary of the study was limited to the Agro-Pastoralist areas of Metekel zone of BGRS. The study includes REB, Zone, Woreda education officers and experts, 17 primary schools, teachers, principals from the selected primary schools, community elders of Agro-Pastoralist, PTA members and KETB teams. Therefore the study was

delimited itself to the formal primary schools (1-8) excluding those of the ABE schools as they are supplementary (one strategy) and very significant in number.

Moreover, it is obvious that the challenging factors that affect the achievement of UPE are many and diverse in nature. Therefore, this study was delimited to the factors affecting the achievement of UPE, mainly on climatic, socio-economic, culture, policy, curriculum and security issues. In addition the study was also delaminated to assess some of the successes and strategies implemented in achieving the UPE by the year 2015 in the Agro-Pastoralist areas of the study. Furthermore, in order to investigate the problem deeply, the scope of the study is delimited to one of the Agro-pastoralist zone of the region, Metekel zone, and on three woredas of the zone (Mandura, Dangur, and Guba) that has considered to be low primary education enrollment compared to the rest areas of the zone and where much of its challenging factors in achieving UPE had not been studied previously.

1.6. Limitation of the Study

Among the various problems encountered, the collection of primary and secondary data at Zonal and Woreda education departments and schools records were very difficult. It was not only difficult to find the concerned persons, but also the Educational Management and Information System statistical data were not well organized and available in Woreda and zone levels. On top of this the Annual abstract obtained was only the 2006/7 which might be old to compare it with 2009. Moreover, the transportation from one school to another was not easily accessible. In addition to this there were also language barriers which raise the problem. The impact of all these short comings made additional cost of resources and time on the researcher. Had it not been possible to manage all the stated problems, the study would have not been more completed.

1.7. Definition of Key Terms

Agro-pastoralist- Segment of pastoral husbandry society who promotes opportunistic crop farming integrated to their livestock husbandry practices and

who live in semi- permanent settlements (Ayalew Shibeshi and et.al, 2002).

Basic Education- refers to learning out comes, i.e knowledge and skill acquisition and application, positive attitude formulation, internalization and exhibition of values for a variety of life (Ayalew Shibeshi and et.al. 2002)

Formal Education- Highly institutionalized chronologically graded and hierarchically structured educational system spanning lower primary school and the upper reachers of university (Coombs and Ahmed in Petros, 2008)

Non Formal Education- any organized systematic educational activities carried on outside the framework of formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population, adults, youth as well as children (Coombs and Ahmad in Petros, 2008)

Nomads- ethnic groups who travel and migrate in large or small scale clan groups in search of means of livelihood with in a community (Ezeomah, 1995)

Nomadic Education- a non-formal education provided to nomadic people within their culture context (Ezeomah, 1995)

Pastoralist- a term used interchangeably with nomads and that reflects a life style based up on maintenance of herds of animal, which depends mainly on natural vegetation for their food (Ayallew Shibeshi et al., 2002)

1.8. Description of the study Area

According to FDRE CSA report of 2007(CSA, 2008) the area covers about 50,380km^2 and the population 670,847 which consist indigenous population of five ethnic groups namely Gumuz (21.1%), Berta (25.9%), shinasha (7.59%) Mao (1.9%) and Komo (0.96%) (FDRE CSA, 2008). There are also other large ethnic groups like Amhara (22.2%), Oromo (12.8%) and others living in the region (BGRS, 2004).

Out of the total population of the region, 125, 498 were primary school age (7-14) children and out of these children 102,539 were enrolled in primary school in 2006/7. Out of the indigenous ethnic groups of the region Mao, Gumuz, Shinasha

and Komo were belong to the agro-pastoralist groups with population of 37,000 (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

1.9. Organization of the Study

This study consists of five chapters. Chapter one deals with the problem and its approach. Chapter two treats review of related literature. Chapter four is concerned with the analysis and interpretation of the study while chapter five presents summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study. Finally, list of bibliography, sample questionnaire, interview and FGD guide lines, observation check list and list of different tables are attached to the appendix of the report.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 REVIEW OF RELATED LITRATURE

This chapter is devoted to the literature concerning the study. It deals with conceptual framework of UPE, why UPE is so important, pastoral education and classification of pastoral group, strategies to realize the achievement of UPE and major challenges that hinder the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas are presented as follows.

2.1 Conceptual Framework of UPE

The concepts of UPE, as a desirable and essential goal for the political, social and economic development of the poor nations of the world, have been accepted for a very long period of time. However the way UPE has been defined has also influenced the way its status and progress has been measured and the choice of strategies adopted to pursue the goal (Bastian, 2004).

2.1.1. The Concepts of UPE

UPE, as a concept, is a chameleon, taking on expanded meanings as more is understood about the nature of the problem. It is seen, examined and explained by different people from various disciplines using different perspectives for different reasons. The UPE goals also continue to shift and change as the concept of UPE is redefined and as one set of strategies lead to new problems (Derebssa, 2006)

Furthermore, our understanding of the concepts, the perceived constraints, and strategies recommended is complicated as more and more researchers, policy analysts and commentators incorporate their own disciplinary views to bear on it (Mulugeta, 2007).

UPE, in the literal sense would also mean everyone in a population having a full primary school education. The term UPE has also been used interchangeably (and often confused) with other terms such as Basic education, schooling for All, and Education for all. However when examined closely, difficulties emerge over what is

meant by the term "Universal", "Primary" and "Basic Education" (Bastian, 2004: Derebssa, 2006).

A. Universal

As it is justified by (Anderson, 1992) UPE has a central importance and a strategy for implementing the rights of boys, girls and women, and as a whole the right of the child. So it all people have a right to education, and if its impact upon people's capabilities is intrinsically part of our notion of development, it follows that the provision of a basic level of education for all people must be made universal.

B. Primary Education

The word "Primary" denotes that this is the first level of education. The term "basic" may be taken by some to show changes in emphasis and indicate that primary education is a complete and terminal phase of schooling in itself (Derbessa, 2006).

C. Basic Education

The Jomtien conference adopted "basic education" under what was coined "the expanded vision" to include education for out of school youth and adults in literacy and other basic skills training through non-formal education (UNESCO, 1992).

2.1.2. Operational Definition of UPE

For many countries, the definition of UPE and identification of indicators for the measurement of movement towards achieving UPE has posed many problems (Bastian, 2004). A good operational definition of UPE should have certain minimum characteristics. First, it should help policy makers, planners and other stakeholders to identify the sub strategic goals to be set to move the country towards UPE. Second, the definition should give us to identify and develop indicators that will help the education system to monitor the progress towards achieving UPE. Third, it should permit the planning process to set time frames for achieving UPE (Bastian, 2004: JICA and OEB, 2006).

On top of this Bastian (2004) identifies the following key elements necessary to give operational definition to the concept of UPE:

.Minimum of number of years of schooling

.Average number of days of schooling per year

.Average number of contact hours per day

.Levels of access and coverage that should be reached

.Levels of international efficiency of the education system

.Equity gender and geographical and

.Quality of primary education

Table 2.1: Ethiopian UPE: Summary of Operational Definition

No	*Elements of the UPE Definition*	*Targets & year or time period for achieving the target*
1	Minimum grade level to be completed or numbers of years of schooling	Eight years of schooling. This is the present policy
2	Average number of days of schooling per year	Between 195 and 200 days per school year. This is the present policy practice.
3	Average numbers of hrs of teaching learning per day. (Numbers of contact hours per day)	Four and half hours per day in the present double shift system. Includes 30 minutes of break time.
4	Access: Net Intake Rate (NIR)	Minimum 80 percent to be reached latest by 2007 (2000 E.C). Thereafter, the NIR is expected to increase gradually) to reach as close to 100 percent as possible.
5	Coverage: Apparent Intake Rate (AIR)	To reach a maximum of 130 percent latest by 2006 (1999 E.C)
6	Coverage: Gross enrolment rate (1-4)	GER for the first cycle to reach a maximum of 126 percent by 2009 (2002 E.C). Thereafter, GER begins to decline.
7	Coverage: GER (5-8)	GER for the second cycle (5-8) primary school to reach 120 percent by 2014 (2002 E.C)
8	Internal Efficiency: Dropout	Dropout to be brought down to below 5 percent in all the grades, as soon as possible, latest by 2007 (2000E.C)
9	Internal Efficiency: Repetition	Repetition to be brought down to below 5 percent in all grades, as soon as possible, latest by 2006 (1999 E.C)
10	Equity: Gender equity	Gender equity in apparent intake rate at 130 percent to be reached by 2006 (1999 E.C). With the planned reductions in dropout and repetition rates, this will lead to gender equity in GER at 126 percent in 2009 (2002 E.C). Gender equity for GER in the second cycle will achieved at 119 percent in 2013 (2006 E.C) two years before the target year for achieving UPE.
11	Equity: Geographical	Regional projections to fit the national strategy need to be conducted to establish target year for bringing regional equity. Regional such as Somali and Afar with very low access and coverage, at present will find it difficult to catch up with the rest of the country
12	Quality	Minimum quality standards have been established for educational inputs. There have been employed in the projections to establish inputs and costs. However, much works need to be done to measure the quality of the learning outcomes and the minimum skills acquired by the graduates of the primary schools. Learning assessments being undertaken by the country could lead to establishing standards for learning outcomes.

Source: UPE Operational Definition Bastian, 2004 Addis Ababa

2.2. Why is UPE so Important?

Education is a corner stone of economic growth, social development and a major means of improving the well-being of individual primary education is the foundation of formal education system. It helps to reduce poverty and improve living standards through sustainable growth and investment in people. Primary education has two main purposes. It helps to produce a literate and numerate population that can deal with problems at home and work place and it serves as a foundation up on which further education is built (Bastian, 2004: World Bank, 1990). Moreover, World Bank States that:

> ***A primary education has a direct and positive effect on earning, productivity as well as international effects on child health, nutrition, and education. However, in many developing countries education systems have not been able to meet their objectives. This is because they have not been ineffective in teaching children the basic skills included in their curriculum and they have not provided all school are children with the opportunity to attend school. Consequently, primary education has endangered national efforts to build a human capital base for development*** *(World Bank, 1990:98).*

Pertinent to this, Education, and particularly primary education, is one of the most powerful instruments known for reducing poverty and inequality and for laying their basis for sustained economic growth, sound governance, and effective instruction. It is fundamental for construction of democratic societies and dynamic, globally competitive economies (Bruns and Miagat, 2003).

2.3. Pastoralism and Pastoralist Education

2.3.1. Pastoralism and classification of pastoral groups

Pastoralism, sometimes used interchangeably with the terms 'nomadism', reflects a life style based upon maintenance of herds of animals that depend mainly on natural vegetation for their food. Pastoralism is then not a pure idealized form, but rather a living culture and economy encompassing practices that might see on surface to be inherently antagonistic to the pursuit of pastoralism (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Nomads are variously defined, broadly speaking they are ethnic or socio-economic groups who constantly travel and migrate in large or small groups in search of means of livelihood with in a community or country or across international boundaries. These groups contrast with the settled or sedentary population living in villages, towns and cities, and tied to fixed locations by agriculture, employment, housing and social and agricultural factors in their living style and culture (Ayalew Shibeshi et al., 2002).

On top of this, while all members of a 'pure' nomadic pastoralist groups will be on the move, there are some groups where a substantial fraction of the groups are settled in permanent habitats and the whole nomadic groups can be classified in to three stages as Nomadic pastoralism, Agro-pastralism, and transhumant-pastoralism (Carr-Hill and pear 2005).

Nomadic pastoralist: are those groups of society that do not have a recognized place of residence and any crop production is only a supplementary activity.

Agro-pastoralist: are those who engaged in crop production and animal hasbandry in more or less equal proportions. They (Agro-pastoralists) live in semi-permanent settlements, with goats and sheep tended by women and children becoming an increasingly significant activity while the males are away in search for pasture.

Transhumance refers to movement of livestock over more or less regular routes, and pastoralists engaging in this way have a recognized and permanent home territory.

Thus, the pastoral groups in Benishangul Gumuz Region of Metekel Zone can be grouped under both Agro-pastoralist and transhumance pastoralist.

2.3.2. Pastoral Education

Education could be seen as one vehicle for bringing nomadic pastoralist and their backward and inefficient production system into the twenty-first century, which is "for transforming nomadic pastoralist in to modern livestock producers" (Anderson, 1989).

In justification of this, Ezomah stated that:

> ***It is important to recognize that, in order to survive successfully in dry lands, pastoralist require high level of individual and social specialization. They can be very confident, articulate and enter preneurial, have good negotiating and management skills, and show a strong sense of dignity and self respect. Although their lack of formal schooling is seen as a problem, they are therefore, far from being a mass of drifting unskilled, under proletariat which is called as the central paradox when discussing the issue of providing education for pastoralist*** (Ezomah cited in Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005:49).

Officials argue that they have focused on bringing the majority of children into the education system rather than just nomadic groups, which would have been much less cost effective in terms of the numbers of children reached. However, given the renamed emphasis on EFA and the requirement to prepare plans for achieving that objective, the problem of providing education for nomadic groups, among other disadvantaged groups, is becoming more visible (Ayalew Shibeshi et.al, 2002).

2.3.3. Pastoral Groups in Ethiopia

Pastoralists in Ethiopia are mainly found in north eastern, eastern, southern, south eastern and extreme south western part of the country. All most all are found in marginal border areas and they are inhabit the low land part of the country (Ayalew Shibeshi et.at, 2002).

About 60-65 percent of the Ethiopian territory and 10 percent of its population are estimated to live under the pastoral production system and there are about 8 million pastoralist who live in Somali, Afar, Oromia, Benishangul Gumuz, Gambella and SNNP region of the country as indicated by table 2.2:

Table 2.2: Pastoral Group, Location and Estimated population in Ethiopia

Region	*Pastoralist Groups*	*Population (in 1000s)*
Afar	Afar, Somali, Argoba, Oromo	11,000
Oromia (Borena zone)	Oromo, Somali	2,577
Somali	Somali	3,690
SNNP and Gambella	More than 15 pastoralist group	550
Benishangul Gumuz	Komo, Shinasha, Gumuz, Benishangul (Berta).	37
Estimated total		**7,954**

Source: Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005

Due to the location where they are found, as more live in border and lowlands, they previously were politically marginalized society and they lacked stated economic and social concern, and hence they were remained backward (Hogg in pertros, 2008).

Moreover, it is true that these days the conductive conditions created for the development in pastoral areas. However, the development and expansion of education in the pastoralist areas need additional effort and still remains back compared to what has been achieved at country level. The present situation vividly illustrates that tackling the discrepancies of education in the pastoralist regions demands the intensive effort of all stake holders and employment of various strategies appropriate to the way of life of pastoralist (UNESCO, 1990).

2.4. Major challenges affecting universalization of primary education in Agro-Pastoralist groups

Many attempts have been made to establish education service to meet the learning needs of nomadic pastoralist but they have, on the whole failed. This largely appears to be due to the failure of educational provision to respond appropriately to the nomadic way of life, to the nomads' traditional culture and their need to retain flexibility in dealing with changing and possibly adverse circumstances, such as droughts, above all other needs (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

The most challenging factors which are resources constraints, shortage of school etc are obvious and common reason for a country. In both cases, the solution to the problem would undoubtedly be getting money and building more and more schools.

But, there are other most prominent bottlenecks that hinder the achievement of UPE of the agro-pastoralist children to education which are out-of-school related (such as socio-economic, socio-cultural child labor etc) and few are school related (such as relevance of curriculum, language of instruction etc.) in the case of the pastoral and agro-pastoral areas.

2.4.1. Out-of-School Challenges

2.4.1.1. Socio-Economic Challenges

A study by Bishop cited in Petros (2008), revealed that the reason for students at rural areas dropout from primary schooling is mainly the socio-economic conditions of the people, i.e. their poverty. Example, inability to pay school related expenditures, withdrawal of older children to herd cattle, sickness due to malnutrition and lack of medical care and for girls withdrawal from school to act as child nurses to the younger children while mothers are engaged in the family duties are all because of the poverty factor.

It is also believed that a major obstacle to children's basic education in Ethiopia is widespread poverty particularly at the household level. About 20 million rural household and 4 million urban households are estimated to live in absolute poverty. The relevance of poverty factors lies in the fact that, even when there are schools it inhibits school enrolment and attendance due to high cost it in cures (UNESCO, 1990).

2.4.1.2. Child Labor

In many developing countries, child labor is a major obstacle both to providing universal access to schooling and to reduce school wastage.

The International labor organization (ILO) estimates that 250 million children between the age of 5 and 14 are foiling in the work force of developing countries.

About half of these children work full-time, while the rest combine work with schooling or other non-economic activities (World Bank, 1998).

Moreover, UNICEF describes as:

> ***Clearly the circumstances of children engaged in hazardous, disabling and exploitative labor, paid or unpaid, constitute a major obstacle to children's participation in education. On the other hand, the implementation of UPE is a critical strategy for combating child labor. An approach that ensures children's right to education help to enforce child labor laws, providing incentives to poor families to educate their children, and helps charge attitudes and social norms that tolerate exploitation of children would help to achieve the goals of UPE and improve children well being*** (UNICEF, 1998:34).

Child labor and absenteeism from the school feed on each other. Thus measures to reduce it or to improve the coverage and quality of schooling tend to produce benefits in both areas. Poverty is generally seen as the most compelling reasons for child to work, but researchers have found that poverty needs to cause child labor (UNESCO, 1998).

Therefore, children of poor families, those who need every family member to work if they are to survive, frequently must forfeit education. As many countries face economic decline, the poorest families experience the greatest pressures, and when their income are falling, families often withdraw their children from school. Even when schooling is free, families must pay for clothes, transport and school supplies. These expenses, added to the loss of children's labor contributions to the household while they are in school, are costs poor families can ill afford (Anderson, 1989).

2.4.1.3. Socio-Cultural Challenges

Pastoralists have their own customs, norms and traditions and the attitude of parents towards education have its own effect on educational provisions and participation. Moreover, pastoralists are considered as change resistant toward modern schooling, which is rooted in their fear of cultural alienation and distortions of traditional values (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Pertinent to this, cultural constraints that negatively affect the education of children, especially girls, are numerous and commonly practiced. These include early marriage, polygamy, abduction and lack of physical safety less regarded for female education, abrupt mobility of nomadic parents, less value of girls' education, household labor demands by parents, lack of role models, religion and lack of access to a local secondary education (UNICEF, 2003).

Another study by World Bank cited in Augustine also revealed that a particular common reason for girls not attending or dropping out of school is early marriage. The study describes that although early marriage is decreasing and the legal age for marriage was raised to 18 years in the criminal code revised in 2005, 62 percent of women at age 20-49 were married by the age 18 and 75 percent by the age 20-23 (World Bank in Augustine et.al, 2007).

Marriage before the age 18 is, however, a reality for many young girls. In many parts of the world parents encourage the marriage of their daughter while they are still children in hopes that the marriage will benefit them both financially and socially also relieving financial burdens on the family (Hyde et.al, 2005).

In actuality, child marriage is a violation of human rights compromising the development of girls and often resulting in early pregnancy and social isolation, with little education and poor vocational training reinforcing the gendered nature of poverty (UNICEF, 2005).

In the addition to this, abduction which takes several forms, at its most grievous is forcible marriage through rape to avoid the payment of a bride price. It may also take the form of elopement, i.e. when the couple feels that the girl's parents may not agree to 'normal' marriage or may be at the connivance of the parents, that is to say, whenever the girl herself is unwilling to be married which are other major concern for girls and their families that affect attendance to the school (Hyde, k. et.al, 2005).

2.4.1.4. Socio-Climatic Challenge

Disease, war, cultural assumptions, lack of infrastructure and chronic poverty all pay a part in keeping children from school. With this regard, a child may struggle

through prolonged absences due to malaria or intestinal worms. Parents are sometimes uncomfortable sending girls to class. Often times, there is no clean water source or suitable latrine at the school. Even when a family does manage to enrol a child in school, attendance with such climate can be intermittent (WFP, 2005).

2.4.1.5. Security Issues

Education is a key to protection when it is of good quality, but falls short when the learning environment itself fails to provide the necessary protection against violence and abuse of children. This involves making schools secure not only from without but also from within. With this regard, pastoralists live in remote areas often close to insecure international boarders and conflict prone regions. Having to walk long distance in order to go to school for children: especially girls may present serious risk of attack (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Therefore, parents will not send their children to places that they believe are unsafe. One reason parent's want their child in schools close to home is because of safety parents can keep an eye on their children when they remain in the village or neighbourhood. Everywhere, parents care about who teaches their children. If the teacher is not known and trusted, the school is not also considered safe (Anderson, 1989).

2.4.1.6. Parents Education

Illiterate parents have limited understanding of the importance of education and the urgency to send their school age children for study. They are not only hesitant to send their children to school, but less inclined to provide study time, stationary clothing etc (UNICEF, 2003).

On top of this, the education level of child's parent is often related to the child's own participation in schooling. The educational attainment of the parents and the household head, measured by the highest level of school attended, has a substantial effect on the out-of-school status of children. Accordingly, if the fathers of household had formal education, children were more likely to be in school. Most of out of

school children are the ones who have illiterate parents. Parents who have attended school are more likely to send their children to school (Mulugeta, 2007).

Moreover, mothers also are reported to resist the schooling of their daughters, not because they need them for labor in domestic production, but also because they are unaware about the benefit of sending their daughters to school (Hyde, k et.al, 2005).

2.4.1.7. Distance to School

In most countries where public transportation system is not highly developed and is not accessible to general public in all parts of the country, especially in rural areas, one of the constraints in increasing or decreasing access to schooling is the distance between the school and community. This is especially true for the beginning grades where children are not matured for walk a long distance (Derebssa, 2006).

In the context of Ethiopia, there are woredas with schools whose average catchment area is more than 10km. This is certainly unacceptable: Imagine a 7 years old walking 10km in the morning and 10km in the afternoon to and from school. It is recommended that the maximum distance a primary school child should be permitted to travel to school as 3km (JICA and OEB, 2006).

Experience has shown that parents decisions about whether or not send their children to school are very much influenced by the proximity of schools. In this regard Anderson describes that, the greater the distance between a child's home and a school, the less likely is that the parents will send the child. Even if children start to school, distance often makes them decide to dropout because it "takes too long" or is "too much trouble" to get there (Anderson, 1992).

2.4.2. School Related Challenges

With this regard, the appropriateness of the curriculum, delivery method, time tabling and relevance must be considered. In most cases, balances will need to be struck between the 'integrative' and the 'distinctive' qualities of any programme for nomads. This applies not only to the content of the course materials but also to the delivery and support systems. It also applies to the language(s) used in course (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

2.4.2.1. Curriculum and Policy Aspect

Lack of curriculum relevance has become one of the major explanations for pastoralists' low interest in education and for the high dropout rates from schools in pastoral areas (and also, of course, for other disadvantaged groups). The basic argument made by researchers is that school curriculum are developed by sedentary people for sedentary people (or even by urban dwellers for urban dwellers) and are therefore largely irrelevant to nomads' experiences and concerns (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Moreover, supportive policies in the social, cultural and economic spheres are required in order to realize the full provision and utilization of basic education for individual and society improvement. Attaining basic education for all depends on political will and commitment manifested in appropriate fiscal measures, educational policy reforms and institutional strengthening (WCEFA, 1990).

2.4.2.2. Language Aspect

The issue of using local languages has a relatively long history. On the whole, the international consensus now is that one should start the educational process in the local-language assuming one can find the teachers, and only introduce the national or international language when the children are literate in their own. There is also an argument that local languages are part of the culture and not survive independently from the maintenance of the resources and modes of production on which the culture depends (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Moreover, there was also a general argument that teaching in the mother tongue is important to ensure quality of education, especially at the earlier stages of education. Moreover, school performance of children is better when they are taught in the language that is most used at local level and instruction in the mother tongue is the best way of ensuring that pupil's grasp the meaning perfectly because only when their thoughts are activated through their mother tongue, they can interact well with the subject taught (Boulanger and Kolawole Cited in Derbessa, 2006).

2.4.2.3. Time Schedule

A number of countries have found that school attendance can be improved and wastage reduced by organizing school calendars so that pupils in rural areas, especially the pastoral groups, are expected to attend school during planting and harvest seasons when their families need their labor. Similarly, the hours of the school day can be set to take account of the fact that some pupils, especially girls, must perform household chores (UNESCO, 1998).

Moreover, when the schedule of school conflicts with other essential activities, children do not attend, or because they miss too many lessons, and eventually dropout. If the jobs that a child must do for family survival have to be done during the same house that school is in sessions, then the indirect costs of school are too high for a family to afford (Anderson, 1992).

On top of this, as a strategy, some countries in sub-Saharan Africa have adopted an evening or flexible school timetable, instead of boarding school, which helps them trying to minimize: the dropout of children through labor commitments or other aspects of students' life conditions, the economy and the consequence of children's education becoming in appealing to their families (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

2.4.2.4. Lack of Educated Female Role Mode

A female teacher of the ethnic group which acts as a role model can be a means to increase the enrolment of the same ethnic females. Therefore, one good school level practice strategy that has been promoted is the increased use of female teachers to act as a role model for girls making the school environments more girl-friendly and opening labor market opportunities of the girls (UNICEF, 2002).

2.5. Some Strategies to Achieve UPE in Agro-pastoralist Areas of Ethiopia

To reach, and teach, the children not served by existing education system, new approaches to education are needed. Programmes tried in the past have not been able to reach those children and therefore, what is needed to day are educational responses that are tailored to the special requirements of the as-yet-unreached and

to the growing numbers of new un served children new strategies has to be designed (Anderson, 1992).

Moreover, once government commitment has been established, there could be a debate about the strategies that would be most effective in increasing and sustaining pastoral participation. In particular given the constraints on the children of nomadic pastoralist being able to attend fixed conventional schooling, it is natural to think of the potential for alternative forms of provision, such as boarding schools, Mobile schools, School feeding programmes, evening shifts or simply of very different calendar for provision (Ezomah in Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

2.5.1 Boarding schools

Boarding schools are currently discussed in some countries (e.g. Tibet, Kenya) as the solution to the high rate of drop-out among their very spare population. However, there are two problems arise in the establishment of boarding schools. First, parents are reluctant to send their children to boarding schools which and to whom they don't know, moreover, children might not like to be separated from their family for a long time. Second, the construction and maintenance of boarding school is costy as it provides foods and lodging on the top of instructional costs (UNESCO, 1990).

In spite of such shortcomings, boarding schools is an essential strategy to deliver education for the children of pastoralists who are in constant movement and sparsely populated remote areas (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

2.5.2. Mobile Schools

Mobile schools have generally used specially constructed tents or temporary shades or under trees that are staffed by teacher who move with the nomads and their mobile schools during migration (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005)

On top of this, mobile school also needs teachers who have commitment and trained, and getting ready with mobile tents and small blackboards that don't cost much. Teachers from pastoral community who have experienced the life before, who knows the culture of nomads are better to be recruited and trained for this purpose to overcome the obstacles of the mobile school (Zien, 2004).

2.5.3. School Feeding Program

For hunger, and particularly for poor children, going to school means the prospects of hope, opportunity and independence. Many are never given this chance. Hunger and poverty condemn millions of children to illiteracy, limiting their future options (WFP, 2005).

Pertinent to this, school meals offer hope. A school feeding programmes gives poor families an incentive to enrol their children in school. It provides children with the nutrition and energy they need to focus and concentrate in class (Ibid)

School feeding programmes can contribute to increase access, as its principal purpose is to boost enrolment of pupils in primary and pre-primary schooling, of schools in rural areas. However, substantial problems may be raised to be addressed at secondary level, being secondary school are placed only in urban areas (MOE, 2006).

2.5.4. Non-Formal Approach and ABE Centers

There is frequently mistrust of education among nomads with nomadic parents and elders fearing that education will spoil their children and lead them away from their traditional values and life style. In this respect, non-formal and distance education approaches can go some way to avoiding the feared influence of attending a full-time day school or a boarding institution, by taking the education to the children without requiring that they leave their community or abandon their daily duties, such as herding and the like (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Moreover, non-formal approach especially ABE programme, can in principle offer opportunities for nomadic children to access education while on the move, as they do not require nomads in one place or attend a rigid institutional programme such as a boarding school. If they achieve this flexibility, they might help to support the preservation of the learners nomadic life style and culture including migration, herding and clan-based cultural intercourse (UNESCO, 1990).

2.6. Major Opportunities in achieving UPE in Ethiopia

The major opportunities in achieving UPE in the case of Ethiopia include political commitment, decentralization and public demand for education (Mulugeta, 2007).

2.6.1. Strong Political Commitment

The policy, the strategy and the ESDP have made achieving a good quality UPE as their goals and identified primary education as their first priority. From this it is obvious that UPE has a political backing from the government of Ethiopia expressed in terms of policies, strategies and programmes. Political support of the government is key factor for a successful implementation of the programme (Tesfaye, 2003).

Moreover, strong political commitment to universalize primary education is a central for its achievement in any country. With this regard, World Bank in Mulugeta stated that it is this commitment that puts education on a country's political agenda, develops sound policies in the sector, promotes efficient resource utilization, pushes through difficult and sometimes contentious policies, and builds the institutional capacity necessary for effective programme implementation. With this commitment, considerable progress can be dame towards universal education, even in poorest countries (World Bank cited in Mulugeta, 2007)

2.6.2. Practice of Decentralization

With this regards, a study by Hyde stated that decentralization process has had a lot of impact on the education system. Many responsibilities have been shifted to the region and Woreda level. Moreover, technical responsibilities (for example, Curriculum development, or setting of examination) that were once operated from the center have been developed to the regions (Hyde et.al, 2005).

Generally, decentralization implies fundamental change in the way decisions are made and resources allocated. In its most practical sense, decentralization implies that, funds are distributed directly to local schools or, at the very least, school exercise authority over key resources. With decentralization, the school remains accountable for its use of public funds and must continue to meet curricular standards and conform to general educational regulation (Derbessa, 2006).

2.6.3 Public Demand

Currently the public demand for education has an increasing trend. Parent's level of consciousness has generated an over whelming increase in demand of education.

With this regard, demand for education has reached up to the level of out stripping the supply side. This mismatch between the demand and supply has resulted in large class size, classrooms under shades and overcrowded schools which in turn resulted in dropout and repetition with poor quality of education. Moreover, the increased in the contribution of the local community for school construction and other costs confirms the increased in demand of education, especially primary education (Mulugeta, 2007).

2.7. Major Success and achievements in realizing UPE in Ethiopia

2.7.1. Access at all level of Education Improved (the Good)

Ethiopia has made tremendous progress in all aspects of educational development's access, equity and efficiency. Between 1992/1993 and 2005/2006, primary school enrolment ratio (GER) increased from 19.7 percent to nearly 91.3 percent. The primary school NER between 1995/96 and 2005/2006, increased from 21.6 percent to 77.5 percent. On top of this, Ethiopia has devoted massive resources to increase the availability of schools. Given the phenomenal growth in the sector, Ethiopia may achieve its MDG of providing universal access to education (Augustine et.al, 2007).

2.7.1.1. Gross and Net enrolment Ratios

There has been dramatic growth in enrolments throughout the education system in recent years. Aggregate enrolments in grades 1-12 rose at a steady place of about 9 percent a year between 1994/95 and 2003/4 and in grades 1-4 it grew even faster at an average of 15 percent (MOE, 2002).

Moreover, GER for complete primary level (1-8) is increased every year. In 2003/4, the primary school age population of Ethiopia was estimated to be 13,950,688 among which 9,542,638 children were enrolled in both programme (regular and evening) of primary school (Mulugeta, 2007).

CHAPTER THREE

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This chapter deals with the analysis and interpretation of data gathered from the sample trainers, trainees, vocational counselors (apprenticeship coordinators), deans and supervisors (owners) in practice centers. Questionnaires, interviews and document analysis were the data collection tools used in this study. After the data were collected, they were checked for completeness and were classified, tabulated and analyzed to give appropriate treatment for the basic questions raised in chapter one.

Out of the 322 questionnaires distributed to trainees, 273 (84.78%) were filled and returned. From 108 questionnaires distributed to trainers, 84 (77.78%) were filled and returned. As the returned questionnaires were adequate for the purpose of this study, the numerical analysis therefore was based on these figures. Thus, interpretation and analysis of data obtained from the sample respondents are presented following each Table.

3.1 Background of Respondents

Table I: Characteristics of Apprentices Respondents

N0.	Colleges	Sex				Age in Years						
1	TTC		M	F	Total	16	17	18	19	20	>20	Total
		N0.	73	24	97	-	-	14	25	28	30	97
		%	75.26	24.74	100	-	-	14.43	25.77	28.87	30.93	100
2	HSC	N0.	41	46	87	-	1	25	14	11	36	87
		%	47.13	52.87	100	-	1.15	28.74	16.09	12.64	41.38	100
3	TVET	N0.	61	28	89	2	4	18	25	22	18	89
		%	68.54	31.46	100	2.25	4.49	20.22	28.09	24.72	20.22	100
Grand Total		N0.	175	98	273	2	5	57	64	61	84	273
		%	64.10	35.90	100	0.73	1.83	20.88	23.44	22.34	30.77	100

Regarding to sex distribution, 175 (64.10%) respondents in the sample were males and 98 (39.90%) were females. This figure was consistent with the data released by the respective colleges, where the enrollment rate of females was 31.88% in TTC, 48.57% in HSC and

39.55% in TVET (see appendix 2). Hence, it is possible to say gender representation in the study was more or less proportional to the rate of enrollment and the data provided by the sample trainees reflect ideas and opinions of both male and female trainees.

It is revealed that female enrollment in Health Science College was greater than that of College of Teachers' Education, and Technical and Vocational Education and Training College.

When the age distribution of trainees is observed, only 7 (2.56%) respondents were below 18 years and 266 (97.44%) were 18 years and above. This showed that majority of trainees were capable physically and mentally to undertake practical training at the work place.

Table II: Characteristics of Trainers

N0	Items		Respondents						Total		Df	Cal x^2	Tab x^2
			TTC		HSC		TVET						
			N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%			
1	Sex	Male	31	93.94	11	68.75	31	88.57	73	86.90			
		Female	2	6.06	5	31.25	4	11.43	11	13.10			
		Total	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	2	6.13	5.99
2	Educational Background	MA/M SC	7	21.21	-	-	-	-	7	0.803			
		BA/B SC	26	78.79	11	68.75	11	31.43	48	57.14			
		Diploma	-	-	5	31.25	24	68.57	29	34.52			
		Total	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	4	41.21	9.49
3	Service years	0 - 5	20	60.61	10	62.50	12	34.29	42	50.00			
		6 - 10	1	3.03	4	25.00	3	8.57	8	9.52			
		11-15	2	6.06	-	-	4	11.43	6	7.14			
		>15	10	30.30	2	12.50	16	45.71	28	33.33			
		Total	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	6	14.38	12.59

α=0.05 significance level

The study revealed that female participation, as a trainer, was very low in both colleges (see Table II). Relatively more female trainers (31.25%) were available in HSC than TTC (6.06%) and TVET (11.43%). Accordingly, the critical value 6.13 is greater than the table value 5.99 indicated that for 2 degree of freedom at a 0.05 level of significance, gender distribution of trainers has statistically significant differences among the three colleges.

Regarding the qualification of respondents, 21.21% TTC teachers were 2nd degree and 78.79% were bachelor degree graduates. However, 11 (68.75%) of HSC and 11 (31.43%)

of TVET teachers were degree graduates. Although university degree was the minimum requirement to undertake activities directly pertaining to the training offered at the college level, 31.25% of HSC and 68.57% of TVET teachers were diploma graduates. This shows that staff compositions of TVET and HSC were under the minimum requirement set by the MoE, which will bring quality problems on the overall training system within the respective colleges. Comparatively, staff composition of TTC was better than the other two colleges. Hence, the chi-square value 41.21 is greater than the table value 9.49 indicating high significant difference in educational status of trainers for 4 degree of freedom at 95% confidence level. From the interview held with college vice deans of TVET, it was further discovered that most trainers are attending in-service training to upgrade their qualification.

Regarding service years of teachers, the majority, 20 (60.61%) of TTC ,10 (62.50%) of HSC and 12 (34.29%) of TVET teachers were below 6 years while 39.39% of TTC, 62.64% of TVET and 37.5% of HSC teachers have more than 5 years work experience(see Table II). Hence, from the service profile it can be said that TVET College comprised of more experienced teachers than the other two colleges and the majority of teachers' service experience lies below six years. A chi-square value 14.38 is greater than the table value 12.59 indicates the existence of work experience difference among the study groups for 6 degree of freedom at 95% confidence level. During the interview held with deans of the respective colleges, it was discovered that the employing structure in the colleges made experienced trainers not to apply in the colleges. That means, since colleges employ trainers with a salary of fresh graduate, experienced teachers are not voluntary to be employed with very small amount of payment in these colleges.

Therefore, this finding indicated that HSC and TVET College are operating the training below the required standards of qualification whereas TTC and HSC trainers work experience was very low compared to TVET service experience. TVET trainers are well experienced in spite of their qualification below the minimum standard set by MoE. Even if majority of trainers in TTC were first-degree graduates, 21.21% were second-degree graduates. During the interview held with dean of TTC, it was discovered that second-degree graduate trainers were very small because they displaced to Arba Minch University.

3.2 Selection, Arrangement and Placement of Trainees on Apprenticeship Centers

As it is already indicated in the literature of this thesis, before apprentices are assigned to practice, appropriate apprenticeship centers have to be selected. On basis of this, the majority of respondents, 80 (82.47%) of TTC, 71 (81.61%) of HSC and 82 (92.13%) of TVET trainees revealed the existence of criteria by which apprenticeship offering organizations were chosen. Similarly, 31 (93.94%) of TTC, 14 (87.50%) of HSC and 28 (80.00%) of TVET trainers confirmed the existence of criteria via which apprenticeship offering organizations were chosen. Both trainees and trainers of TTC and HSC respondents believed that availability of supervisors and occupations were widely used criterion to select apprenticeship centers in their colleges. TVET respondents asserted that interest of organizations was more dominantly considered to select apprenticeship centers. Availability of supervisors and occupations was chosen as a second criterion to select apprenticeship centers in TVET. However, in actual case, availability of supervisors and occupations are the most important factors in the selection of apprenticeship centers. With this respect, TVET College has given less attention to select apprenticeship centers. A chi-square test indicated that for 8 degree of freedom at 0.05 confidence level, the Table value 5.99 was greater than the calculated value .973 implying that there was no statistically significant difference in perception among the three trainees group in selection criteria of apprenticeship centers.

Table III: Criteria for Selection of Apprenticing Organizations

NO	Items	TRAINEES									TRAINERS									DF	Tab x^2
		TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		Cal x^2	TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		Cal x^2		
		NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%		NO	%	NO	%	NO	%	NO	%			
1	Are their criteria for selection of apprenticeship centers																				
	Yes	80	82.47	71	81.61	82	92.13	233	85.35		31	93.94	14	87.50	28	80.00	73	86.90			
	NO.	17	17.53	16	18.39	7	7.87	40	14.65		2	6.06	2	12.50	7	20.00	11	13.10			
	Total	97	100	87	100	89	100	273	100	.973	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	2.80	2	5.99
2*	If you say yes for number 1, what are the criteria																				
	Number of employees in the organization	28	20.74	21	20.79	14	11.38	63	17.31		7	12.96	12	31.59	5	13.51	24	16.11			
	Interest of organizations	40	29.63	25	24.75	63	51.22	128	35.16		11	20.37	8	21.05	27	47.37	46	30.87			
	Availability of supervisors and occupations	53	39.26	47	46.53	25	20.33	125	34.34		19	35.19	14	36.84	25	43.86	58	38.93			
	Type of ownership (government or NGO)	4	10.37	4	3..96	16	13.01	34	9.34		13	20.07	4	10.53	-	-	17	11.41			
	Others	-	-	4	3..96	5	4.07	9	2.47		4	7.41	-	-	-	-	4	2.68			
	Total	135	100	101	100	128	100	364	100	39.56	54	100	38	100	57	100	149	100	39.77	8	15.51
3*	Criteria used to assign trainees to the practices centers																				
	Field of study	88	63.77	31	32.29	80	63.49	199	55.28		21	52.50	16	34.78	24	44.44	61	43.57			
	Distance from resident	4	2.9	25	26.04	-	-	29	8.06		2	5.00	8	17.39	11	20.37	21	15.00			
	Apprentice interest	9	6.52	14	14.58	12	9.52	35	9.72		4	10.00	6	13.04	14	25.93	24	17.14			
	On lottery basis	37	26.81	22	22.92	31	24.6	90	25.00		11	27.50	4	8.70	5	9.26	20	14.29			
	Others	-	-	4	4.17	3	2.38	7	1.94		2	5.00	12	26.09	-	--	14	10.00			
	Total	138	100	96	100	126	100	360	100	75.22	40	100	46	100	54	100	140	100	36.25	8	15.51

* Multiple Responses

α=0.05 significance level

Once apprenticeship centers were chosen, the remaining task was to distribute trainees in the respective centers. A study of Masresha (2004) in Oromia Region showed that the mechanism used in distributing trainees to apprenticeship centers was not formal and clear to apprentice. Here trainees were asked to indicate the mechanisms used to distribute apprentice to apprenticeship centers. Accordingly, 88 (63.77%) in TTC, 32 (32.29%) in HSC and 80 (63.49%) in TVET trainee respondents believed that field of study was the major criteria used to dispatch trainees to the respective practice centers. HSC used distance from resident as a second major criterion in assigning trainees to the selected organizations. Apprentice interest was considered with minimal percent in all the three colleges as a mechanism to dispatch apprentice to the training centers. The calculated value 39.56 is greater than the table value 15.51 indicating statistically significant difference among trainees for 8 degree of freedom at 0.05 levels of significance.

Regarding the mechanisms used to send apprentice to apprenticeship centers, 21 (52.50%) in TTC, 16 (34.78%) in HSC and 24 (44.44%) in TVET respondents believed that field of study was the major criteria used to dispatch trainees to the respective practice centers. As indicated in the Table, the calculated value 75.22 is much greater than the table value 15.51. Thus, there was statistically significant difference among trainees for 8 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of confidence. Similarly, the chi-square value 36.25 of trainers is greater than the table value 15.51 indicating the existence of differences among trainers for 8 degree of freedom at the 95% confidence level. Hence, this finding indicated that the three colleges set criteria to select apprenticeship centers and assign trainees to the practice centers.

Table IV: Assigning Trainees to Practices Centers

NO	Items	TRAINEES									TRAINERS									DF	Tab x^2
		TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		Cal x^2	TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		Cal x2		
		N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%		N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%			
1*	Who is authorized to assign trainees to apprenticeship centers?																				
	Vocational counselor	17	11.33	17	14.78	76	71.03	110	29.57		-	-	-	-	35	64.81	35	27.34			
	Trainers	48	32.00	42	36.52	10	9.35	100	26.88		14	29.17	8	30.77	1	1.85	23	17.97			
	Organizations request	14	9.33	11	9.57	5	4.67	30	8.06		5	10.42	4	15.38	18	33.33	27	21.09			
	Trainees personal contact	1	0.67	7	6.09	9	8.41	17	4.57		5	10.42	-	-	-	-	5	3.91			
	Colleges management	70	46.67	38	33.04	7	6.54	115	30.91		24	50.00	14	53.85	-	-	38	29.69			
	Total	150	100	115	100	107	100	372	100	133.60	48	100	26	100	54	100	128	100	102.17	8	15.51
2*	Who determine the number of trainees sent to the selected organizations																				
	Each organization	4	3.23	15	14.56	15	13.27	34	10.00		1	2.32	-	-	18	38.3	19	16.67			
	Training institutions	54	43.55	28	27.18	45	39.82	127	37.35		24	55.81	10	41.67	2	4.26	36	31.59			
	Advisory committee	12	9.68	5	4.85	2	1.77	19	5.59		1	2.32	--	-	-	-	1	0.88			
	Agreement between colleges and organizations	53	42.74	54	52.43	50	44.25	157	46.18		-	-	-	-	2	4.26	2	1.75			
	No formal procedure	1	0.81	1	.97	1	.88	3	0.88		17	39.53	14	58.33	25	53.19	56	49.12			
	Total	124	100	103	100	113	100	340	100	21.40	43	100	24	100	47	100	114	100	47.24	8	15.51

* Multiple Responses

α=0.05 confidence level

Trainees were asked to indicate an authority in charge of assigning them to the selected organizations. For that, 48 (32.00%) of TTC and 42 (36.52%) HSC trainees believed that trainers were authorized to assign trainees to practice centers. Trainers' involvement in assigning trainees to practice was higher in TTC and less in TVET College. On the other hand, 76 (71.03%) of TVET respondents replied that the vocational counselor was authorized to assign trainees to apprenticeship centers. The involvement of college management was very high in TTC (46.67%) and very low in TVET (6.54%) compared to HSC (33.04%).

On the other hand, 24 (50.00%) of TTC and 14 (53.85%) HSC trainers believed that college management was authorized to assign trainees to practice centers while 34 (64.81%) of TVET respondents replied that the vocational counselor was authorized for assigning trainees to apprenticeship centers.

One of the problems of conducting apprenticeship training in African countries is lack of industrial fabric and trained supervisors (Gasskov, 2000). Particularly, in Ethiopia, the number of trainees assigned to an organization was not proportional to the availability of human and material facilities (Masresha, 2004). He added that lack of coordination between training institution and apprenticeship centers was the main reason that hinders the implementation of apprenticeship training. With this regard, 53 (70.67%) of TTC, 54 (52.43%) of HSC and 50 (44.25%) of TVET trainees stated that the number of trainees sent to an apprenticeship center was determined by agreement between colleges and apprenticeship centers. On the contrary, 28 (27.18%) of HSC and 45 (39.82%) of TVET trainees specified that the number of trainees assigned at a particular center was determined by training colleges only.

An interview was held with some selected heads of apprenticeship offering organizations how the number of trainees sent to their organization match with the facilities in their organization. Accordingly, heads of the schools selected for practice centers confirmed that the number of trainees sent to practice was proportional to the school facilities up on the agreement made between the two parties. However, trainees sent to Health Centers

(Hospitals) were not proportional to the available human and material facilities. Even in one of the practice centers (Merab Abaya Health Center), as the head of the Health Center described, the number of trainees sent was twice the number of employees. Head Department Clinical Nurse and apprenticeship coordinator of Arba Minch Health Science College agree with the unbalance distribution of apprentice to the apprenticeship centers. The reason behind this fact as he descried was the availability of dormitories inside the Health Center that forced them to send more apprentice there. Such mismatch enforced the Health Center to assign trainees during the night shift, which has its own limitations. Health Science trainees were attending the practical training in well organized government Hospitals and Health Centers only. However, they are expected to go to the rural Health Extension Centers, privately owned clinics and pharmacies after completion the course. With this regard, trainees may lack confidence and experience to work in rural clinics, Extension Health Centers, privately owned clinics and pharmacies.

On the other hand, the number of TVET trainees assigned to an organization differs from occupation to occupation. Since majority of trainees came from rural areas and neighboring zones, some of them went back for practice to their districts based on the availabilities of occupations and hence there was no saturation in almost all apprenticeship centers except in some field such as Auto Mechanics, General Mechanics and Information and Communication Technology. The number of trainees in Auto Mechanics, General Mechanics and Information and Communication Technology was not proportional to human and material facilities of apprenticeship centers because apprenticing organizations in these fields are concentrated in Arba Minch. A chi-square was calculated to detect the perceptual difference on determination of size of trainees. Accordingly, for 8 degree of freedom at 0.05 levels of significance, the calculated value 21.40 was greater than the Table value 15.51 implying that there was statistically significant difference among the three study groups.

Similarly, 24 (55.81%) TTC of trainers asserted that the number of trainees sent to an apprenticeship centers were determined by training institutions whereas 14 (58.33%) of HSC and 25 (53.19%) of TVET trainers claimed that there was no formal procedure used to

determine the number of trainees assigned to the apprenticeship centers. A chi-square was calculated to detect the perceptual difference on determination of number of trainees. Accordingly, for 8 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of confidence, the calculated value 47.24 was greater than the Table value 15.51 implying that there was statistically significant difference among trainers how the number of trainees assigned to the apprenticeship centers was determined.

On the other hand, disagreement was observed between trainers and trainees regarding the determination of trainees' assignment to practices centers (see Table IV). This variation may be due to lack of transparency of management system in the colleges. Hence, this finding indicated that the criterion that determines the number of trainees assigned at a particular practice centers were not clearly understood by both trainees and trainers.

Table V: Adequacy and Appropriateness of Apprenticeship Period

No	Items	TRAINEES									TRAINERS									DF	Tab x^2
		TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		Cal x^2	TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		Cal x^2		
		N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%		N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%			
1*	Assignment of apprenticeship training periods																				
	During summer vacation	-	-	56	56.57	79	85.87	135	45.92		-	-	16	55.17	35	100	51	50.50			
	Shifting system	21	20.39	13	13.13	2	2.17	36	12.24		11	29.73	6	20.69	-	-	17	16.83			
	For specified period	79	76.70	21	21.21	11	11.99	11	37.76		26	70.27	3	10.34	-	-	29	28.71			
	Others	3	2.91	9	9.09	-	-	12	4.08		-	-	4	13.79	-	-	4	3.96			
	Total	103	100	99	100	92	100	294	100		37	100	29	100	35	00.00	101	100			
2*	Convenient of assigned period																				
	Yes	42	43.3	55	63.22	55	61.8	152	55.68		31	93.94	-	-	28	80.00	59	70.24			
	N0.	55	56.7	32	36.78	34	38.2	121	44.32		2	6.06	16	100	7	20.00	25	29.76			
	Total	97	100	87	100	89	100	273	100	8.69	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	48.23	2	5.99
3*	Preferred apprenticeship period																				
	At the beginning of each academic year	20	34.48	6	14.63	5	12.50	31	22.30		-	-	4	16.00	3	42.88	7	20.59			
	during semester break	23	22.41	6	14.63	5	12.50	23	16.55		-	-	5	20.00	-	-	5	14.71			
	At the end of each academic year	15	25.86	24	58.54	22	55.00	61	43.88		-	-	2	8.00	-	-	2	5.88			
	At the end of the program	10	17.24	5	12.20	8	19.51	23	16.55		2	100	14	56.00	4	57.14	20	58.82			
	Total	58	100	41	100	40	100	139	1000		2	100	25	100	7	100	34	100			

*multiple Response α=0.05 significant level

To make apprenticeship more effective, it is recommended that appropriate apprenticeship period for both parties has to be determined first. With this regard, 56 (56. 57%) of HSC and 79 (85. 87%) of TVET trainee respondents replied that their apprenticeship period was during summer vacation. On the other hand, 79 (76.70%) of TTC trainees practice period was for a fixed period within the semester. Few respondents in both colleges were attended their apprenticeship training on shifting system. Majority, 55 (63.22%) of HSC and 55 (61.80%) of TVET trainees persuaded that the practice period was convenient while 55 (56.70%) of TTC, 32 (36.78%) of HSC and 34 (38.20%) of TVET trainees were not much comfortable with practices period they attended. Chi-square was calculated to detect whether the apprenticeship period was convenient or not among the respondents. As a result, the calculated value 8.69 was greater than the Table value 5.99 implying that there was statistically significant difference for 2 degree of freedom at 95% confidence level.

Respondents who were not happy with the apprentice period were asked to indicate convenient period. Accordingly, 20 (34.48%) of TTC, 6 (14.63%) of HSC and five (12.50%) of TVET respondents favored the practice period to be at the beginning of each academic year. On the other hand, 23 (39.65%) of TTC, 6 (14.63%) HSC and five (12.50%) of TVET trainers preferred the apprentice period to be during semester break. Majority of HSC and TVET (58.54% and 55.00% respectively) preferred the apprenticeship period to be at the end of each academic year. Few respondents also asserted the apprenticeship period to be at the end of the program. This great variation on apprenticeship period comes from the fact that majority of trainees in the three colleges were from rural districts and neighboring Zones, they may need summer vacation to help their families and their families may need the assistance of their children during summer. This family and economic relation may force apprenticeship during summer vacation not convenient for some trainees in TVET and HSC. On the other hand, some TTC trainees were not comfortable with their practice period because they had semester final examination immediately after practice. Hence, this finding indicated that the apprenticeship period needs systematic arrangement based on the local conditions to have its utmost result in the three colleges under the study.

Table VI: Views on Duration of Apprenticeship

NO	Items	TRAINEES									TRAINERS									DF	Tab x^2
		TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		Cal x^2	TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		Cal x^2		
		N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%		N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%			
1	Duration of apprenticeship- training at a time																				
	Two months	-	-	83	95.4	86	96.63	169	61.91		-	-	8	57.14	29	76.32	37	40.22			
	One month	5	5.15	4	4.60	3	3.37	12	4.40		5	12.50	6	42.86	4	10.53	15	16.30			
	Three weeks	7	7.23	-	-	-	-	7	2.56		9	22.50	-	-	2	5.26	11	11.97			
	Two weeks	85	87.63	-	-	-	-	85	31.14		26	65.00	-	-	3	7.89	29	31.52			
	One weeks	-	-	-	-	-	-	--	-		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
	Total	97	100	87	100	89	100	273	100		40	100	14	100	38	100	92	100			
2	Opinion of respondents regarding the duration of training at the work place																				
	More than enough	19	19.59	31	35.63	28	31.46	78	28.57		-	-	3	18.75	-	-	3	3.57			
	enough	32	32.99	48	55.17	30	33.71	110	40.29		21	63.64	4	25.00	22	62.86	47	55.95			
	Not enough	46	47.42	8	9.20	31	34.83	85	31.14		12	36.36	9	56.25	13	37.14	34	40.48			
	Total	97	100	87	100	89	100	273	100	33.42	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	19.72	4	9.49

α=0.05 significant level

Duration of apprenticeship differs from occupation to occupation and from country to country. In Ghana for instance, it lasts from 6 months to years depending on the type of firms (Biggs et al., 1995) while term of apprenticeship contract in Australia should not exceed seven years and expire at age 21 years (Hager, 2004; Ray 2001). The majority, 85 (87.63%) of TTC trainees attended practical training for two weeks at a time in each semester except the final semester of the program(in which TTC trainees are supposed to attend one-month training). About 83 (95.46%) of HSC and 86 (96.63%) of TVET trainees attended apprenticeship training for two months in each year.

Trainee respondents were asked to rate the adequacy of apprenticeship period .Accordingly, 46 (47.42%) of TTC and 31 (34.83%) of TVET confirmed that the period allotted for practice was not enough. Nevertheless, 51 (52.58%) of TTC, 79 (90.80%) of HSC and 58 (65.17%) of TVET respondents asserted that the period allotted for practice was adequate (see Table VI). A chi-square test was calculated to detect the significant difference among trainees of the study group. Accordingly, the calculated value 33.42 was greater than the Table value 9.49 implying the existence of statistically significant difference for 4 degree of freedom at the 95% of confidence level.

Similarly, 21 (63.64%) of TTC and 22 (62.86%) of TVET trainers confirmed that the period allotted for practice was sufficient while 9 (56.25%) of HSC trainers believed that the practice period was not enough to acquire the necessary skills. The Table value 9.49 is less than the critical vale 19.72 indicating that the adequacy of training period had statistically significant difference for 4 degree of freedom at 0.05 levels of significance. The adequacy of apprenticeship period had differences between trainers and trainees in HSC. In contrast TTC and TVET trainees' responses agree with trainers' response concerning on the adequacy of apprenticeship training period.

However, interviews held with supervisors in apprenticing centers (Health Center/Hospital, Garages, Home and office furniture Production Centers, Schools etc) indicated that the time allotted for practice was not enough to acquire the expected occupational skill. A mechanic in one of the garage said, "two month training was not sufficient to familiarize names and types of machines let alone to give occupational skills". Head of Merab Abaya

Health Center agreed with the inadequacy of apprenticeship period. According to the Head of the Health Center, for instance, 'midwifery may not see a single newly born infant within two month'. Hence, duration of apprenticeship period has different perceptions among trainees, trainers in all the three institution and supervisors in apprenticeship offering organizations.

Table VII: Condition for Trainees' Transportation and Distance Apprenticeship Centers

N0	Items	Respondents(Trainees)						Total	
		TTC		HSC		TVET			
		N0.	%	N0.	%	N0.	%	N0.	%
1	Distance of apprenticing organization from trainees resident								
	0 – 5 km	49	50.52	15	17.24	52	58.43	116	42.49
	6 – 10 km	10	10.31	3	3.44	23	25.84	36	13.19
	11 – 15 km	1	1.03	6	6.90	5	5.62	12	4.40
	16 – 20 km	9	9.28	7	8.0	1	1.12	17	6.23
	Beyond 20 km	28	28.86	56	100	8	8.99	92	33.70
	Total	97	100	87	100	89	100	273	100
2*	Means of transport to the apprenticeship center								
	On foot	41	42.27	42	39.63	66	67.38	149	59.47
	Organization service	---	----	9	8.49	8	8.16	17	5.65
	Public transport	---	---	14	13.21	24	24.49	38	12.62
	College service	56	57.73	41	38.68	---	---	97	32.23
	Total	97	100	106	100	98	100	301	100

* Multiple Responses $\alpha = 0.05$ significant level

Trainees were asked to indicate the distance from their resident to the apprenticeship centers they were assigned. Accordingly, 49 (50.52%) of TTC, 15 (16.85%) of HSC and 52 (58.43%) of TVET were assigned below 6 km. Trainees whose resident situated beyond 6 km away from practice centers were 49.48% in TTC, 83.15% in HSC and 41.57% in TVET. They were also asked how they traveled from their resident to the apprenticeship centers. Accordingly, 42.27% TTC, 39.63% HSC and 67.38% of TVET used their own foot while 57.73% of TTC and 38.68% HSC trainees used college service. During the time of data collection, the researcher observed that TTC trainees were transported from the center Arba Minch to practice centers (up to 56 km) by College bus daily. On the other hand, the majority of TVET trainees were traveled from their home to the apprenticeship centers either on foot or by public transport.

Table VIII: Incentives to Apprentice

N0	Items	Respondents(Trainees)						Total	
		TTC		HSC		TVET			
		N0.	%	N0.	%	N0.	%	N0.	%
1	Provisions of incentives to apprentice from organizations								
	Yes	36	37.11	61	70.11	30	33.71	127	46.52
	N0.	61	62.89	26	29.89	59	66.29	146	53.48
	Total	97	100	87	100	89	100	273	100
2*	If you say yes, the form of incentive given to apprentice								
	Pocket money	---	----	39	50.65	13	33.33	52	32.10
	meal	13	28.26	4	5.19	7	17.95	24	14.81
	Transport	-	32.61	21	27.27	7	17.95	43	26.54
	Refreshment	31	67.39	8	10.39	11	28.21	50	30.86
	others	2	4.35	5	6.49	1	2.56	8	4.94
		46	100	77	100	39	100	162	100

* Multiple Responses
α =0.05 significant level

Incentive to apprentices was one of the issues posed to respondents. Accordingly, 61 (70.11%) trainees from HSC confirmed that apprenticeship-offering organizations gave some amount of incentives during the training. However, the majority, 61 (62.89%) of TTC and 59 (66.29) TVET trainees asserted that there was no incentive given to them during the practice. The incentive given was in the form of refreshment for TTC trainees and pocket money for HSC and TVET trainees. Trainees in HSC were given incentives in the form of pocket money as they participate in malaria prevention and polio- myelitis eradication campaign while TVET trainees participate in production and service activities.

Thus, the finding indicated that the financial requirement of apprenticeship training is not only directly associated with the training in the college but also extra personal expense such as food, transport and shelter.

Table IX: Trainers Response on Legal Foundation of Apprenticeship

N0	Items	Respondents (Teachers)								Df	Cal x^2	Tab x^2
		TTC		HSC		TVET		Total				
		N0	%	N0.	%	N0.	%	N0.	%			
1	Existence of contract agreement with apprenticeship offering organization											
	Yes	9	27.27	3	18.75	11	31.43	23	27.38			
	No	24	72.73	13	81.25	24	68.57	61	72.62			
	Total	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	2	0.89	5.99
2	Availability of the laws supporting the implementation of apprenticeship											
	Yes	23	69.70	16	100	20	57.14	59	70.24			
	No	10	30.30	-	-	15	42.88	25	29.76			
	Total	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	2	37.67	5.99
3*	If you say 'yes', which of the following are used in your college											
	TVET proclamation	3	12.50	8	30.77	12	44.44	23	29.87			
	labor proclamation	-	-	3	11.54	2	7.41	5	6.49			
	Apprenticeship guideline	18	75.00	13	50.00	13	48.15	44	57.14			
	Others	3	12.50	2	7.69	-	-	5	6.49			
	Total	24	100	26	100	27	100	77	100			

α=0.05 confidence level
*Multiple selections possible

Apprenticeship training links trainees with companies and service rendering organizations. In doing so, it provides many opportunities for trainees to improve their practical skills and adapt work environment and social interaction. Thus, this vital aspect needs to be supplemented by law. As indicated in the literature of this thesis, from the experience of countries like Germany, Australia and Ghana, it can be learned that legal foundation of training is essential to the utmost effect of apprenticeship training. A study of Masresha (2004) and Abeya (2005) confirmed that apprenticeship contract with the concerned bodies was very limited.

The less applicability of apprenticeship contract was supported by trainer respondents. Only 27.27% of TTC, 18.78% of HSC and 31.43% of TVET trainers confirmed the existence of a tripartite agreement. Among the respondents, 18 (75.00%) TTC, 13 (48.5%) TVET and 13 (50.00) of HSC trainers believed that apprenticeship guideline was a law supporting the implementation of apprenticeship training in their respective colleges. On

the other hand, 3 (12.5%) of TTC, 6 (30.77%) of HSC and 12 (44.44%) of TVET trainers believed that TVET proclamation is a law binding the implementation of apprenticeship training in their colleges. Few respondents also assumed that labor proclamation is a binding law for apprenticeship training. However, labor proclamation and apprenticeship guideline are not the binding laws of apprenticeship training. With this respect, TVET College was some how familiar with TVET proclamation better than the other two colleges.

Similarly, the majority of the total trainee respondents, 225 (82.42%) replied that there was no contract agreement signed showing the implementation of apprenticeship training based on legal framework was very low. Even a misconception among those who replied positively was observed. This was manifested on their responses to elements of contract that all of them replied, name, sex, age and address were elements of the contract. However, during observation in some practice centers, these elements were written for attendance and evaluation purpose only. The very important elements of apprenticeship contract include condition for payment, condition for termination, type of occupation and duration of apprenticeship. Since apprenticeship training is designed for fixed time range (at least 312 hours), existence of apprenticeship period was very important. With this respect, only 23.3% of TVET trainees were signed contract with apprenticeship centers that indicate duration of apprenticeship period. In actual case, contract of apprenticeship shall be conducted among training institution, an organization and a trainee (Proc. No. 391/2004).

Thus, based on the majority respondents, it is possible to say that rules and regulations of apprenticeship training programs were not clearly understood and applied by participating organs in the area.

3.3 Implementation of Apprenticeship Training

One of the main objectives of apprenticeship training is to make trainees familiar with the occupations that match to trainee's field of study. In view of that, trainees were asked whether apprenticeship centers assigned them based on their field of study or not.

Table X: Placement of Trainees and Orientation

NO	Items	TRAINEES									TRAINERS									DF	Tab x^2
		TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		Cal x^2	TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		Cal x^2		
		N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%		N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%			
1	Were trainees assigned apprenticeship based on field of study																				
	Yes	50	51.55	73	83.91	69	77.53	192	70.3		30	90.91	16	100	28	80.0	74	88.10			
	No	47	48.45	14	16.09	20	22.47	81	29.7		3	9.09	-	-	7	20.0	10	11.90			
	Total	97	100	87	100	89	100	273	100	27.22	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	5..59	2	5..99
2*	If not, what are the possible reasons																				
	lack of field of study	25	37.31	7	28.00	10	27.78	42	32.8		1	20	-	-	1	7.69	2	11.11			
	shortage of supervisors	14	20.90	13	52.00	5	13.89	32	25.0		2	40	-	-	3	23.1	5	27.78			
	misunderstanding about apprenticeship training	8	11.94	2	8.00	7	19.44	17	13.3		2	40	-	-	7	53.8	9	50.00			
	Less coordination between college and organizations	20	29.85	3	12.00	14	38.89	37	28.9		-	-	-	-	2	15.4	2	11.11			
	Total	67	100	25	100	36	100	128	100		5	100	-	-	13	100	18	100			
3	Did trainees get orientation before practice?																				
	Yes	90	92.78	87	100	87	97.75	264	96.7		29	87.89	12	75.00	18	51.43	59	70.24			
	No	7	7.22	-	-	2	2.45	9	3.30		4	12.12	4	25.00	17	48.57	25	29.76			
	Total	97	100	87	10	89	100	273	100	7.98	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	20.38	2	5.99
4*	If you say 'yes' for 3 what are the elements of orientation?																				
	Rules and regulations	71	54.62	80	39.02	81	50.63	232	46.8		21	29.17	12	20.69	6	16.22	39	23.35			
	How to use materials	41	31.54	54	26.34	49	30.63	144	29.1		19	26.39	12	20.69	7	18.92	38	22.75			
	customers handling	7	5.38	29	14.15	10	6.25	46	9..3		21	29.17	14	24.14	14	37.84	49	29.34			
	How to keep secret	5	3.85	20	9.76	10	6.25	35	7.1		8	11.11	14	24.14	8	21.62	30	17.96			
	Others	6	4.62	22	10.73	10	6.25	36	7.7		3	4.17	6	10.34	2	5.41	11	6.59			
	Total	130	100	205	100	160	100	495	100		72	100	58	100	37	100	167	100	9.13	8	15.51

* Multiple Responses α=0.05 significant level

Majorities in all the three colleges confirmed that they were assigned for practices based on their field of study. Only 47 (48.45%) of TTC, 14 (16.09%) of HSC and 20 (22.47%) of TVET trainees respond negatively. Those who replied negatively were asked to indicate the possible reason for which they were assigned other than the field of study. Consequently, 25 (37.31%) and 20 (29.85%) of TTC respondents asserted that absence of fields of study and less coordination between colleges and organizations were first and second causes respectively.

Here TTC respondents may be confused because of the stream difference they are attending and the subject classification in the practice centers. It is to mean that the subjects like biology, chemistry and physics were not given separately during the training. Instead, natural science, social science language and mathematics were given as training streams. Absence of fields of study and less coordination between colleges and organizations were also selected second and first reasons for TVET trainees to be assigned other than field of study respectively. Condition for HSC is rather different from TTC and TVET. In HSC, lack of supervisor was the main reason for trainees to assign other than field of study. Misunderstanding about apprenticeship training program was also another reason with small proportion in the three colleges.

Hence, the finding indicated that majority of trainees were assigned on their field of study to attend apprenticeship training in all of the three colleges. However, for some trainees, absence of field of study, lack of supervisors in the field of study and less coordination between colleges and apprenticeship centers were the main reasons in assigning apprentice other than their field of study for TTC, HSC and TVET trainees respectively. A chi-square value 27.22 is greater than the Table value 5.99 implying assignment of trainees based on their field of study had statistically significant difference between trainees in the three colleges for 2 degree of freedom at the 95% confidence level.

Trainers were asked about placement of apprentice at the work place. Consequently, 30 (90.91%) of TTC, 16 (100%) of HSC and 28 (80.00%) of TVET teachers replied that apprentice were assigned based on their field of study. Conversely, 0.09% of TTC trainers

and 20.00% of TVET trainers refused. According to these respondents, misunderstanding about apprenticeship training was the main reason to assign trainees other than their field of study. Similarly, lack of supervisors in the field of study and less coordination between colleges and organizations were some of the reasons asserted by TVET trainer. For 2 degree of freedom at the 0.05 significance level, calculated value 5.59 is nearly equal to the Table value 5.99 implying that assignment of trainees based on their field of study had no statistically significant difference among trainers.

Orientation is one of the most important functions in implementing apprenticeship training, which enables to bring about connection between organizational goals/expectations and apprentice needs. It helps trainees to integrate themselves with the organization and its environment. Orientation also assists trainees to acquaint themselves with important consideration of personal, professional and community relationships with the organization. To ascertain whether colleges and apprenticeship organizations had such a kind of program, a question was posed to trainees. Accordingly, almost all (more than 92%) of trainees in all the three colleges were given orientation. As far as the focus /topics of orientation was concerned, considerable portion of the respondents disclosed that the orientation program mostly focused on rules and regulation (54.62% in TTC, 39.02% in HSC and 50.63% in TVET) and how to use materials were the first two focus areas of the orientation.

Table XI: Follow Up of Apprenticeship Practice

No	Items	Respondents(Trainees)						Total		Df	Cal x^2	Tab x^2
		TTC		HSC		TVET						
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No	%			
1	Supervisors assigned to help apprentice											
	Yes	95	97.94	77	88.51	83	93.26	255	93.41			
	No	2	2.06	10	11.49	6	6.74	18	6.59			
	Total	97	100	87	100	89	100	273	100	2	6.63	5.99
2	If you say yes for 1, to extent supervisors assist trainees at the work place											
	Highly	16	16.84	21	27.27	21	25.3	58	22.75			
	Sufficiently	47	49.47	23	29.87	20	24.10	90	35.29			
	Moderately	22	23.16	17	22.08	18	21.69	57	22.35			
	Low	10	10.53	11	14.29	21	25.3	42	16.47			
	Very low	----	----	5	6.49	3	3.61	8	3.14			
	Total	95	100	77	100	83	100	255	1000	8	21.71	15.51
3 *	Basis for supervisors to evaluate trainees											
	based on guideline	55	45.45	59	46.83	34	36.17	148	43.40			
	based on personal relation	26	21.49	28	22.22	20	21.28	74	21.70			
	based on their own criteria	38	31.40	35	27.78	29	30.85	102	29.91			
	do not evaluate	2	1.65	4	31.75	11	11.70	17	4.98			
	Total	121	100	126	100	94	100	341	100			
4 *	Training college follow apprentice practices at the work place											
	Yes	83	85.57	71	81.61	69	77.53	223	81.68			
	No	14	14.43	16	18.39	20	22.49	50	18.32			
	Total	97	100	87	100	89	100	273	1000	2	1.99	5.99
5 *	If yes ,the extent of follow up by training colleges											
	Daily	26	27.37	28	44.44	14	20.00	58	25.44			
	Once a week	26	27.37	8	12.7	6	8.57	40	17.54			
	Once in two weeks	40	42.11	7	11.11	6	8.57	53	23.25			
	Once in a month	3	3.16	13	20.63	44	62.86	60	26.32			
	others	---	----	7	11.11	---	--	7	3.07			
	Total	95	100	63	100	70	100	228	100	8	118.32	15.51
6 *	Reasons for the absence of follow up by training colleges											
	Shortage of man power	3	13.64	6	20.00	12	25.00	21	21.00			
	Management's negligence	10	45.45	12	40.00	25	52.08	47	47.00			
	shortage of finance for per diem	6	27.27	11	36.67	3	6.25	20	20.00			
	Responsibility already handled by apprenticeship centers	---	---	1	3.33	4	8.33	5	5.00			
	Others	----		---		4	8.33	4	4.00			
	Total	22	100	30	100	48	100	100	100	8	17.78	15.51

α=0.05 significance level

* Multiple Response

Organizations selected for apprenticeship training have duties and responsibilities to assign capable supervisors who would enhance the knowledge and skills of the apprentice. These supervisors should follow up and evaluate the day-to-day performance of the apprentice (Article 21: Proc. 391/2004) and finally sent to the colleges. These supervisors assigned by organizations should be knowledgeable and skilled individuals primarily responsible to students and adopt the roll of mentor (Hughes and Moore, 1999). Based on this, trainees were asked how supervisors assist them during the apprenticeship period. Accordingly, 95 (97.94%) of TTC, 77 (88.51%) of HSC and 83 (93.26% TVET trainee respondents indicated that organization assigned supervisors to help apprentice during the training. A small portion of respondents replied that supervisors were not assigned during the training period. A chi-square test was calculated to check the significance difference among the three study groups. As the result indicated, the calculated value 6.63 was greater than the Table value 5.99 implying that there was statistically significant difference for 2 degree of freedom at 0.05 levels of significance.

Respondents were also asked to rate the performance of supervisors during the apprenticeship period. Hence, 85 (89.47%) of TTC, 61 (79.22%) of HSC and 59 (71.08%) of TVET respondents indicated that supervisors assisted them at the required level. Whereas 10 (10.53%) of TTC, 16 (20.78%) of HSC and 24 (28.51%) of TVET respondents argued that supervisors were not responsible to supervise the apprentice during the training period. Here a chi – square test was used to see the rating differences among the three study groups for 8 degree of freedom at 0.05 confidence level. Consequently, the calculated value 21.71 was greater than the Table value 15.51 indicating that there was statistically significant difference in rating the performance of supervisors at the work place.

In addition to assisting trainees, supervisors have responsibilities to give evaluation for apprentice based on the apprenticeship guideline. However, only 45.45% of TTC, 46.83% of HSC and 36.17% of TVET trainees believed that the evaluation was done based on the apprenticeship guideline. More than half of the respondents replied that supervisors evaluate trainees based on personal relation or their own criteria. HSC and TVET trainers

also support trainees' response (see appendix -1). Hence, this finding indicated that evaluation of trainees was not done based on the apprenticeship guideline.

Training Colleges/ Institutions have also duties and responsibilities to assign a coordinator who shall follow up and control apprenticeship training undergone by trainees. Eighty three (85.57%) of TTC, 71 (81.61%) HSC and 69 (77.53) of TVET trainees responded that training colleges assign coordinators to follow and control apprenticeship practices. Whereas 14 (14.43%) of TTC, 16 (18.39%) of HSC and 20 (22.49%) of TVET trainees responded negatively. For 2 degree of freedom at 0.05 significance levels, the calculated value 1.99 was less than the Table value 5.99 indicating that there was no statistically significant difference among the study groups.

Trainees were also asked to indicate the follow up frequencies made by coordinators. Accordingly, 40 (42.11%) of HSC respondents asserted that coordinators follow apprenticeship practices daily. The condition in TVET was reasonably different from the rest two. The majority, 44 (62.86) of TVET trainees were supervised by apprenticeship coordinator once in a month. This was supported by vocational counselor of TVET College during the interview held with the writer of this thesis. The vocational counselor asserted that follow up practice was done once in a month due to shortage of manpower. He also added, "The College was not able to follow and control apprentice practices frequently because majority of the staff members were attending in-service training during summer". Even for those who were assigned in apprenticeship centers very far from the College, follow up practices were done by telephone. However, similar percent of trainees, 25 (52.08%) of TVET, 10 (45.45%) of TTC and 12 (40.10%) of HSC asserted that training colleges did not follow and control apprentice practices frequently due to management negligence. With this regard, for 8 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of confidence the Table value 15.51 is less than the calculated value 17.78 indicating that reasons not to undertake follow up had statistically significant difference among the study group.

3.4 Linkage between Theory and Practice

Table XII: Relation between Theory and Practices

N0	Items	TRAINEES									TRAINERS									DF	Tab x^2
		TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		Cal x^2	TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		Cal x^2		
		N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%		N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%			
1	The degree to which apprenticeship training related with the theory taught																				
	very high	20	20.62	23	26.44	12	13.48	55	20.15		4	12.12	2	12.50	3	8.57	9	10.71			
	high	36	37.11	30	34.49	37	41.57	103	37.73		18	54.55	6	37.50	7	20.00	31	36.90			
	Medium	21	21.65	19	21.84	20	22.47	60	21.98		11	33.33	8	50.00	15	42.86	34	40.48			
	low	18	18.56	10	11.49	16	17.98	44	16.12		-	-	-	-	2	5.71	2	2.38			
	very low	2	2.06	5	5.75	4	4.49	11	4.03		-	-	-	-	8	22.86	8	9.52			
	Total	97	100	87	100	89	100	273	100	8.81	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	20.70	8	15.51
2	Trainees gained the required occupational skill																				
	Yes	91	93.81	66	75.86	77	86.52	234	85.71		31	93.94	7	43.75	21	60.00	59	70.24			
	No	6	6.19	21	24.14	12	13.48	39	14.29		2	6.06	9	56.25	14	40.00	25	29.76			
	Total	97	100	87	100	89	100	273	100	12.10	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	15.98	2	5.99
3	The degree of acquiring the required skill																				
	V/ highly	17	18.68	19	28.79	21	27.27	57	24.39		1	3.23	-	-	-	-	1	1.72			
	high	50	54.95	24	36.36	34	44.16	108	46.15		19	61.29	2	33.33	4	19.05	25	43.10			
	moderately	21	23.08	20	30.30	20	25.97	61	26.09		9	29.03	4	66.67	12	57.14	25	43.10			
	low	3	3.30	3	4.55	2	2.60	8	3.42		2	6.45	-	-	5	23.81	7	12.09			
	V/ low	-	-		-	-	-	-	-												
	Total	91	100	66	100	77	100	234	100	6.11	31	100	6	100	21	100	58	100	17.84	8	15.51
4*	Reasons not acquiring the occupational skills																				
	Lack of Proper assistance																				
		6	35.29	11	21.59	8	40.00	25	28.41		1	25.00	-		7	28.00	8	19.51			
	Mismatch between training and working materials																				
		5	29.41	21	41.18	8	40.00	34	38.64		2	50.00	2	16.67	4	16.00	8	19.51			
	Low academic performance of trainees																				
		5	29.41	13	25.49	4	20.00	22	25.00		1	25.00	8	66.67	11	44.00	20	48.79			
	Apprentice reluctance																				
		-	-	2	3.91	-	-	2	2.27		-	-	-	-	3	12.00	3	7.32			
	Others	1	5.88	4	7.84	-	-	5	5.68		-	-	2	-	-	-	2	4.89			
	Total	17	100	51	100	20	100	88	100		4	100	12	100	25	100	41	100			

*Multiple Response α=0.05 Significance level

Trainees assigned in apprenticeship training are expected to integrate the theory though in the classroom with the actual practice at the work place. With this regard, trainees were asked to rate the relationship between theory and practice during apprenticeship.

Consequently, both groups of the study confirmed that experiences gained were highly related with the theory taught in the classroom. Almost equal proportion of respondents asserted that theory and practice was related moderately. Among these, 20 (20.62%) from TTC, 23 (26.44%) from HSC and 12 (13.48%) from TVET responded that there was a very high relationship between practice and theory. Yet, 20 (20.62%) of TTC, 15 (17.24%) of HSC and 20 (22.47%) of TVET trainees confirmed that theory and practice were related below average.

Trainees at the work place were expected not only to engage in practically activities but they were also expected to gain social, professional and occupation skills. With this regard, the majority of trainees in both colleges confirmed that they had the necessary skills (see Table XII). More than half of the respondents asserted that they acquired enough occupational skills during apprenticeship period. On the contrary, small proportion of respondents (6.19% of TTC, 24.14% of HSC and 13.43% of TVET) believed that they had no adequate occupational skill. Among these, 41.18% of TTC and 40% of TVET trainees assumed that they were not assisted properly during apprenticeship but HSC respondents asserted that mismatch between working and training materials was the main reason that forced them not to gain the necessary occupational skills.

3.4 Problems and Suggested Solutions

Table XIII: Factors Affecting Retention and Complete of Apprenticeship Training

No	Items	Respondents(Trainees)						Total		Df	Cal x^2	Tab x^2
		TTC		HSC		TVET						
		N0.	%	N0.	%	N0.	%	N0.	%			
1	Some trainees forced not to attend the apprenticeship training											
	Yes	44	45.36	52	59.77	48	53.93	144	52.75			
	No	53	56.70	35	40.23	41	46.07	129	47.25			
	Total	97	100	87	100	89	100	273	100	2	3.98	5.99
2*	If you say 'yes' to number 1 which of the following be possible reasons											
	Absence of apprenticeship centers	29	60.42	13	24.07	27	42.19	69	41.57			
	Inconvenient of apprenticeship period	8	16.67	14	25.93	13	20.31	35	21.08			
	Being non-regular trainees	4	8.33	5	9.26	3	4.69	12	7.23			
	large number of trainees compare to apprenticeship centers											
		7	14.58	20	37.04	19	29.69	46	27.71			
	others	-	-	2	3.70	2	3.13	4	2.41			
	Total	48	100	54	100	64	100	166	100			
3*	Mechanism set for those who do not attend the apprenticeship training due to different reasons											
	forced to withdraw	24	19.67	65	57.52	21	20.39	110	32.54			
	Another apprenticeship period was arranged	55	45.08	21	18.58	41	39.81	117	34.62			
	compensation was given	26	21.31	22	19.47	27	26.21	75	22.19			
	nothing was done	17	13.93	5	4.42	14	13.59	36	10.65			
	Total	122	100	113	100	103	100	338	100			

α=0.05 confidence level
*Multiple responses

Forty-four (45.36%) of TTC, 52 (59.77%) of HSC and 48 (53.53%) of TVET trainees responded that some trainees were forced not to attend apprenticeship training. However, 53 (56.7%) of TTC, 35 (40.23%) of HSC, and 41 (46.07%) of TVET trainee asserted that there was no reason that hinder trainees to attend apprenticeship training. A chi-square indicated that for 2 degree of freedom at 0.05 level of confidence the critical value 3.98 is less than the Table value 5.99 implying that there was no statistically significant difference among the three study groups. Among the reasons, 29 (60.42%) of TTC and 27 (42.19%) of

TVET trainers confirmed that absence of apprenticeship centers was the main reason why trainees were forced not to attend the training. On the other hand, HSC trainees responded that large number of trainees compared to apprenticeship centers was the major reason.

Trainees were asked to indicate the measures that have been taken for those who were excluded from apprenticeship training beyond their control. Accordingly, 55 (45.08%) of TTC and 41 (39.81%) of TVET trainees replied that another apprenticeship period was arranged while 65 (57.52%) of HSC trainees asserted that trainees were forced to withdraw from the training. Similar proportion of respondents confirmed that theoretical compensation was given for those trainees excluded from apprenticeship training beyond their control.

Table XIV: College Related Problems on Apprenticeship

No	Items	TRAINEES								TRAINERS							
		TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		TTC		HSC		TVET		Total	
		N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%
1	Colleges' training problems influence on apprenticeship training																
	Yes	90	92.78	84	96.55	73	82.02	247	90.48	28	84.85	16	100	31	88.57	75	89.29
	No	7	7.22	3	3.45	16	17.98	26	9.52	5	15.15	-	-	4	11.43	9	10.71
	Total	97	100	87	100	89	100	273	100	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100
2*	Colleges related factors influencing apprenticeship training																
	shortage of training materials	75	44.91	52	34.67	53	34.42	180	38.22	12	22.64	12	26.09	29	43.28	53	37.06
	outdated training materials	15	8.98	18	12.00	18	11.69	51	10.83	4	7.55	4	9.70	6	8.96	14	9.79
	Colleges poor management	33	19.76	28	18.67	15	9.74	76	16.14	6	11.32	8	17.39	15	22.39	41	28.67
	Trainers below the required educational reasons standard	44	26.35	33	22.00	61	39.61	138	29.30	18	33.96	6	13.04	10	14.93	23	16.09
	shortage of manpower	-	-	18	12.00	7	4.55	25	5.31	7	13.21	16	34.78	7	10.45	29	20.28
	others	-	-	1	0.67	-	-	1	0.21	6	-	-	-	-	-	6	4.20
	Total	167	100	150	100	154	100	471	100	53	100	46	100	67	100	143	100

α=0.05 significant level

*multiple selection

Employers and service delivering organizations complain that graduates of colleges are not theoretical and psychologically competent for the actual work situations. Some of the reasons frequently raised are trainees' low academic performance and the evaluation systems used to certify trainees. Others complain that the colleges' human and material facilities are below the requirements set by MoE. Here trainees and trainers were asked whether colleges related factors influence apprenticeship training or not. Surprisingly, about 90% of both trainees and trainers in all of the three colleges confirmed positively. Among these, 49.91% of TTC and 34.67% of HSC trainees asserted that shortage of training materials highly influence apprenticeship training while 39.61% of TVET trainees confirmed that trainers below the required standard was the main factor that affected apprenticeship training. Trainers below the required educational standard was the second major factor that affects apprenticeship training for TTC and HSC trainees while shortage of training materials was the second factor that affects TVET trainees during apprenticeship.

Similarly, 43.28% of TVET trainers believed that shortage of training materials was the major factor that directly influences on apprenticeship training whereas 33.96% of TTC trainers asserted that trainers' low academic performance was mainly affects practical training at the actual work place. On the other hand, 34.78% of HSC trainers confirmed that shortage of manpower highly affected practice at the work place. However, student teacher ratio for HSC is about 21:1, which is average compared to 41:1 in TTC and 18:1 in TVET (see appendix- 2). Similar proportions of trainers and trainees in all the three colleges stated that colleges' poor management system had certain impacts on apprenticeship trainings.

Hence, this finding indicated that apprenticeship problems are not limited to the apprenticing centers rather factors related to Colleges such as shortage of training materials, low academic performance of trainers and Colleges poor management system also have effects on apprenticeship training at the work place.

Table XV: Suggestions to Solve Apprenticeship Problems

NO	Items	TRAINEES								TRAINERS							
		TTC		HSC		TVET		Total		TTC		HSC		TVET		Total	
		N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%	N0	%
1*	Means thought to solve financial problems on apprenticeship training																
	apprentice should cover the cost	6	4.76	13	10.00	5	3.70	24	6.14	3	6.67	1	2.78	2	2.70	6	3.87
	establish fund raining committee	24	19.09	27	20.77	35	25.93	86	21.99	29	64.44	15	41.67	31	41.89	75	48.39
	the government should allocate apprenticeship budget	90	71.43	73	56.15	88	65.19	251	64.19	3	6.67	6	16.67	18	24.32	27	17.42
	Apprenticing organizations should pay for apprentice	6	4.76	17	13.08	7	5.19	30	7.67	8	18.18	12	33.33	15	20.27	35	22.58
	exempt organizations from tax	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		2	4.44	2	5.56	8	10.81	12	7.74
	Total	126	100	130	100	135	100	391	100	45	100	36	100	74	100	155	100
2*	Overall suggestions to solve apprenticeship problems																
	Establish advisory committee	54	24.88	37	21.02	17	10.56	108	19.49	27	30.68	10	22.73	6	7.59	43	20.38
	Give financial support to trainees	28	12.90	29	16.48	37	22.98	94	16.98	9	10.23	6	13.64	20	25.32	35	16.59
	Arrange seminars and workshops	59	27.19	49	27.84	46	28.58	154	27.80	26	29.55	6	13.64	21	26.58	53	25.12
	Revise TVET proclamation	19	8.76	29	16.48	10	6.21	58	10.47	18	20.45	16	36.36	24	30.38	58	27.49
	Establishes apprenticeship committee containing trainers trainees and supervisors in organizations																
		57	26.27	32	18.18	51	31.68	140	25.27	8	9.09	8	18.18	8	10.13	24	11.37
	Total	217	100	176	100	161	100	554	100	88	100	44	100	79	100	211	100

*: Multiple Response

To seek opinions on respondents how to resolve some of the problems of apprenticeship training programs, questions were posed to trainees. As a result, the majority, 90 (71.43%) in TTC, 73 (56.15%) of HSC and 88 (65.19%) of TVET respondents confirmed that it is the governments responsibility to allocate apprenticeship budget. Establish apprenticeship fund raising committee was the second major solution forwarded by trainees to solve apprenticeship financial problem. Trainees stressed that arrange seminars and workshop to concerned bodies are mandatory to tackle the over all problems of apprenticeship problems. The existence of apprenticeship coordinating committee containing apprentice, trainers and supervisors in the organization has given great attention as a solution to apprenticeship problems.

The very important thing in the apprenticeship training is a good relation between training institutions and apprenticeship offering organizations. With this regard, no positive measure was done to increase the relationship between training institution/colleges with apprenticing organizations (Abeya, 2005). During the interview held with schools selected for practices, it was indicated that College of Teacher's Education gave seminars and workshop to mentors before trainees sent to Practices. The College also had donated typewriters and duplication machine to schools selected for practice centers. As a result schools were very much cooperative to the utmost result of teaching practice. On the other hand, HSC and TVET colleges had not been given any seminar or workshops to apprenticeship offering organizations. The respective colleges agree with supervisors response and defended that it was due to shortage manpower. Hence, this finding indicated that TTC has made a good effort to make their relation effective. The efforts made by HSC and TVET to make organizations active participant in apprenticeship training were very low compared to Teachers Training College.

Table XVI: Respondents Opinions on Apprenticeship Program

No	Items	Respondents	Colleges						Between Groups		Within the group		F Calculated	Tab value of F
			TTC		H SC		TVET							
			μ	SD	μ	SD	μ	SD	Sbg^2	Df	Swg^2	Df		
1	Apprenticeship helps to be self-employed	Trainees	3.29	.328	4.23	.449	3.98	.408	21.32	2	3.720	81	5.738	2.996
		Trainers	3.73	.620	3.75	.895	4.14	.689	1.704	2	6.819	270	0.255	
2	Organizations do not see apprenticeship as part of training	Trainees	2.59	.334	2.78	.343	3.21	.339	9.42	2	1.780	81	5.295	2.996
		Trainers	2.52	.581	3.31	.809	3.60	.581	10.365	2	12.507	270	.8287	
3	Apprentice adapt new technologies at the work place	Trainees	2.57	.336	3.95	.408	3.70	.374	51.66	2	4.124	81	12.53	2.996
		Trainers	3.30	.563	3.69	.880	3.69	.595	1.471	2	8.496	270	.1331	
4	Apprenticeship increases work habits and self-confidence	Trainees	4.48	.465	4.61	.514	4.49	.487	0.427	2	.782	81	0.546	2.996
		Trainers	4.39	.772	4.44	1.13	4.31	.729	.1002	2	3.280	270	.0305	
5	Trainers and supervisors believed on apprenticeship	Trainees	3.97	.263	4.34	.437	3.89	.378	5.25	2	.960	81	5.487	2.996
		Trainers	4.09	.695	3.88	.931	3.89	.632	0.436	2	6.501	270	.0671	
6	Apprenticeship evaluations are Given based on performance	Trainees	3.29	.328	3.75	.384	3.70	.328	5.917	2	3.015	81	1.963	2.996
		Trainers	3.55	.591	3.69	.879	2.54	.562	11.34	2	31.305	270	.3617	
7	organizations benefited from apprenticeship training	Trainees	3.69	.358	4.16	.439	4.08	.422	3.99	2	2.410	81	1.657	2.996
		Trainers	3.76	.694	3.81	.911	4.29	.724	2.674	2	6.970	270	.3836	

α=0.05 confidence level μ: mean
SD: standard deviations Df: degree of freedom
$Swg^{2:}$ standard deviations within the group
$Sbg^{2:}$ standard deviations between group

Apprenticeship training was mainly designed to make apprentice employed or self-employed. With this regard, trainees were asked to rate how apprenticeship training helped trainees to be self-employed. Respondents in HSC had scored significantly higher than both TTC and TVET trainees. Similarly, teacher respondents from HSC had considerably rated higher than that of TTC and TVET colleges. However, both trainees and trainers in all the three colleges sense that apprenticeship helps to be self-employed above the average. The F ratio was calculated to determine the significance difference at 0.05 level of confidence and the Table value 2.996 is less than the ratio value 5.738 indicating the existence of statistically significant difference among trainee respondents. On the other hand, since the Table value 2.996 is greater than the ratio value 0.255 there was no statistically significant difference observed among trainers at 95% level of confidence. It can be seen that both trainees and trainers from HSC rate higher than that of TTC and TVET trainees as well as trainers. From TTC and TVET respondents, both trainees and trainers in TVET rated higher than TTC trainees and trainers.

Respondents were requested to rate interest of organization towards apprenticeship. The result of analysis of variance suggested that there was significant difference between the mean score of trainee respondents. Accordingly, students from TVET believed that apprenticing organizations do not see apprenticeship as part of training whereas students from TTC and HSC rate that organizations do not see apprenticeship as part of training nearly average (see Table XVI). Trainers from HSC also confirmed that organization do not see apprenticeship as part of training. Trainers from TTC and TVET rated equally how organizations see apprenticeship training. The F ratio 5.295 of trainees is greater than the table value 2.996 and the F ratio .8287 of trainers is less than the table value 2.996. Hence, trainee respondents from all the three colleges confirmed that apprenticeship offering organization do not see apprenticeship as part of training with out significance difference while trainers confirmed that apprenticeship offering organization do not see apprenticeship as part of training with statistically significance difference at the 95% confidence level. In any case, it can be seen that there were misconceptions perceived by apprenticeship offering organizations on apprenticeship.

Among the important facts that trainees were assigned to take training at the actual work place was to familiarize them with new technologies and working conditions. Accordingly, trainees were asked to rate how apprenticeship training helped trainees to become accustomed with new work conditions and technologies. As a result, trainees from HSC confirmed that apprenticeship helped trainees to adapt new technologies at the work place better than TTC and TVET respondents. On the other hand, TVET trainees ranked better than TTC respondents did. The F ratio 12.53 is greater than the table value 2.996 indicated that there was a significant difference among trainee respondents at the 0.05 significance level. Trainers from HSC asserted that apprenticeship training helped apprentice to adapt new technologies better than TTC and TVET trainers. From the analysis of variance, the F ratio .1331 is less than the table value 2.996 indicating that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of trainers with respect to apprenticeship ability in adapting new technologies at the work place. The above findings indicated that though there was no perceptual difference among trainers, HSC trainees had better understanding about the importance of practical training at the work place to adapt new technologies and TTC trainees had the least perception.

Furthermore, an attempt was made to investigate whether apprenticeship increases work habit and self-confidence. With this regard, trainees from all colleges rated above the average proportionally. However, HSC trainees understand that apprenticeship increases work habit and self-confidence better than TTC and TVET trainees do. The F ratio 0.546 is less than the table value 2.996 implying that there was no statistically significant difference among the means at 0.05 level of confidence. Similarly, Trainers from all colleges agree with the issue without any significant difference. Relatively, TTC and TVET trainers rated less than HSC trainers did. Table value 2.996 is greater than calculated value 0.0305 implying that there was no statistically significant difference among the means at 0.05 levels of significance. Here the finding indicated that both trainees and trainers from all colleges confirmed that apprenticeship increase work habits and self-confidence to apprentice.

Respondents were asked to rate trainers and supervisors perception on apprenticeship training. Accordingly, HSC trainees and trainers rated highly compared to TTC and TVET trainees and trainers. Trainees F- ratio 5.487 is greater than the table value 2.996 indicating the existence of statistically significant difference among the mean of trainees at 0.05 levels of significance. However, trainers F- ratio 0.0671 is less than the table value 2.996 indicating that supervisors and trainers believed on apprenticeship training without any significant difference at the 95% confidence level.

In connection with apprenticeship evaluation system done by apprenticeship offering organizations, TTC and TVET trainees believed that evaluation are given based of performance while HSC trainees rate better than the others do. From the analysis of variance, the F-ratio value 1.963 is less than the Table value 2.996 and hence there was no significant difference among the mean scores of trainees at 0.05 levels of significance. On the other hand, trainers from TVET and TTC rate nearly equal but HSC trainers rated the issue better than the others did. Trainers F-ratio value 0.3617 is less than the table value 2.996 indicating that apprenticeship offering organizations evaluate trainees based on performance without any significant difference at 0.05 level of confidence.

Regarding the importance of apprenticeship for training centers, trainee respondents replied that organizations benefited from apprenticeship training by rating above the average in all the three colleges. For the purpose of comparison, HSC trainees and trainers rate higher than the other two colleges. The F ratio 1.657 is less than the table value 2.996 indicated that the mean scores(see able XVI) of trainees had statistically significant difference at 95% level of confidence were as analysis of variance on mean scores of trainers indicated that trainers perception had no significant difference among the study groups at 95% confidence level. Hence, this finding indicated that apprenticeship-offering organizations were benefited from apprenticeship training. This idea was supported by owner of Beauty Salon and wood production centre during the interview held with this author. According to owners of these organizations, apprenticeship helped them to select competent young employees to their organization and now they are working with former apprentice.

CHAPTER FOUR

Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

4.1 Summary of the Findings

The purpose of this study was to see the implementation of apprenticeship training in three government Colleges at Arba Minch. To this end, questions addressing on the implementation of apprenticeship training such as selection of apprenticing organization, placement of apprentice, linkage between theory and practices, problems and measures addressing the problems were raised.

The study employed descriptive analysis and conducted in regular programs of the three government colleges. The subject of the study were 3 deans(v/deans), 3 apprenticeship coordinators/vocational counselors, 84 trainers, 273 trainees and 15 apprenticeship centers. Accordingly, the respondents sampling was carried through stratified random sampling, purposive sampling and available sampling techniques. Trainees were selected through stratified random sampling technique and trainers were selected through both purposive and random sampling techniques. All the other respondents were selected through available sampling technique.

Questionnaires, interviews and document analysis were used to obtain information from respondents. The data obtained were analyzed using percentages and analysis of variance (ANOVA) such as chi-square test and F-test. Thus, the following major findings were obtained from the result of data analysis.

4.1.1 Fifty-eight percent of TTC and 54.02% of HSC trainees were above 19 years old whereas only 44.94% of TVET trainees were beyond 19 years. Therefore, the age profile showed that, students from TTC and HSC were relatively elder than students from TVET. The participation of female trainees in TTC and TVET was few compared to HSC. Similarly, female

trainers were very low in all the three colleges. However, the number of female trainers in HSC was greater than the other two colleges.

4.1.2 Regarding work experience and qualification of trainer respondents, TTC trainers have better qualification than HSC and TVET. Even though ETP clearly stated that trainers in College level should have at least a minimum of first degree, 31.25% of HSC and 69.57% of TVET trainees had college diploma, which is below the minimum requirement standard by MoE.

4.1.3 For the majority of respondents (both trainees and trainers) in TTC and HSC, availability of supervisors and occupation were widely used criterion to select apprenticing organizations. Interest of apprenticing organizations was a dominant factor in selecting apprenticeship centers for TVET trainees.

4.1.4 According to the majority of respondents, placement of apprentice to practice centers was done by agreement between colleges and apprenticing organizations. However, the number of trainees sent to apprenticeship centers was determined by college's management in TTC, trainers in HSC and vocational counselor in TVET College.

4.1.5 Based on the finding, TTC trainees sent to apprenticing organizations were more or less proportional to human and material facilities of organizations while HSC trainees were not proportional to human and material facilities of health apprenticeship centers. It was also indicated that TVET trainees in some field of studies (apprenticing organizations concentrated in Arba Minch only) were not proportional with human and material facilities.

4.1.6 Both TVET and HSC trainees indicate that they were attending their practice during summer vacation. Due to schools academic calendar, TTC

trainees conduct their practice during the third month of each semester. Majority of the HSC and HSC trainees confirmed that apprenticeship during summer was convenient for them. On the contrary, TTC trainees were not comfortable with their apprenticeship periods because they had semester final examination immediately after practice. Besides, the majority of trainees in all the three colleges believed that the training period was enough to gain the required occupational skill at the workplace. Conversely, supervisors from apprenticeship centers thought that the apprenticeship period allotted for practice was not sufficient to acquire the necessary occupational skills at the work place.

4.1.7 Majority of HSC trainees, nearly half of TTC and TVET trainees were placed for practice beyond 5 km from their resident. Accordingly, HSC and TVET trainees were traveled either on foot or by public transport.

4.1.8 Based on the findings, majority of trainees and trainers in all the three colleges, it was found that the implementation of apprenticeship training based on the legal framework was very low without any significant difference among trainee groups and trainer groups.

4.1.9 It was found that absence of field of study, less coordination between colleges and apprenticing organizations and misunderstanding about apprenticeship were some of the reasons forwarded by respondents for trainees to be assigned other than field of study.

4.1.10 Apprenticing organizations assign supervisors to assist trainees at the work place with statistically significant difference among trainees. Trainees in all the three colleges confirmed that supervisors assisted them at the required level. However, the performance rating had statistically significant among trainees.

4.1.11 According to the majority of trainee respondents, even though colleges assign apprenticeship coordinators at the work place, the follow up was done at most once in a week in TTC and HSC while it was done once in a month in TVET. The follow up frequency done by apprenticeship coordinators had great significant difference among trainees.

4.1.12 The relation between the theory thought and practice at the actual work place was rated average by trainees in all the three colleges. However, supervisors at the work place claimed that the theoretical background trainees gained had very much limited relation with the practical activities at the actual situation.

4.1.13 Trainees responded that factors that affect the practice in the colleges include shortage of training materials and the low qualification of trainers (below standard). Similarly, trainers below the required standard, shortage of manpower and shortage of training materials were the major problems stated by TTC, HSC and TVET trainers respectively.

4.1.14 From the finding, trainees in all the three colleges believed that financial expenses on apprenticeship training should be covered by the government. On the contrary, trainers suggested that establishing fund raising committee would solve apprenticeship financial problem primarily and apprenticing organizations should pay for apprentice as secondary solution to the financial problems observed during apprenticeship.

4.1.15 As the general solution for apprenticeship problems, it was found that TTC trainees gave high priority for the establishment of apprenticeship committee consisting of trainees, trainers and apprenticing organizations. Trainers in TTC on their part suggested that establishing advisory committee, as a primary solution for practice problems is a use full

mechanism. HSC and TVET trainees believed that arranging seminars and workshop to concerned bodies would solve apprenticeship problems.

4.1.16 The finding indicated that TTC and TVET set another apprenticeship period for those who were not attend their training beyond their control. Conversely, HSC had nothing except forced to withdraw from their studies.

4.1.17 The finding from the analysis of variance indicated that respondents from HSC had better understanding on the self-employed character of apprenticeship training than TTC and TVET respondents. Apprenticing organizations do not see apprenticeship as part of training and trainees had uncertainness on evaluations given by supervisors. Trainees and trainers in all the three colleges convinced that apprenticeship-training increases work habits and self-confidence. Apprenticing organizations were advantageous in conducting apprenticeship training.

4.2 Conclusion

According to the findings obtained, TTC was more advanced than HSC and TVET in selecting and arrangement of practice centers to make the training effective. Placement of trainees to practice centers was not based on the available facilities in HSC compared to TTC and TVET. Supervisors at the work place assist trainees frequently in spite of their skills are inadequate to give technical and occupational knowledge to trainees. On the other hand, training colleges did not follow apprenticeship practice sufficiently and frequently due to their negligence and poor management system.

Even though, trainees and trainers in all the three colleges believed that theory thought and practices are highly related, owners and supervisors at the workplace refused the competence of trainees to relate theory into practice. Shortage of training materials and trainers' qualification below the required standard were some of the factors that influence trainees' performance during apprenticeship training.

Efforts made by training colleges to familiarize objectives and implementation of apprenticeship to apprenticing organizations and the community was very much limited except seminars and material donations given by TTC. As a result, apprenticing organizations do not consider apprenticeship as part of the actual training and evaluations were not based on trainees' performance and the guideline. Accordingly, apprenticing organizations in particular and the community in general did not contribute their maximum effort to achieve objectives of apprenticeship.

4.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings obtained and the conclusion drawn, the following suggestions are forwarded to improve the apprenticeship program.

4.3.1 The criterion used to determine apprenticing organizations, the size of trainees assigned at a particular practice centers should be clearly understood by both trainees and trainers.

4.3.2 Since apprenticeship training was conducted during summer vacation for the majority of TVET and HSC trainees, the practice period should be designed to accommodate the needs of all trainees with special emphasis on trainees from rural areas and economically low families. The regional state should organize credit or cost sharing system that can be paid after graduation for expenses as food, transport and house rent during the apprenticeship.

4.3.3 Trainers in the three colleges in general, and TVET and HSC in particular were not at the required qualification standard set by MoE. The performance of mentors was not satisfactory. Hence, upgrading courses have to be organized for mentors/supervisors and trainers so that they can assist and evaluate trainees to satisfy the objective of the training. Besides, the Regional Education Bureau has to employ qualified and competent trainers to the respective colleges.

4.3.4 The training colleges and apprenticing organizations should establish short term and long term plans to evaluate weaknesses and strong points in order to take remedial actions for further implementation of the apprenticeship training.

4.3.5 Training colleges should arrange and give seminars, workshops and short-term trainings to owners of organizations, supervisors, heads of apprenticing organizations, trainees and families of trainees, and the community. Particularly, TVET and HSC should establish close link with apprenticing organizations to get the maximum effect from the training.

4.3.6 Except some, majority of trainees were assigned for practice in government owned organization. Since the objective of apprenticeship is to familiarize trainees with work that leads them to be employed or self-employed, trainees should attend practice at non-government owned organizations. Hence, the three colleges in particular and the regional state in general should design practice in non-government organization (especially non-domestic (foreign) NGOs, who are working in the region for a long period).

4.3.7 From the experience of countries stated in the literature and discussions held with owners and supervisors in apprenticing organizations, the time allotted for practice was not sufficient. Apprenticing organizations in rural areas and small towns may not provide sufficient materials for training and the involvement of trainees within a period not more than two months may be very much limited. Hence, to achieve the objective of the training successfully, the time allotted for practices should be at least six months of full day work experience like apprenticeship for agriculture trainees that take about eight months.

4.3.8 Non-Governmental Organizations and Religious Institutes are operating widely in the SNNPR for a long period especially in Education and Health sectors. Hence, the Regional Education Bureau should establish a system (like cooperative education) to which these organizations can participate in financing, supplying materials and give technical support for apprenticeship offering organizations and trainees during practice.

4.3.9 Until now, the performance of trainees gained through practice was determined by the supervisors' evaluation result. However, there is no mechanism whether these evaluations satisfy the standard requirements of the occupations or not. Hence, performance evaluation has to be given at the end of the apprenticeship and all stakeholders should participate in determining the standards, the contents, structure and durations of the apprenticeship.

4.3.10 The majority of the labor force especially in the informal sectors (such as Hotels, Building and Construction, Beautification, Trades, House and office furniture, Agriculture so on) of Ethiopia comes from traditionally trained work force. As the economy and technology of the country are not adequate to train all the required skilled force in the form of modern apprenticeship, there should be responsible organ that coordinate modern apprenticeship with traditional once so that long years experience of the community can contribute to solve shortage of trained workers and reduce youth unemployment.

4.3.11 Apprentice at the work place involves in productive activities, substitutes regular employees during absents and annual leaves. Hence, they contribute economic and social advantages to apprenticing organizations. Therefore, apprenticing organizations should pay incentives depending on the duration of the training and type of occupation trainees engaged.

4.3.12 The researcher recommended that a study has to be done how the former graduates performance looks like at the work place (if they are employed or self employed) and how apprenticeship training helped trainees to be employed or self-employed. Further, critical study has to be done how apprenticeship training played a role in satisfying the skilled force requirements of the country and in reducing unemployment that helps to revise and develop the curriculum and implementation of apprenticeship.

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APPENDIX – 1

Trainers' Response on Follow up Practices

N0.	Items	Respondents (Teachers)						Total		Df	Ca X^2	Ta X^2
		TTC		HSC		TVET						
		N0.	%	N0.	%	N0.	%	N0.	%			
1	Do organizations assign supervisors to help apprentice?											
	Yes	31	93.94	10	62.25	20	57.14	61	72.62			
	N0	2	6.06	6	37.50	15	42.88	23	27.38			
	Total	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	2	12.61	5.99
2	If you say yes for 1, to what extent do they assist trainees at the work place?											
	Highly	5	16.13	-	-	-	-	5	8.47			
	Sufficiently	14	45.16	-	-	8	40.00	20	33.90			
	Moderately	4	12.90	1	10.00	6	30.00	11	18.64			
	Low	8	25.81	5	50.00	6	30.00	19	32.20			
	Very low	-	-	4	40.00	-	-	4	6.78			
	Total	31	100	10	100	20	100	59	100	8	35.79	15.51
3	How do supervisors in organizations evaluate trainees?											
	based on guideline	22	66.67	8	40.00	16	28.57	46	54.76			
	based on personal relation	3	9.09	6	30.00	19	33.93	28	33.33			
	based on their own criteria	6	18.18	4	20.00	15	26.79	25	29.76			
	do not evaluate at all	2	6.06	2	10.00	6	10.72	10	11.90			
	Total	33	100	20	100	56	100	84	100			
4	Training college follow apprentice practices at the work place											
	Yes	31	93.94	10	62.50	21	60.00	62	73.81			
	N0	2	6.06	6	37.50	14	40.00	22	26.19			
	Total	33	100	16	100	35	100	84	100	2	11.46	5.99
5	If your answer in 4 is yes, how frequently											
	Daily	12	38.71	6	60.00	1	4.76	19	30.65			
	Once a week	12	38.71	-	-	4	19.05	16	25.81			
	Once in two weeks	7	22.58	4	40.00	2	9.52	13	20.97			
	Once in a month	-	-		-	14	66.67	14	22.58			
	others	-	-		-	-	-	-	-			
	Total	31	100	10	100	21	100	62	100			
6*	If no, what are the reasons?											
	Shortage of man power	2	28.57	6	100	11	47.83	19	52.79			
	Management's negligence	2	28.57	-	-	-	-	2	5.56			
	Shortage of finance for per diem	1	14.29	-	-	8	34.78	9	25.00			
	responsibility already handled by apprenticeship centers	1	14.29	-	-	4	17.39	5	13.89			
	Others	1	14.29	-	-	-	-	1	2.78			
	Total	7	100	6	100	23	100	36	100			

α=0.05 significance level

*multiple selection

APPENDIX -2

Colleges Trainees and Trainers Profile

Colleges	Established Date		Number of Trainees			Number of Trainers			Student Teacher Ratio	Programs
			M	F	T	M	F	T		
TTC	1987	No.	2344	1097	3441	69	8	77	44.69 :1	10+1* 10+3
		%	68.12	31.88	100	89.61	10.39	100		
HSC	1996	No.	396	374	770	31	6	37	20.81:1	10+1 10+2 10+3
		%	51.43	48.57	100	83.78	16.22	100		
TVET	1997	No.	694	454	1148	59	8	67	17.13:1	10+1 10+2 10+3
		%	60.45	39.55	100	88.06	11.94	100		
Grand Total		No.	3434	1925	5359	159	22	181	29.60:1	
		%	64.08	35.92	100	87.85	12.15	100		

*Extension Only

Source: Colleges Record Office

APPENDIX -3

Addis Ababa University

Graduate Studies

College of Education

Department of Business Education

Questionnaire to be Filled by Apprentice

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather data on implementation of apprenticeship training programs in three colleges at Arba Minch. Accordingly, the success of this study depends on your genuine responses. Be sure that the information you provide will be kept confidential and used only for academic purpose.

Please note that

- No need of writing your name
- Where alternatives are given, please mark your answer by using "X" in the corresponding space.
- Please be free as possible as to answer questions.

Part I. General background

1.Name of college ----------

2. Training program enrolled 10+1 ☐ 10+2 ☐ 10+3 ☐

3.Field of study----------

4.Sex Male ☐ Female ☐

5.Age ----------

Part II. Selection, arrangement and placement of apprenticeship centers and apprentice

1 .Distance of organization you were assigned from your college?

a. Less than 5 Km ☐ b. 10K-15 Km ☐

c. 5 Km-10 Km ☐ d. beyond 20 Km ☐

2. How did you travel from your resident to the organization you were assigned for apprenticeship? a. on foot ☐ b. Organization's service ☐

c. public transport ☐ d. Training institution provides service ☐

3. Did you sign an apprenticeship contract with the organization you took apprenticeship?

Yes ☐ No ☐

4. If your answer in number 3 is "yes", put 'X' on the elements of contracts.

Full name ☐ Sex ☐ age ☐ Address ☐ Occupation ☐

Condition for termination ☐ Condition for insurance ☐

Condition for payment ☐ Duration of apprenticeship period ☐

5. Have you been given orientation? Yes ☐ No ☐

6. If you say "yes" for 5, what are the elements of orientation?

a .rules and regulations ☐ b .how to use materials ☐

c .how to handle customers ☐ d. How to keep secret ☐ e. others ☐

7. Are these criteria set for selection of apprenticeship training organizations?

Yes ☐ No ☐

8. If your say "Yes" in number 7, which of the following are among the criteria?

a Number of employees in the organization ☐

b. Type of ownership (government or non-government) ☐

c Voluntary ness of organizations ☐

d Availability of supervisors and occupations. ☐

9. Who assigns trainees to the selected organizations? ☐

a . Vocational counselor ☐ b. Trainers /teachers ☐

c . Organizations' request ☐ d. Through trainees personal contact ☐

e. college management ☐

10. What criteria are used in assigning trainees to the selected organizations?

a. Field of study ☐ b. Distance from Residence ☐

c. Interest of apprentices ☐ d. On lottery basis ☐

11. Who determine the number of trainees assigned to the selected organization (multiple selection is possible)?

a. Each organization ☐ b. By training institutions ☐

c. On the basis of statements of the law ☐ d. No formal procedure ☐

e. Upon the agreement between institutions and organizations ☐

12. Apprenticeship training periods were arranged (multiple selection is possible)?

a. During summer vacation ☐ c. Shifting system ☐

b. For specified period ☐ d. Others ☐

13. Do you think the period indicated in "12" convenient for majority of trainees?

Yes ☐ No ☐

14. If you say 'No' for number 13, which of the following be convenient period (multiple selection is possible)? ?

a. at the beginning of each year ☐ b. at the middle of each year ☐

c .at the end of each year ☐ d. at the end of the program ☐

e .during semester break ☐

Part III. Implementations of apprenticeship

15 . Were you assigned apprenticeship based on your field of study?

Yes ☐ No ☐

16. If your answer in number 15 is 'No', which of the following is possible reason (multiple selections are possible).

a. Absence of field of study is in the organization ☐

b. Lack of supervisor in the field of study ☐

c. Organizations do not understand the importance of apprenticeship ☐

d. employees in the organization are not voluntary to supervise ☐

17. For how long do apprenticeship trainees attend training at a time in the work place?

a. one month ☐ b. three weeks ☐ c .two weeks ☐ d. one week ☐

e. Two month

18. What is your opinion regarding the duration of training at the work place?

a. more than enough ☐ B. Enough ☐ c. Not enough ☐

19. Did organizations assign supervisors to apprenticeship centers?

Yes ☐ No ☐

20. If your answer in 19 is "yes", to what extent do they assist apprentice at the work place

a. highly ☐ b. sufficiently ☐ c. Moderately ☐

d. low ☐ e. very low ☐

21. Did training colleges follow apprenticeship practices at the work place?

Yes ☐ No ☐

22. If your answer for number 21 is "yes", how frequently?

☐ ☐

a. Daily ☐ b. Once a week

c. Once in two weeks ☐ d. Once in a month ☐ e. others ☐

23. If your answer in number 21 is "No" which of the following be possible reasons (multiple selection is possible)?

a. shortage of manpower ☐

b negligence of the management ☐

c. Shortage of finance for per diem ☐

d. responsibility already handled by apprenticeship centers ☐

e. Others ☐

24. Do organizations give incentives to apprentice? Yes ☐ No ☐

25. If your answer in number 24 is "yes" in what form was the incentive given (multiple selection is possible)? a. pocket money ☐ b. Meal ☐

c .transport ☐ d .refreshment ☐

e. others ☐

Part IV. Linkage between theoretical knowledge and apprenticeship

26. To what extent do apprenticeship training related with the theory taught in colleges?

a. Very high ☐ b. High ☐ c. Medium ☐

d. Low ☐ e. Very low ☐

27. Do you think that trainees gained the required occupational skill?

Yes ☐ No ☐

28. If your answer in number 27 is "yes", to what extent do trainees gained the required occupational skill. ☐

a. very high ☐ b. Sufficiently ☐ c. moderately ☐ d. low ☐ e. very low ☐

29 If your answer in number 27 is "No", which of the following be possible reason

a. no proper assistance was given during apprenticeship ☐

b. apprentice low academic performance ☐

c. mismatch between training and working materials ☐

d. apprentice do not follow apprenticeship training regularly ☐

30. Do you think that training problems in the college influence on the apprenticeship training? Yes ☐ No ☐

31. If your answer is number 30 is 'yes' which of the following be the causes? (multiple selection is possible)

a. shortage of training materials ☐ b. outdated training materials ☐

c. theoretical courses were not covered ☐ d. Trainers below the required standard ☐

32. Give your opinion on the following items by assigning the following values.

Strongly agree 5, very agree 4, agree 3,

Disagree 2 and strongly disagree 1

	5	4	3	2	1
a. Apprenticeship helps to be self-employed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Organizations do not see apprenticeship as part of training	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. apprenticeship helps to adapt new technologies at the work place	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. apprenticeship increases work habits and self-confidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. trainers and supervisors understand rules and regulations of apprenticeship	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. organizations give evaluations without proper follow up	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. organizations benefited from apprenticeship	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Part V. Problems in Implementing Apprenticeship

33. Were there some trainees forced not to attend the apprenticeship training?

Yes ☐ No ☐

34. If you say 'yes' to number 33, what are the possible reasons? (Multiple selections is possible)

a. absence of apprenticeship centre ☐

b. Inconvenient of apprenticeship period ☐

c. Being non- regular trainees ☐

d. large number of trainees compared to the number of organizations ☐

35. Supervisors in the organization evaluate trainees'

a.. based on the apprenticeship guideline ☐ b. based on their own criteria ☐

c. based on personal relations with apprentice ☐ d .do not evaluate at all ☐

36. What mechanism was set for those apprentices who do not attend the apprenticeship training due to different reasons? (Multiple selections is possible)

a. forced to withdraw

b. another apprenticeship period was arranged ☐

c. additional theoretical learning for compensation was give ☐

d. nothing was done ☐

37. Which of the following do you think solve financial problems on apprenticeship programs? (Multiple selections is possible) ☐

a. apprentice should pay for the training offered

b. the government should allocate the budget for apprenticeship ☐

c. apprenticeship organizations should pay for apprentice ☐

d. there should be apprenticeship fund raising committee ☐

e. apprenticeship offering organizations should be exempted from tax ☐

38. Which of the following do you think solve problems on apprenticeship programs in general? (Multiple selections is possible)

a. establishing advisory committee ☐ b .give financial support to apprentice ☐

c. arrange work shops and seminars to concerned bodies ☐

d. establish apprenticeship committee containing trainees, trainers and supervisors ☐

e. revising the apprenticeship proclamation ☐

APPENDIX -4

Addis Ababa University

Graduate Studies

College of Education

Department of Business Education

Questionnaire to be filled by trainers

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather data on implementation of apprenticeship training programs in three colleges at Arba Minch. Accordingly, the success of this study depends on your genuine responses. Be sure that the information you provide will be kept confidential and used only for academic purpose.

Please note that

- ❖ No need of writing your name
- ❖ Where alternatives are given, please mark "X" in the corresponding space.
- ❖ Please be free as possible as to answer open end questions.

Part I. General Background

1. Name of college ----------

2. Sex male ☐ female ☐

3) Qualification MA/M SC☐ BA/B SC ☐ Diploma ☐ Other ☐

4. Field of specialization _____

5. years of service ___

a. as a teacher ___ b. as educational officer ____. c. as principal _____ d. other_____

Part II. Selection and Arrangement of Apprenticeship

1. Are there criteria set for selection of apprenticeship training centers? Yes ☐ No ☐

2. If you say "Yes" for number 1, which of the following are among the criteria (multiple selection is possible). a. number of employees in the organization ☐

b. interest of organizations ☐ c. Availability of supervisors and occupations ☐

d. Type of ownership (government or non-government) ☐ e. others ☐

3.Who assigns trainees to the selected organizations (multiple selection is possible)?

a. Vocational counselor ☐ b. Trainers /teachers ☐ c .organizations' request ☐

d. Through trainees personal contact ☐ e. college management ☐

4. What criteria are used in assigning trainees to the apprenticeship centers?

a. Field of study ☐ b. Distance from Residence ☐

c. Interest of apprentices ☐ d. On lottery basis ☐ e. others ☐

5. Who determine the number of trainees assigned to the apprenticeship centers (multiple selections are possible)? a. each organization ☐ b. training institutions ☐

c. advisory committee ☐ d. No formal procedure ☐

e. agreement between colleges and organizations ☐

6 Is there apprenticeship contract with apprenticeship centers? Yes ☐ No ☐

7. Apprenticeship training periods were arranged

a. during summer vacation ☐ c. Shifting system ☐

b. For specified period ☐ d. Others ☐

8. Is the period you indicate in "7" convenient for majority of trainees? Yes ☐ No ☐

9. If you say 'No' for number 7, which of the following period be more suitable (multiple selection is possible)?

a. at the beginning of each year ☐ b. during semester break ☐

c .at the end of each year ☐ d. at the end of the program ☐

Part III. Implementations of Apprenticeship

10. Were apprentice assigned training based on the field of study? Yes ☐ ☐

11. If your answer in number 10 is 'No', which of the following be possible reasons (multiple selections are possible)?

a. absence of field of study ☐ b. Lack of supervisor in the field of study ☐

c. Misunderstandings of organizations about apprenticeship ☐

d. less coordination between colleges and apprenticeship centers ☐

12 . For how long do apprenticeship trainees attend training at a time in the work place?

a. one month ☐ b. three weeks ☐ c .two weeks ☐ d. one week ☐

e. two month

13. What is your opinion regarding the duration of training at the work place?

a. more than enough ☐ B. Enough ☐ c. Not enough ☐

14. Did organizations assign supervisors to apprenticeship centers? Yes ☐ No ☐

15. If your answer in 14 is "yes", to what extent do supervisors assist apprentice at the work place? a. highly ☐ b. sufficiently ☐. Moderately ☐

d. low ☐ e. very low ☐

16. Did training colleges follow apprenticeship practices at the work place? Yes ☐ No ☐

17. If your answer for number 16 is "yes", how frequently?

a. Daily ☐ b. Once a week ☐

c. Once in two weeks ☐ d. Once in a month ☐ e. others ☐

18. If your answer in number 16 is "No" which of the following be possible reasons (multiple selection is possible)?

a. shortage of manpower ☐ b. Management's negligence ☐

c. shortage of finance for per diem ☐

d. responsibility already handled by apprenticeship centers ☐ others ☐

Part IV. Linkage between Theoretical Knowledge and Apprenticeship

19. To what extent do apprenticeship training related with the theory taught?

a. Very high ☐ b. High ☐ c. Medium ☐

d. Low ☐ e. Very low ☐

20. Do you think that trainees gained the required occupational skill? Yes ☐ No ☐

21. If your say "yes" for 20 , to what extent do trainees gained the required skill?

a. very high ☐ b. Sufficiently ☐ c. moderately ☐ d. low ☐ e. very low ☐

22. If your answer in number 20 is "No", which of the following be possible reasons?

a. no proper assistance was given ☐ b. apprentice low academic performance ☐

c. mismatch between training and working materials ☐

d. apprentice reluctant (unwillingness) ☐ e. others

Part V. Problems in Implementing Apprenticeship

23. Do you think that colleges' training problems influence on the apprenticeship training?

Yes ☐ No ☐

24. If your answer is number 23 is 'yes' which of the following be the causes? (multiple selection is possible)

a. shortage of training materials ☐ b. outdated training materials ☐

c. colleges poor management ☐ d. Trainers below the required standard ☐

e. shortage of manpower ☐ f. others ☐

25. Supervisors in the organization evaluate trainees

a. based on the apprenticeship guideline ☐ c. based on their own criteria ☐

b. based on personal relations with apprentice ☐ d .do not evaluate at all ☐

26. Which of the following do you think solve financial problems on apprenticeship programs? (Multiple selections is possible)

a. apprentice should pay for the training offered ☐

b. the government should allocate apprenticeship budget ☐

c. apprenticeship organizations should pay for apprentice ☐

d. there should be apprenticeship fund raising committee ☐

e. apprenticeship offering organizations should be exempted from tax ☐

27. Which of the following do you think solve problems on apprenticeship programs? (Multiple selections is possible)

a. establishing advisory committee ☐ b .give financial support to apprentice ☐

c. arrange workshops and seminars to concerned bodies ☐

d. establish apprenticeship committee containing trainees, trainers and supervisors ☐

e. revising the apprenticeship proclamation ☐

28. Were there a law supporting the implementation of apprenticeship traning?

Yes ☐ No ☐

29. If your answer in number 28 is 'yes' which of the following are used in your institution?

a. apprenticeship proclamation ☐ b. labor proclamation ☐

c. apprenticeship guideline ☐ d. Others ☐

30. What mechanism was set for those apprentices who do not attend the apprenticeship training due to different reasons? (Multiple selections is possible)

a. forced to withdraw ☐

b. another apprenticeship period was arranged ☐

c. additional theoretical learning for compensation was give ☐

d. nothing was done ☐

31 . Give your opinion on the following items by assigning the following values.

Strongly agree 5, very agree 4, agree 3,

Disagree 2 and strongly disagree 1

	5	4	3	2	1
a. Apprenticeship helps to be self-employed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
b. Organizations do not see apprenticeship as part of training	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
c. apprentice adapt new technologies at the work place	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
d. apprenticeship increases work habits and self-confidence	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
e. trainers and supervisors believed on apprenticeship	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
f. apprenticeship evaluations are given based on performance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
g. organizations benefited from apprenticeship training	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX -5

Addis Ababa University

Graduate Studies

College of Education

Department of Business Education

Interview guide for supervisors (owners) in apprenticeship centers

The purpose of this interview is to gather data on implementation of apprenticeship training programs in three colleges at Arba Minch. Accordingly, the success of this study depends on your genuine responses. Be sure that the information you provide will be kept confidential and used only for academic purpose.

Please note that

- ❖ No need of writing your name
- ❖ Where alternatives are given, please mark "X" in the corresponding space.
- ❖ Please be free as possible as to answer questions.

Part one: General Background

1. Name apprenticeship centers _____

2. Sex male ☐ female ☐

3) Qualification MA/M SC ☐ BA/B SC ☐ Diploma ☐ Other ☐

Part Two: General Questions

4. What arrangements are made before and during apprenticeship?

5. How do you support apprentice at the work place?

6. How do you express the relevance of apprenticeship training?

7. To what extent do apprentice relate theory with practice at the work place?

8. What are the major problems in apprenticeship training and steps that have been done to overcome these problems?

9. What is your suggestion about apprenticeship in general?

APPENDIX -6

Addis Ababa University

Graduate Studies

College of Education

Department of Business Education

Interview guide for Deans and vocational counselors/ apprenticeship coordinators

The purpose of this interview is to gather data on implementation of apprenticeship training programs in three colleges at Arba Minch. Accordingly, the success of this study depends on your genuine responses. Be sure that the information you provide will be kept confidential and used only for academic purpose.

Please note that

- ❖ No need of writing your name
- ❖ Where alternatives are given, please mark "X" in the corresponding space.
- ❖ Please be free as possible as to answer questions.

Part One: General Background

1. Name of college ----------

2. Sex male ☐ female ☐

3) Qualification MA/M SC☐ BA/B SC ☐ Diploma☐ Other ☐

Part Two. General Questions

4. What criteria are used in choosing and assigning apprenticeship centers? Are they appropriate?

5. What arrangements are made before and during apprenticeship?

6. How do you support apprentice at the work place?

7. How do you express the relevance of apprenticeship training and to what extent do apprentice relate theory with practices?

8. What are the major problems in apprenticeship training and steps that have been done to overcome these problems?

9. What do you suggest to improve the implementation of apprenticeship in general?

APPENDIX-7

Programs Specifications and Field of Studies

Colleges	Field of study	Programs					
		10+1		10+2		10+3	
		Regular	Non-Regular	Regular	Non-Regular	Regular	Non-Regular
TTC	Language	x	✓	x	x	✓	✓
	Mathematics	x	x	x	x	✓	✓
	Natural Science	x	x	x	x	✓	✓
	Social Science	x	x	x	x	✓	✓
HSC	Midwifery	✓	x	✓	x	x	x
	Public Health Nurse	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x
	Clinical Nurse	✓	x	✓	x	✓	x
TVET	Accounting	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x
	Auto Mechanic	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Electricity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Electronics	✓	x	x	x	✓	x
	General Mechanics	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓
	Information Technology	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x
	Machine Technology	✓	x	✓	x	✓	✓
	Secretarial Science	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x
	Surveying	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x
	Wood Work Technology	x	x	✓	x	x	x
	Hair Dressing	✓	x	x	x	x	x
	Bakery	✓	x	x	x	x	x
	Tailoring	✓	x	x	x	x	x
	Building Construction	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x

Source: Colleges' Registrar

✓ : Existence of the Program

X : Non-Existence of the Program

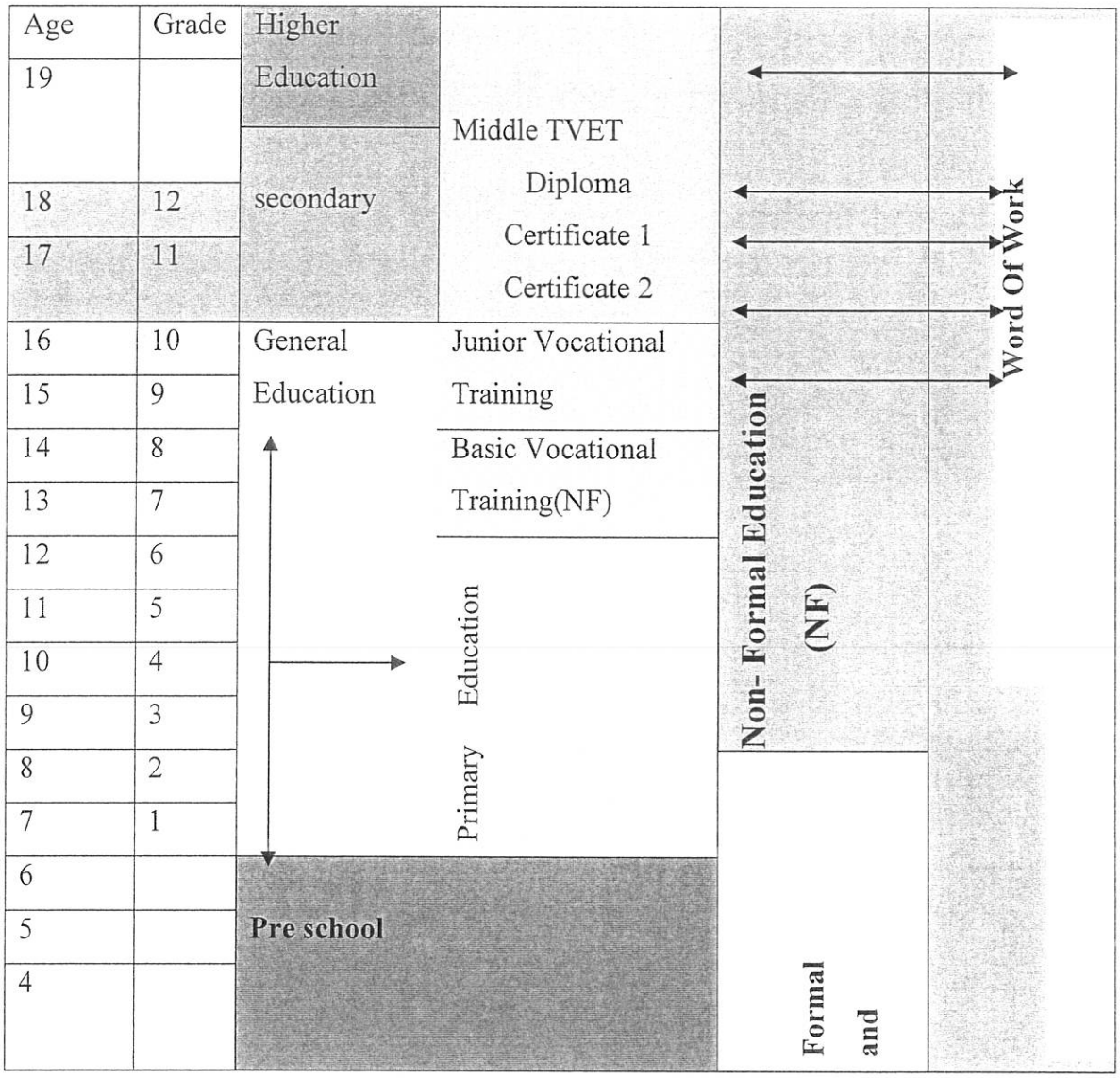
APPENDIX-8

Apprenticing Organization Selected for observation and Interviews

Organizations	Owner ship	
	Government	Non-government
Arba Minch Hospital	✓	
Arba Minch University	✓	
Arba Minch Textile Factory	✓	
Arba Minch Telecommunication	✓	
Arba Minch Electric and Power Authority	✓	
Arba Minch Municipality	✓	
Bikalech Beauty Salon		✓
Chamo Primary School	✓	
Central Pastry		✓
GamoGofa Zone Finance Office	✓	
Kacha General Garage		✓
Merab Abaya Primary School	✓	
Merab Abaya Health Center	✓	
Mic- Tec Computer Center		✓
Tamene Office and Home Furniture Production Center		✓

APPENDIX-9

Organization of Education and Training in Ethiopia



Source: MoE (1994)

3/ ጽህፈት ቤቱ የየወቅቱን ሳይንስና ቴክኖሎጂ እድገት እንዲሁም የህብረተሰቡን ፍላጎት መሠረት በማድረግ በዚህ አንቀጽ ንዑስ አንቀጽ ፪ ሥር የተዘረዘሩትን ትምህርቶች ማሻሻል ይችላል::

ክፍል ሶስት
ስለ ሥራ ላይ ልምምድ

፲፱. የሥራ ላይ ልምምድ ፕሮግራም አወሳሰን

ጽህፈት ቤቱ አሠሪዎችንና ጉዳዩ የሚመለከታቸው ሌሎች ወገኖችን በማማከርና የሙያ ሥልጠና ደረጃን መሠረት በማድረግ ለየሙያው የሥራ ላይ ልምምድ ፕሮግራም ይወስናል::

፳. በሥራ ላይ ልምምድ የሚሳተፉ ድርጅቶችን ስለመምረጥ

ጽሕፈት ቤቱ በሚያወጣው መመሪያና መስፈርት መሠረት ክልሉ ሥልጣን የሰጠው አካል የሥራ ላይ ልምምድ የሚሰጡ ድርጅቶችን ይመርጣል ይመዘግባል::

፳፩. የድርጅቶች ተግባርና ኃላፊነት

ማንኛውም ለሥራ ላይ ልምምድ የተመረጠ ድርጅት ከዚህ በታች የተመለከቱት ተግባርና ኃላፊነቶች ይኖሩታል:-

፩/ ሰልጣኞችን ተቀብሎ ማለማመድ፤

፪/ ተለማማጁን መለማመድ በሚገባው ቦታ ላይ በማሰማራት ተገቢውን የሥራ ልምድ ማግኘቱን ማረጋገጥ፤

፫/ የተለማማጁን እውቀትና ክህሎት ማዳበር የሚችል የእለት ተእለት የሥራ አፈጻጸሙን ለመከታተልና ለመገምገም ሙያዊ ብቃት ያለው ሱፐርቫይዘር መመደብ፤

፬/ ተለማማጁን ከድርጅቱ የአሠራር ሥርዓትና ደንብ ጋር ማስተዋወቅ፤

፭/ ተለማማጁን እንደ መደበኛ ሠራተኛ በመቁጠር አስፈላጊውን ግብዓት ማቅረብ፤

፮/ የተለማማጁን ሰብአዊ ክብርና መብት የመጠበቅና የማስከበር፤

3/ The Office may, based on the science and technology of the relevant time and the societal needs, modify the courses stated under Sub-Article 2 of this Article.

PART THREE
APPRENTICESHIP

19. Determination of apprenticeship training program

The Office shall, in consultation with employers and other concerned parties, and on the basis of pre-determined occupational standards, determine apprenticeship program for every occupation.

20. Organizations participating in a apprenticeship training

A body empowered by the State shall, based on guidelines and criteria determined by the office, select organizations that shall participate in the provision of apprenticeship training.

21. Duties and responsibilities of organizations

Every organization selected for apprenticeship training shall have duties and responsibilities as provided hereunder:

1/ To receive and provide apprenticeship training to trainees;

2/ To assign the apprentice in the place appropriate to his training and to ensure that the apprentice acquires proper work experience;

3/ To assign a capable supervisor who would enhance the knowledge and skills of the apprentice, and should follow up and evaluate the day-to-day performance of the apprentice.

4/ To acquaint the apprentice with work rules and methods of the organization;

5/ To consider the trainee as a regular employee and to provide him the necessary inputs;

6/ To respect and enforce human dignity of the apprentice;

፯/ የተለማማጁን የሥራ አፈጻጸም ብቃት በመገምገም ውጤቱ ለማሰልጠኛ ተቋሙ ማስተላለፍ፤

፰/ ተለማማጆች ከማሠልጠኛ ተቋሙ ያገኙትን ክህሎት በመገምገም ስለ ማሠልጠኛ ተቋሙ የማሰልጠን ብቃት ለሚመለከተው ተቋም አስተያየት መስጠት፤

፱/ ከማሰልጠኛ ተቋማት ጋር በትብብርና በቅንጅት መስራት።

፳፪. የማሠልጠኛ ተቋማት ተግባርና ኃላፊነት

የሥራ ላይ ልምምድን በተመለከተ ማንኛውም የማሠልጠኛ ተቋም ከዚህ በታች የተመለከቱት ተግባርና ኃላፊነቶች ይኖሩታል፡-

፩ ሠልጣኞች የሚያደርጉትን የሥራ ላይ ልምምድ የሚከታተልና የሚቆጣጠር አስተባባሪ መመደብ፤

፪/ የአሠራር መመሪያና ዝርዝር መርሀ ግብር በማውጣት ለተግባራዊነቱ ከድርጅቶች ጋር በቅንጅት መሥራት፤

፫/ የሠልጣኞችን የሥራ ላይ ልምምድ ግምገማ ውጤት ለሥልጠና ማጠናቀቂያ ማስረጃ አሰጣጥ በመመዘኛነት መጠቀም፤

፬/ ከአለማማጅ ድርጅቶች የሚቀርቡለትን አስተያየቶች በመቀበል የሥልጠናውን ብቃት ማሻሻል።

፳፫. የተለማማጅ ተግባርና ኃላፊነት

ማንኛውም ተለማማጅ ከዚህ በታች የተመለከቱት ተግባርና ኃላፊነቶች ይኖሩታል፡-

፩/ የሥራ ላይ ልምምዱን በትጋት ማከናወን፤

፪/ ለልምምድ የተሰጡትን መሣሪያዎችና ቁሳቁሶች በጥንቃቄ መያዝና በቁጠባ መጠቀም፤

፫/ የሥራ ላይ ልምምድ እንዲያደርግ የተመደበበትን ድርጅት የአሠራር ሥርዓትና ደንቦችን ማወቅና አክብሮ መፈፀም፤

፬/ በሌሎች ሕጐች የተደነገገው እንደተጠበቀ ሆኖ በሥራ ልምምዱ አጋጣሚ ያወቀውን የድርጅቱን የሥራ ሚስጥር ለሌላ አሳልፎ አለመስጠት፤

7/ To evaluate the performance of the opprentice and transmiate the results to the training institution.

8/ by inspecting the skill that the trinee acquired forward opinion to the conccrned organ as to the competency of the instition.

9/ To cooperate and work in coordination with training institutions;

22. Duties and responsibilities of training institutions

Regarding apprenticeship traning, every training institution shall have duties and responsibilities as provided hereunder:

1/ To assign a coordinator who shall follow up and control apprenticeship training undergone by trainees;

2/ To prepare operational guidelines and detailed programs and for their implementation, to cooperate and work in coordination with organizations;

3/ To utilize result of performance evaluation relating to apprenticeship training as a criterion for certification.

4/ by receiving opinion from the institution improve the fuaruty of the training.

23. Duties and responsibilities of an apprentice

Every apprentice shall have duties and responsibilities as provided hereunder:

1/ To diligently perform the apprenticeship training;

2/ To utilize with care and economy tools, equipment and materials supplied to him for training purposes

3/ To be acquainted with and to observe work rules and methods of the organization to which he is assigned for apprenticeship training;

4/ Without prejudice to the provisions of other laws, not to divulge to any other person work secrets of the organization that he acquired in the course of his apprenticeship training;

፭/ የራሱንም ሆነ የሌሎችን ጤንነት ወይም ሕይወት አደጋ ላይ የሚጥል ወይም የድር ጅቱን ጥቅም የሚነካ ጉዳይ ሲያጋጥም ለሚመለከተው አካል ወዲያውኑ ማሳወቅ::

፳፬. <u>የሥራ ላይ ልምምድ ውል</u>

የሥራ ላይ ልምምድ ውል በማሠልጠኛ ተቋም በድርጅትና በተለማማጅ መካከል የሚመሰረት ሆኖ:-

ሀ/ የተለማማጁን ሙሉ ስምና እድሜ፣

ለ/ የማሰለጠኛ ተቋሙን ስምና አድራሻ፣

ሐ/ የድርጅቱን ስምና አድራሻ፣

መ/ ተለማማጅ ልምድ እንዲያገኝበት የታቀደውን የሙያ ዓይነት፣

ሠ/ የሥራ ላይ ልምምዱ የሚጀመርበትን ቀንና የሚፈጀው ጊዜ፣

ረ/ የሥራ ላይ ልምምዱ ውል የሚቋረጥበትን ሁኔታ፣ የሚያመለክት መሆን አለበት::

ክፍል አራት
<u>የማሠልጠኛ ተቋማት የሚቋቋሙበትና የሚካሄዱበት ሁኔታ</u>

፳፭. <u>በሥልጠና ሥራ ተሳታፊ ስለመሆን</u>

መንግሥታዊ፣ የግል እና መንግሥታዊ ባልሆነ ድርጅት ባለቤትነት የሚካሄድ ማንኛውም ማሰልጠኛ ተቋም የቴክኒክና ሙያ ትምህርትና ሥልጠና መስጠት ይችላል::

፳፮. <u>ስለመቋቋም</u>

፩/ ተጠሪነቱ ለፌዴራል መንግሥት አካል የሆነ መንግሥታዊ ማሰልጠኛ ተቋም በሚኒስትሮች ምክር ቤት በሚወጣ ደንብ መሠረት ይቋቋማል፣

፪/ ተጠሪነቱ ለክልል መንግሥት አካል የሆነ ማንኛውም መንግሥታዊ ማሰልጠኛ ተቋም በክልሉ መንግሥት በሚወጣ ሕግ መሠረት ይቋቋማል፣

5/ To immediately inform the concerned body, when he becomes aware of, any event or fact which may be a threat to his or others' health or life, or which may affect the interests of the organization;

24. Contract of apprenticeship

Contract of apprenticeship shall be concluded among a training institution, an organization and an apprentice, and shall contain the following

a) Full name and age of the apprentice;

b) Name and address of the training institution:

c) Name and address of the organization;

d) The occupation in which the apprentice is intended to undergo apprenticeship training;

e) The date on which the apprenticeship shall start and its duration; and

f) Conditions for the termination of the contract of apprenticeship.

PART FOUR
ON THE ESTABLISHMENT AND OPERATION OF TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

25. Participation in the provision of training

Any public or private training institution or one owned by a nongovernmental organization may provide technical and vocational education and training.

26. Establishment

1/ Any public training institution which is accountable to any organ of the Federal Government shall be established by Regulations to be issued by the Council of Ministers.

2/ Any public training institution which is accountable to any organ of a State shall be established by a law to be issued by the State legislature.

This thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as a university advisor.

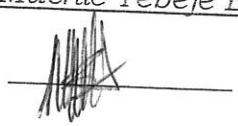
Name Haile Selassie Woldegenna

Signature

Date of approval May 7, 2007

I here by confirmed that this thesis is my original work and that all sources of the materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name *Muchie Tebeje Ejigu*

Signature 

Date *May 25, 2007*

IOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

SSES, CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS TO PE IN BENISHANGUL GUMUZ REGION: THE AGRO-PASTORALIST GUMUZ COMMUNITY CHILDREN

By
DIBISSA SIRIKA

SUCCESSES, CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS TO ACHIEVE UPE IN BENISHANGUL GUMUZ REGION: THE CASE OF AGRO-PASTORALIST GUMUZ COMMUNITY CHILDREN

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Many people and organizations were by my side in undertaking of this study for which their cooperation and effort were instrumental for the successful completion of this work.

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AAU- Addis Ababa University
AED- Academy for Educational Development
ADB- African Development Bank
ANCEFA- African Network Campaign on Education for All
BESO – Basic Education Strategic Objective
BGREB- Benishangul Gumuz Regional Education Bureau
BGRS- Benishangul Gumuz State
CSA- Central Statistics Agency
DVV- Desdeutschen Volkshochshul- Verbandes
EFA- Education For All
EMPDA- Educational Material Production and Distribution Agency
EPaRAD- Ethiopian Pastoralist Research and Development Association
ERGESE- Evaluation Research on the General Education System of Ethiopia
ESDP- Education Sector Development Program
ESR- Education Sector Review
ETP- Education and Training policy
FAWE- Forum for African Women Educationalist
FDER-Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
FGD- Focus Group Discussion
GB- Great Britain
GER- Gross Enrolment Rate
IER- Institute of Educational Research
IICBA- International Institute for capacity Building in Africa
IIEP- International Institute for Educational Planning
IIZ- Institute for International Zusammenarbit
JRM-Joint Review Mission
KETB- Kebele Education and Training Board
MDGs- Millennium Development Goals
MoE- Ministry of Education
NER- Net Enrolment Rate
PTA- Parent Teacher Association
REB- Regional Education Bureau
SMAPP- School Mapping and Micro-planning Project
TGE- Transitional Government of Ethiopia
UN- United Nation
UNESCO - United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA- United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF- United Nations Children's Fund
UPE- Universal Primary Education
USAID- United States Agency for International Development
WCEFA- World Conference on Education for all

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the major success, challenges and prospects in achieving the target of UPE in the agro-pastoralist areas of BenishangulGumuz Region of Metekel zone. Based on this, analyzing the status of primary education with respect to the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz localities is very important to decide up on the future goals which are intended to meet the target at the year 2015. Particularly to provide primary education to all children of the official school admission age, evaluating the challenging factors and identifying the cause for prevailing problem and suggesting the possible strategies to alleviate the problems enables to achieve the UPE target.

The research design employed in this study was descriptive survey. Apart from consultation of relevant documents from different source, data were gathered from 305 Gumuz students, 86 teachers, 15 school principals, 21 REB, zone and woreda educational experts and officials, 21 PTA members 12 Gumuz community elders and 15 KETB teams. The data collected was analyzed using some statistical tools like percentage, mean and chi-square test.

The data from documentary analysis indicated that the educational status of Agro-Pastoralist Gumuz children participation in primary school is extremely low. This indicated that there were challenging factors for the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz localities to achieve the target of UPE. Based on this finding, school related and out-of-school related constraints were assessed to identify the challenging factors. The school related challenges like irrelevance of curriculum, inappropriate medium of instruction, shortage of student text book, absence of upper primary (5-8) school have been identified as major challenges that hinder the achievement of UPE. The out-of-school challenging factors were further categorized as socio-economic, socio-cultural and socio-climatic problems. The socio-economic constraints like low parental income, high demand of child labor by their parents, distance from home to school and lack of awareness of Gumuz parents about the value of education were found to be the major barriers to the educational involvement of the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children. Moreover, socio-cultural constraints like existence of exchanging Gumuz females to get wife for her brother, lack of educated role model, and lack of awareness of Gumuz parents about the value of girls' education were also found to be the major barriers to educational participation of the agro-pastoralist Gumuz children. Furthermore, socio-climatic constrains like the impact of malaria on the students health were found as a major problem. Hence, it is concluded that in most cases there was challenges that hinder the involvement of Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children in primary schools which was a function of school related, Socio-economic, socio-cultural and socio-climatic constraints, which altogether indicated as there were challenges in achieving UPE particularly in the agro-pastoralists localities and generally in the region. Depending on this findings the recommendation made for addressing the challenges are upgrading the existing schools, using the non-formal approach, using resettlement program, realizing awareness and advocacy program, using boarding school, school feeding program and using alternative basic education.

CHAPTER ONE

1. THE PROBLEMS AND ITS APPROACH

1.1. Background of the Problem

Education, particularly primary education, is one of the most powerful instruments known for reducing poverty and inequality, for laying bases to sustained economic growth, sound governance, and effective instruction (Bruns & Mingat, 2003). It is also taken as a fundamental tool in the service of construction of democratic societies and dynamic, globally competitive economies. Moreover, primary education as a provision of skill and knowledge has strong influence on the economic growth. In light of its importance, it is assumed that many of the developing nations are economically poor mostly because they lack literate societies that can wisely exploit the available resources (Psacharopoulos & Woodhall, 1991).

In this respect the issue of universal primary Education was a desirable and essential goal for the political, social and economical development of the poor nations of the world and has been accepted for a very long time. In realizing these facts, many developing countries made tremendous efforts to provide education to their citizens. Most of the African countries held a historical educational conference in 1960, 1961, 1962 and 1966 at Karachi, Addis Ababa, Santiago and Tripoli respectively to achieve UPE by 1970 in Latin America and 1980 in Africa, Asia and Arab State. However, this has not been applicable because of different social and political problems (Colclough and Lewin in Derebssa, 1999). According to the resolution of the conference on African Education, Ethiopia compared to other African countries, lagged far behind in meeting the target of UPE in educational development (Bastian, 2004).

Similarly, the world education forum held in Jomtien, Thailand, in the year 1990 involving 155 countries set the goal for EFA by the year 2000 also targeted UPE as a goal that all children, young people and adults would have the fundamental right to basic education. However, the goal of primary education in most of these countries remains to be elusive even after many years of their commitment (Mulugeta, 2007).

On this side, Ethiopia during the Imperial period set strategies of ESR in 1971 for the rapid expansion of primary education with the view of achieving universal literacy before the year 2000 by targeting the rural population as educational policy which also doomed to failure (Tekeste, 1990).

Ten years later(in the 2000), the Dakar (Senegal) conference was held considering performance after Jomtien conference and noted the goals set were not achieved so that the time frame was extended from 2000 to 2015 to achieve the goals (UNESCO,2000). Of course, the 2000 assessment demonstrates that there have been significance progress in many countries towards the vision set but the prospects for such success appears bleaker in many other countries particularly in Africa (Derebssa, 1999). Moreover, UNESCO (2005) states that for all the inherent goodness that primary educations offered have been pursued by all concerned for some decades, the goal of UPE remains beyond the reach of many developing countries.

The problem seems to be more dominant in areas of the nomadic population of African countries. According to Carry-Hill and Peart (2005), the rate of primary enrollment for children was significantly below the national average where the nomadic pastoralists and agro-pastoralists constitute about 6% of the African population and can be found in no less than 20 African countries. At present these groups of African population are in a particular challenge for development in general and education in particular.

With this regard Getachew (2001) also states that, in Ethiopia pastoralists were estimated to be about 8 million, which constitute 13 percent of the total population and occupied the range land of about 500,000km2, which is about 65 percent of the total area of the nation but account large percent of illiteracy. Moreover, in indicating the severity of the problem with the marginalized group in Ethiopia, Shibashi Degafa and G/Kidan (as cited in Ezomah, 1995) explained that, in the past regimes except the very few children who were given the chance of education and

training in order to serve the then regime, most of the nomadic pastoral population had not benefited much from the education system.

In this regard, in Ethiopia it is believed that provision of basic education to all the future citizens of the country is one of the policy goals articulated in the new ETP program (TGE, 1994). But, Ethiopia faced a difficulty and unenviable uphill task to expand education system and provide equitable access to children of both genders, urban and rural, in all geographic areas, remote and near (Bastian, 2004).

Throughout the relatively long history of basic education in the country, the problem of provision of education not only discontinued but also became ever complex and challenging particularly in the peripheral areas of the regions like Afar, Somali, Benishangul and other parts of the country (Ayalew Shibeshi et.al, 2002). In line with this, the MoE (2007) states that basic development of infrastructures and social services including education and training in the pastoral areas were very skimpy. Various research findings also illustrate that the salient problems of nomadic education are closely associated with the socio-economic, socio-cultural and nature of the environment they found in, which includes drought, poverty, far school home distance and harmful traditional practices, etc (MOE, 2002).

As explained by Psacharopolous and Woodhall (1991) and also by Ayalew Shibeshi et al. (2002), in some cases school enrolment was low as school supply was low while in other cases young people or their families do not chose to take the advantage of this existing opportunity in educating their children. Focusing on the second point they further states that even when the supply of school was sufficient to provide the opportunity to UPE, shortfalls may occur since a wide variety of further factors also affects enrolment. The educational, social, economic bases, general level of living conditions and cultural characteristics of rural household are the determinant factors of the demand for schooling.

Moreover, educational planners often attribute the low levels of educational participation to supply side constraints, and government efforts were directed at expanding the supply of school. However, the low level of supply in many poor

countries serve to obscure to what extent the lack or limited demand for educational service by household because of their incapability of low level income to educate their children negatively affected their children educational participation (AID/BESO, 2005).

Many attempts have been made to establish educational service to meet the learning needs of nomadic pastoralist but they have, on the whole failed. This largely appears to be due to the failure of educational provision to respond appropriately to the nomadic way of life, to their culture, social, economic and climatic conditions. Furthermore, curriculum, language time of education, proximity of school to home and their culture should be given attention (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Moreover, most habitats that nomadic group occupies temporarily is found to have the most underdeveloped transport and communication infrastructures, making it difficult to open school. Even where schools exist, learners might not be there because of barriers of the social, economic, cultural and other related factors (Tekeste, Tsehaye, and Dagnew in Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

As far as achieving UPE is concerned, the most challenging factors that are resource constraints, shortage of schools etc. are obvious and common reasons for a country. In both cases, the solution to the problem would undoubtedly be getting money and building more and more schools. But, there are other most prominent bottlenecks that hinder the achievement of UPE in the agro-pastoralist localities which can further go beyond the supply side problems in which it needs to consider their social, economical and other factors to improve their participation in primary schools (Ezomah, 1995).

The peripheral areas of Metekel Zone, which is found in Benishangul Gumuz regional state, is one of the most neglected and disadvantaged area with regard to access to social service like education and health etc. The region is divided in to three administrative zones, namely, Assossa in which the capital of the region is found, Metekel, and Kamashi. The zones are further divided into 20 'Woredas'

comprising 504 'Kebeles'. According to the Annual Statistical Abstract of the Region (FDRE CSA, 2008) the area covers about 50,380km and a population of 670,847 which consists indigenous population of five ethnic groups namely Gumuz, Berta, shinasha Mao and Komo. There are also other large ethnic groups like Amhara, Oromo and others living in the region (BGRS, 2004).

Among the indigenous population of the region, Gumuz, Shinasha, Mao, and Komo's are considered to be Agro-pastoralist communities and live at the harsh and hard to reach conditions with very low participation in the education system and illiteracy rate of 82.1%(BGRS,2004). Henceforth, the regional government was committed to provide primary education and given emphasis to the sector with the expansion and construction of many schools at various places of the region and as the result the participation rate of the region in general has increased to 76.6%. Moreover, according to the statistical data of 2003/4-2007/8, the GER for the primary education in the region was increased from 100.5 percent to 107.5 percent with an average annual growth of 1.4 percent (BGREB, annual abstract, 2007/08).

The GER and NER of the agro-pastoralist areas of Metkel zone was 76.6 percent and 62.3 percent respectively (BGREB, Annual Abstract, 2007/08). These enrolment ratios compared to the regional 107.5 and 82.7 percent and the national 91.7 and 79.1 percent GER and NER respectively was also discouraging conditions that challenges the achievement of UPE. In this case, as it was described by Derebssa (2006) who states that only those countries whose NER is 80 percent and above currently can achieve UPE in 2015, it seemed the region faced difficulty to achieve the target as far as the agro-pastoralist areas was considered with NER of 62.3 percent.

Today, the government is committed to provide quality education for all by the year 2015 which is also the major priority of ETP of 1994. However, it is very difficult for the region to achieve the goal of equity of opportunity in universal primary education so long as the Agro-pastoralist groups of the region are forgotten educationally.

Moreover, the researcher is in doubt about the reported NER (82.7percent) of the region (BGREB, Annual Abstract, 2008/9). This is mainly because the total school age children in the region is 111,033 while the report of Ethiopia Population and house census in 2007 indicates the school age (7-14) population in the region that accounts 152,747 in which the NER of the region should be 72.7 percent instead of 82.7 percent.

Therefore, it is imperative and timely to investigate the challenging factors that affect the participation of primary education in achieving UPE by the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region. Moreover, exploring possible alternative strategies and suggesting some solutions are also important to facilitate the achievement of UPE to the deprived children's of Agro-pastoralist Gumuz communities as they constitute the large number among the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The transitional government of Ethiopia has designed the new education and training policy in 1994 which has the objective of improving relevance, quality, access and equity of education (TGE, 1994). The international declaration of Human Right also contains provision of compulsory and free primary education on non-discrimination approach to education (Lerner, 1991).

Therefore, everybody is expected to enjoy with this right because of its individual nature of right and hence education is believed to be a corner stone of economic growth and social development as well as major means of improving the well being of individuals which can be realized only by being involved in education. However, the people who live in pastoralist and Agro-Pastoralist areas of Ethiopia are under the influence of harsh climatic condition, deprived of basic educational service and there was no much attention given to these groups of people since the introduction of modern education in Ethiopia (Petros, 2008).

As Carr-Hill and Peart (2005), pastoralist groups are scattered across a wide area and usually in the most inaccessible parts of the country that makes the problem of

expansion of primary education probably to alleviate than solved. Accordingly, there were no significant strategies and options designed to alleviate the existing problem of educational provision and achieving the target of EFA through expansion of primary education to the deprived Gumuz Agro-Pastoralist.

Moreover, many children in Ethiopia have access to schooling but they do not attend. Some families especially from the farming and nomadic background tend to place greater values on the time children spend in other activities, such as performing work for income because of the constraints on their economic background (Ezomah, 1995).

Likewise, Mandura, Dangur and Guba Woredas with arid and semi-arid climate are the habitat of Gumuz Agro-Pastoralist in Metekel Zone of BGRS in which there is a significant number of pastoralists Gumuz children who are out of school. The enrollment rate in this area is lowest with NER of 62.3 percent when it was compared to all the 7 woredas of the zone as well as the regional enrollment rate, which is 79.3 percent and 82.7 percent respectively in 2006/07(BGREB, Annual Statistics Abstract, 2007/08:9).

The other demand side discouraging condition was the PSR and PTR of the agro-pastoralist area. In this case the PSR with 35.7:1 and PTR of 45:1 are very low compared to the regional 62:1 and 47.5:1 and the national standard of 60:1 and 50:1PSR and PTR respectively (BGREB, Annual Abstract, 2006/07). This shows the inefficient usage of resource and low quality provision of primary school respectively which also challenges the achievement of UPE.

Based on the above facts and according to BGREB perspective plan on achieving UPE in provision of quality primary education to all by 2015 would not be easy in the region because of the following major fears.

The first major fear was the fact that the large number of children who should get this opportunity were out of school. Particularly among school age children (7-14), 43.1 percent are out of school. This also contradicted with the idea that Bastian

(2004) states in the summary of operational definition of UPE in which a country must reach a minimum of 80 percent NIR latest by 2007/08 to achieve UPE.

Secondly, even among children who come to school, a significant number of them dropout and repeated before the necessary knowledge which contradicted the idea that repetition and dropout rates should be brought down to 5 percent in all grades as soon as possible latest 2006/7 to achieve the UPE target(Bastian, 2004).

Thirdly, even though schools are there, the lowest PSR and PTR of the agro-pastoralist localities indicated inefficiency and suffer low participation in primary schooling which is worse and might be because of the other social, economical, cultural and climatic problems of the agro-pastoralist Gumuz community as stated by Psacharopolous and woodhall(1991) and Ayalew Shibeshi et.al (2002) above.

In general the situation in Metekel zone of Agro-Pastoralist still was not only frustrating but also creating serious challenges in achieving the goal of EFA. Thus identifying the major challenging factors that contribute to low primary school participation in the study area and coming up with some possible strategic interventions taken by the region in general and agro-pastoralist areas in particular to overcome the problems to achieve the UPE target is the concern of the study.

1.3. Objective of the Study

1.3.1. General Objective

The general objective of this study is to assess the current status of promoting primary education and to investigate the school related and out-of-school related challenging factors that hinder the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas of BGRS.

1.3.2. Specific Objective

1. To assess the status of primary education in the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region;

2. To identify the major challenging factors those hinder the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region;
3. To investigate the extent to which the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children obtain access, quality and equity in primary education; and
4. To recommend appropriate strategies that could enhance educational participation of Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children in Metekel zone.

To realize the above objective in the course of the study, the following basic questions were addressed:

1) What is the current status of primary education at the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region?
2) To what extent the out- of school factors (like socio-economic, socio-cultural, socio-climatic etc.) affect the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region?
3) To what extent the school related factors (like, curriculum, teaching material, language etc.) affect the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region?
4) What possible strategies are there to increase the chance of achieving UPE in Metekel zone of Gumuz communities

1.4. Significance of the Study

According to the new education and training policy of Ethiopia (TGE, 1994), education should be relevant to respond the needs and interest of the people which should also be true for Agro-pastoralist areas of the region. Education should also be based on their daily life and could able to solve the problems that the Agro-pastoralist encounters. As the Agro-pastoralist is deprived with many problems such as inaccessible areas, socio-economic socio-demographic factors etc, and hence the type and method of education given should be appropriate with their life. In this regard assessing and identifying the major factor that hinders the achieving of UPE in the Agro-Pastoralist areas of the region and suggesting an applicable strategy is essential. Even though, the study might not exhaustively provide solution for the problem under considerations it will have the following significance:

2. To identify the major challenging factors those hinder the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region;
3. To investigate the extent to which the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children obtain access, quality and equity in primary education; and
4. To recommend appropriate strategies that could enhance educational participation of Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children in Metekel zone.

To realize the above objective in the course of the study, the following basic questions were addressed:

1) What is the current status of primary education at the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region?
2) To what extent the out- of school factors (like socio-economic, socio-cultural, socio-climatic etc.) affect the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region?
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1. The study may help the region to examine and be aware of the challenging factors that hinder the achievement of UPE by the intended time
2. Since there is no any study carried out on the issue under the study in the Agro-Pastoralist areas of Gumuz prior to this, it is hoped that the study may indicate the major problems related to providing primary educational service so that concerned authorities will take corrective measures to reverse the trend and to alleviate the existing problems
3. It provides BGREB with an information regarding the problems pertinent to the Agro-Pastoralist and hence plan an action to alleviate these problems to achieve the UPE by the year 2015
4. It helps as preliminary information for local educational administrators to identify the various challenging factors that hinder the achievement of UPE and put a strategy to solve them in their order of seriousness
5. It enables the non-governmental and governmental organizations by providing information to plan specific actions for these areas so that the Agro-pastoralist children of the region will be attracted to school
6. The study also helps to provide valuable suggestion for the policy makers, planners, and other concerned authorities to minimize, even though difficult to solve, the problems
7. Finally, the study will serve as a preliminary information/base for those who wish to conduct further and detail studies on Agro-pastoralist education in this area or in all of the country where Agro-Pastoralist is common

1.5. Delimitation of the Study

According to Seyoum and Ayalew (1999) to carry out any research work it should be important to delimit the study to a manageable size. Similarly, the spatial boundary of the study was limited to the Agro-Pastoralist areas of Metekel zone of BGRS. The study includes REB, Zone, Woreda education officers and experts, 17 primary schools, teachers, principals from the selected primary schools, community elders of Agro-Pastoralist, PTA members and KETB teams. Therefore the study was

delimited itself to the formal primary schools (1-8) excluding those of the ABE schools as they are supplementary (one strategy) and very significant in number.

Moreover, it is obvious that the challenging factors that affect the achievement of UPE are many and diverse in nature. Therefore, this study was delimited to the factors affecting the achievement of UPE, mainly on climatic, socio-economic, culture, policy, curriculum and security issues. In addition the study was also delaminated to assess some of the successes and strategies implemented in achieving the UPE by the year 2015 in the Agro-Pastoralist areas of the study. Furthermore, in order to investigate the problem deeply, the scope of the study is delimited to one of the Agro-pastoralist zone of the region, Metekel zone, and on three woredas of the zone (Mandura, Dangur, and Guba) that has considered to be low primary education enrollment compared to the rest areas of the zone and where much of its challenging factors in achieving UPE had not been studied previously.

1.6. Limitation of the Study

Among the various problems encountered, the collection of primary and secondary data at Zonal and Woreda education departments and schools records were very difficult. It was not only difficult to find the concerned persons, but also the Educational Management and Information System statistical data were not well organized and available in Woreda and zone levels. On top of this the Annual abstract obtained was only the 2006/7 which might be old to compare it with 2009. Moreover, the transportation from one school to another was not easily accessible. In addition to this there were also language barriers which raise the problem. The impact of all these short comings made additional cost of resources and time on the researcher. Had it not been possible to manage all the stated problems, the study would have not been more completed.

1.7. Definition of Key Terms

Agro-pastoralist- Segment of pastoral husbandry society who promotes opportunistic crop farming integrated to their livestock husbandry practices and

who live in semi- permanent settlements (Ayalew Shibeshi and et.al, 2002).

Basic Education- refers to learning out comes, i.e knowledge and skill acquisition and application, positive attitude formulation, internalization and exhibition of values for a variety of life (Ayalew Shibeshi and et.al. 2002)

Formal Education- Highly institutionalized chronologically graded and hierarchically structured educational system spanning lower primary school and the upper reachers of university (Coombs and Ahmed in Petros, 2008)

Non Formal Education- any organized systematic educational activities carried on outside the framework of formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular subgroups in the population, adults, youth as well as children (Coombs and Ahmad in Petros, 2008)

Nomads- ethnic groups who travel and migrate in large or small scale clan groups in search of means of livelihood with in a community (Ezeomah, 1995)

Nomadic Education- a non-formal education provided to nomadic people within their culture context (Ezeomah, 1995)

Pastoralist- a term used interchangeably with nomads and that reflects a life style based up on maintenance of herds of animal, which depends mainly on natural vegetation for their food (Ayallew Shibeshi et al., 2002)

1.8. Description of the study Area

According to FDRE CSA report of 2007(CSA, 2008) the area covers about 50,380km^2 and the population 670,847 which consist indigenous population of five ethnic groups namely Gumuz (21.1%), Berta (25.9%), shinasha (7.59%) Mao (1.9%) and Komo (0.96%) (FDRE CSA, 2008). There are also other large ethnic groups like Amhara (22.2%), Oromo (12.8%) and others living in the region (BGRS, 2004).

Out of the total population of the region, 125, 498 were primary school age (7-14) children and out of these children 102,539 were enrolled in primary school in 2006/7. Out of the indigenous ethnic groups of the region Mao, Gumuz, Shinasha

and Komo were belong to the agro-pastoralist groups with population of 37,000 (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

1.9. Organization of the Study

This study consists of five chapters. Chapter one deals with the problem and its approach. Chapter two treats review of related literature. Chapter four is concerned with the analysis and interpretation of the study while chapter five presents summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study. Finally, list of bibliography, sample questionnaire, interview and FGD guide lines, observation check list and list of different tables are attached to the appendix of the report.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 REVIEW OF RELATED LITRATURE

This chapter is devoted to the literature concerning the study. It deals with conceptual framework of UPE, why UPE is so important, pastoral education and classification of pastoral group, strategies to realize the achievement of UPE and major challenges that hinder the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas are presented as follows.

2.1 Conceptual Framework of UPE

The concepts of UPE, as a desirable and essential goal for the political, social and economic development of the poor nations of the world, have been accepted for a very long period of time. However the way UPE has been defined has also influenced the way its status and progress has been measured and the choice of strategies adopted to pursue the goal (Bastian, 2004).

2.1.1. The Concepts of UPE

UPE, as a concept, is a chameleon, taking on expanded meanings as more is understood about the nature of the problem. It is seen, examined and explained by different people from various disciplines using different perspectives for different reasons. The UPE goals also continue to shift and change as the concept of UPE is redefined and as one set of strategies lead to new problems (Derebssa, 2006)

Furthermore, our understanding of the concepts, the perceived constraints, and strategies recommended is complicated as more and more researchers, policy analysts and commentators incorporate their own disciplinary views to bear on it (Mulugeta, 2007).

UPE, in the literal sense would also mean everyone in a population having a full primary school education. The term UPE has also been used interchangeably (and often confused) with other terms such as Basic education, schooling for All, and Education for all. However when examined closely, difficulties emerge over what is

meant by the term "Universal", "Primary" and "Basic Education" (Bastian, 2004: Derebssa, 2006).

A. Universal

As it is justified by (Anderson, 1992) UPE has a central importance and a strategy for implementing the rights of boys, girls and women, and as a whole the right of the child. So it all people have a right to education, and if its impact upon people's capabilities is intrinsically part of our notion of development, it follows that the provision of a basic level of education for all people must be made universal.

B. Primary Education

The word "Primary" denotes that this is the first level of education. The term "basic" may be taken by some to show changes in emphasis and indicate that primary education is a complete and terminal phase of schooling in itself (Derbessa, 2006).

C. Basic Education

The Jomtien conference adopted "basic education" under what was coined "the expanded vision" to include education for out of school youth and adults in literacy and other basic skills training through non-formal education (UNESCO, 1992).

2.1.2. Operational Definition of UPE

For many countries, the definition of UPE and identification of indicators for the measurement of movement towards achieving UPE has posed many problems (Bastian, 2004). A good operational definition of UPE should have certain minimum characteristics. First, it should help policy makers, planners and other stakeholders to identify the sub strategic goals to be set to move the country towards UPE. Second, the definition should give us to identify and develop indicators that will help the education system to monitor the progress towards achieving UPE. Third, it should permit the planning process to set time frames for achieving UPE (Bastian, 2004: JICA and OEB, 2006).

On top of this Bastian (2004) identifies the following key elements necessary to give operational definition to the concept of UPE:

.Minimum of number of years of schooling

.Average number of days of schooling per year

.Average number of contact hours per day

.Levels of access and coverage that should be reached

.Levels of international efficiency of the education system

.Equity gender and geographical and

.Quality of primary education

Table 2.1: Ethiopian UPE: Summary of Operational Definition

No	*Elements of the UPE Definition*	*Targets & year or time period for achieving the target*
1	Minimum grade level to be completed or numbers of years of schooling	Eight years of schooling. This is the present policy
2	Average number of days of schooling per year	Between 195 and 200 days per school year. This is the present policy practice.
3	Average numbers of hrs of teaching learning per day. (Numbers of contact hours per day)	Four and half hours per day in the present double shift system. Includes 30 minutes of break time.
4	Access: Net Intake Rate (NIR)	Minimum 80 percent to be reached latest by 2007 (2000 E.C). Thereafter, the NIR is expected to increase gradually) to reach as close to 100 percent as possible.
5	Coverage: Apparent Intake Rate (AIR)	To reach a maximum of 130 percent latest by 2006 (1999 E.C)
6	Coverage: Gross enrolment rate (1-4)	GER for the first cycle to reach a maximum of 126 percent by 2009 (2002 E.C). Thereafter, GER begins to decline.
7	Coverage: GER (5-8)	GER for the second cycle (5-8) primary school to reach 120 percent by 2014 (2002 E.C)
8	Internal Efficiency: Dropout	Dropout to be brought down to below 5 percent in all the grades, as soon as possible, latest by 2007 (2000E.C)
9	Internal Efficiency: Repetition	Repetition to be brought down to below 5 percent in all grades, as soon as possible, latest by 2006 (1999 E.C)
10	Equity: Gender equity	Gender equity in apparent intake rate at 130 percent to be reached by 2006 (1999 E.C). With the planned reductions in dropout and repetition rates, this will lead to gender equity in GER at 126 percent in 2009 (2002 E.C). Gender equity for GER in the second cycle will achieved at 119 percent in 2013 (2006 E.C) two years before the target year for achieving UPE.
11	Equity: Geographical	Regional projections to fit the national strategy need to be conducted to establish target year for bringing regional equity. Regional such as Somali and Afar with very low access and coverage, at present will find it difficult to catch up with the rest of the country
12	Quality	Minimum quality standards have been established for educational inputs. There have been employed in the projections to establish inputs and costs. However, much works need to be done to measure the quality of the learning outcomes and the minimum skills acquired by the graduates of the primary schools. Learning assessments being undertaken by the country could lead to establishing standards for learning outcomes.

Source: UPE Operational Definition Bastian, 2004 Addis Ababa

2.2. Why is UPE so Important?

Education is a corner stone of economic growth, social development and a major means of improving the well-being of individual primary education is the foundation of formal education system. It helps to reduce poverty and improve living standards through sustainable growth and investment in people. Primary education has two main purposes. It helps to produce a literate and numerate population that can deal with problems at home and work place and it serves as a foundation up on which further education is built (Bastian, 2004: World Bank, 1990). Moreover, World Bank States that:

> ***A primary education has a direct and positive effect on earning, productivity as well as international effects on child health, nutrition, and education. However, in many developing countries education systems have not been able to meet their objectives. This is because they have not been ineffective in teaching children the basic skills included in their curriculum and they have not provided all school are children with the opportunity to attend school. Consequently, primary education has endangered national efforts to build a human capital base for development*** *(World Bank, 1990:98).*

Pertinent to this, Education, and particularly primary education, is one of the most powerful instruments known for reducing poverty and inequality and for laying their basis for sustained economic growth, sound governance, and effective instruction. It is fundamental for construction of democratic societies and dynamic, globally competitive economies (Bruns and Miagat, 2003).

2.3. Pastoralism and Pastoralist Education

2.3.1. Pastoralism and classification of pastoral groups

Pastoralism, sometimes used interchangeably with the terms 'nomadism', reflects a life style based upon maintenance of herds of animals that depend mainly on natural vegetation for their food. Pastoralism is then not a pure idealized form, but rather a living culture and economy encompassing practices that might see on surface to be inherently antagonistic to the pursuit of pastoralism (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Nomads are variously defined, broadly speaking they are ethnic or socio-economic groups who constantly travel and migrate in large or small groups in search of means of livelihood with in a community or country or across international boundaries. These groups contrast with the settled or sedentary population living in villages, towns and cities, and tied to fixed locations by agriculture, employment, housing and social and agricultural factors in their living style and culture (Ayalew Shibeshi et al., 2002).

On top of this, while all members of a 'pure' nomadic pastoralist groups will be on the move, there are some groups where a substantial fraction of the groups are settled in permanent habitats and the whole nomadic groups can be classified in to three stages as Nomadic pastoralism, Agro-pastralism, and transhumant-pastoralism (Carr-Hill and pear 2005).

Nomadic pastoralist: are those groups of society that do not have a recognized place of residence and any crop production is only a supplementary activity.

Agro-pastoralist: are those who engaged in crop production and animal hasbandry in more or less equal proportions. They (Agro-pastoralists) live in semi-permanent settlements, with goats and sheep tended by women and children becoming an increasingly significant activity while the males are away in search for pasture.

Transhumance refers to movement of livestock over more or less regular routes, and pastoralists engaging in this way have a recognized and permanent home territory.

Thus, the pastoral groups in Benishangul Gumuz Region of Metekel Zone can be grouped under both Agro-pastoralist and transhumance pastoralist.

2.3.2. Pastoral Education

Education could be seen as one vehicle for bringing nomadic pastoralist and their backward and inefficient production system into the twenty-first century, which is "for transforming nomadic pastoralist in to modern livestock producers" (Anderson, 1989).

In justification of this, Ezomah stated that:

> ***It is important to recognize that, in order to survive successfully in dry lands, pastoralist require high level of individual and social specialization. They can be very confident, articulate and enter preneurial, have good negotiating and management skills, and show a strong sense of dignity and self respect. Although their lack of formal schooling is seen as a problem, they are therefore, far from being a mass of drifting unskilled, under proletariat which is called as the central paradox when discussing the issue of providing education for pastoralist*** (Ezomah cited in Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005:49).

Officials argue that they have focused on bringing the majority of children into the education system rather than just nomadic groups, which would have been much less cost effective in terms of the numbers of children reached. However, given the renamed emphasis on EFA and the requirement to prepare plans for achieving that objective, the problem of providing education for nomadic groups, among other disadvantaged groups, is becoming more visible (Ayalew Shibeshi et.al, 2002).

2.3.3. Pastoral Groups in Ethiopia

Pastoralists in Ethiopia are mainly found in north eastern, eastern, southern, south eastern and extreme south western part of the country. All most all are found in marginal border areas and they are inhabit the low land part of the country (Ayalew Shibeshi et.at, 2002).

About 60-65 percent of the Ethiopian territory and 10 percent of its population are estimated to live under the pastoral production system and there are about 8 million pastoralist who live in Somali, Afar, Oromia, Benishangul Gumuz, Gambella and SNNP region of the country as indicated by table 2.2:

Table 2.2: Pastoral Group, Location and Estimated population in Ethiopia

Region	*Pastoralist Groups*	*Population (in 1000s)*
Afar	Afar, Somali, Argoba, Oromo	11,000
Oromia (Borena zone)	Oromo, Somali	2,577
Somali	Somali	3,690
SNNP and Gambella	More than 15 pastoralist group	550
Benishangul Gumuz	Komo, Shinasha, Gumuz, Benishangul (Berta).	37
Estimated total		**7,954**

Source: Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005

Due to the location where they are found, as more live in border and lowlands, they previously were politically marginalized society and they lacked stated economic and social concern, and hence they were remained backward (Hogg in pertros, 2008).

Moreover, it is true that these days the conductive conditions created for the development in pastoral areas. However, the development and expansion of education in the pastoralist areas need additional effort and still remains back compared to what has been achieved at country level. The present situation vividly illustrates that tackling the discrepancies of education in the pastoralist regions demands the intensive effort of all stake holders and employment of various strategies appropriate to the way of life of pastoralist (UNESCO, 1990).

2.4. Major challenges affecting universalization of primary education in Agro-Pastoralist groups

Many attempts have been made to establish education service to meet the learning needs of nomadic pastoralist but they have, on the whole failed. This largely appears to be due to the failure of educational provision to respond appropriately to the nomadic way of life, to the nomads' traditional culture and their need to retain flexibility in dealing with changing and possibly adverse circumstances, such as droughts, above all other needs (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

The most challenging factors which are resources constraints, shortage of school etc are obvious and common reason for a country. In both cases, the solution to the problem would undoubtedly be getting money and building more and more schools.

But, there are other most prominent bottlenecks that hinder the achievement of UPE of the agro-pastoralist children to education which are out-of-school related (such as socio-economic, socio-cultural child labor etc) and few are school related (such as relevance of curriculum, language of instruction etc.) in the case of the pastoral and agro-pastoral areas.

2.4.1. Out-of-School Challenges

2.4.1.1. Socio-Economic Challenges

A study by Bishop cited in Petros (2008), revealed that the reason for students at rural areas dropout from primary schooling is mainly the socio-economic conditions of the people, i.e. their poverty. Example, inability to pay school related expenditures, withdrawal of older children to herd cattle, sickness due to malnutrition and lack of medical care and for girls withdrawal from school to act as child nurses to the younger children while mothers are engaged in the family duties are all because of the poverty factor.

It is also believed that a major obstacle to children's basic education in Ethiopia is widespread poverty particularly at the household level. About 20 million rural household and 4 million urban households are estimated to live in absolute poverty. The relevance of poverty factors lies in the fact that, even when there are schools it inhibits school enrolment and attendance due to high cost it in cures (UNESCO, 1990).

2.4.1.2. Child Labor

In many developing countries, child labor is a major obstacle both to providing universal access to schooling and to reduce school wastage.

The International labor organization (ILO) estimates that 250 million children between the age of 5 and 14 are foiling in the work force of developing countries.

About half of these children work full-time, while the rest combine work with schooling or other non-economic activities (World Bank, 1998).

Moreover, UNICEF describes as:

> ***Clearly the circumstances of children engaged in hazardous, disabling and exploitative labor, paid or unpaid, constitute a major obstacle to children's participation in education. On the other hand, the implementation of UPE is a critical strategy for combating child labor. An approach that ensures children's right to education help to enforce child labor laws, providing incentives to poor families to educate their children, and helps charge attitudes and social norms that tolerate exploitation of children would help to achieve the goals of UPE and improve children well being*** (UNICEF, 1998:34).

Child labor and absenteeism from the school feed on each other. Thus measures to reduce it or to improve the coverage and quality of schooling tend to produce benefits in both areas. Poverty is generally seen as the most compelling reasons for child to work, but researchers have found that poverty needs to cause child labor (UNESCO, 1998).

Therefore, children of poor families, those who need every family member to work if they are to survive, frequently must forfeit education. As many countries face economic decline, the poorest families experience the greatest pressures, and when their income are falling, families often withdraw their children from school. Even when schooling is free, families must pay for clothes, transport and school supplies. These expenses, added to the loss of children's labor contributions to the household while they are in school, are costs poor families can ill afford (Anderson, 1989).

2.4.1.3. Socio-Cultural Challenges

Pastoralists have their own customs, norms and traditions and the attitude of parents towards education have its own effect on educational provisions and participation. Moreover, pastoralists are considered as change resistant toward modern schooling, which is rooted in their fear of cultural alienation and distortions of traditional values (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Pertinent to this, cultural constraints that negatively affect the education of children, especially girls, are numerous and commonly practiced. These include early marriage, polygamy, abduction and lack of physical safety less regarded for female education, abrupt mobility of nomadic parents, less value of girls' education, household labor demands by parents, lack of role models, religion and lack of access to a local secondary education (UNICEF, 2003).

Another study by World Bank cited in Augustine also revealed that a particular common reason for girls not attending or dropping out of school is early marriage. The study describes that although early marriage is decreasing and the legal age for marriage was raised to 18 years in the criminal code revised in 2005, 62 percent of women at age 20-49 were married by the age 18 and 75 percent by the age 20-23 (World Bank in Augustine et.al, 2007).

Marriage before the age 18 is, however, a reality for many young girls. In many parts of the world parents encourage the marriage of their daughter while they are still children in hopes that the marriage will benefit them both financially and socially also relieving financial burdens on the family (Hyde et.al, 2005).

In actuality, child marriage is a violation of human rights compromising the development of girls and often resulting in early pregnancy and social isolation, with little education and poor vocational training reinforcing the gendered nature of poverty (UNICEF, 2005).

In the addition to this, abduction which takes several forms, at its most grievous is forcible marriage through rape to avoid the payment of a bride price. It may also take the form of elopement, i.e. when the couple feels that the girl's parents may not agree to 'normal' marriage or may be at the connivance of the parents, that is to say, whenever the girl herself is unwilling to be married which are other major concern for girls and their families that affect attendance to the school (Hyde, k. et.al, 2005).

2.4.1.4. Socio-Climatic Challenge

Disease, war, cultural assumptions, lack of infrastructure and chronic poverty all pay a part in keeping children from school. With this regard, a child may struggle

through prolonged absences due to malaria or intestinal worms. Parents are sometimes uncomfortable sending girls to class. Often times, there is no clean water source or suitable latrine at the school. Even when a family does manage to enrol a child in school, attendance with such climate can be intermittent (WFP, 2005).

2.4.1.5. Security Issues

Education is a key to protection when it is of good quality, but falls short when the learning environment itself fails to provide the necessary protection against violence and abuse of children. This involves making schools secure not only from without but also from within. With this regard, pastoralists live in remote areas often close to insecure international boarders and conflict prone regions. Having to walk long distance in order to go to school for children: especially girls may present serious risk of attack (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Therefore, parents will not send their children to places that they believe are unsafe. One reason parent's want their child in schools close to home is because of safety parents can keep an eye on their children when they remain in the village or neighbourhood. Everywhere, parents care about who teaches their children. If the teacher is not known and trusted, the school is not also considered safe (Anderson, 1989).

2.4.1.6. Parents Education

Illiterate parents have limited understanding of the importance of education and the urgency to send their school age children for study. They are not only hesitant to send their children to school, but less inclined to provide study time, stationary clothing etc (UNICEF, 2003).

On top of this, the education level of child's parent is often related to the child's own participation in schooling. The educational attainment of the parents and the household head, measured by the highest level of school attended, has a substantial effect on the out-of-school status of children. Accordingly, if the fathers of household had formal education, children were more likely to be in school. Most of out of

school children are the ones who have illiterate parents. Parents who have attended school are more likely to send their children to school (Mulugeta, 2007).

Moreover, mothers also are reported to resist the schooling of their daughters, not because they need them for labor in domestic production, but also because they are unaware about the benefit of sending their daughters to school (Hyde, k et.al, 2005).

2.4.1.7. Distance to School

In most countries where public transportation system is not highly developed and is not accessible to general public in all parts of the country, especially in rural areas, one of the constraints in increasing or decreasing access to schooling is the distance between the school and community. This is especially true for the beginning grades where children are not matured for walk a long distance (Derebssa, 2006).

In the context of Ethiopia, there are woredas with schools whose average catchment area is more than 10km. This is certainly unacceptable: Imagine a 7 years old walking 10km in the morning and 10km in the afternoon to and from school. It is recommended that the maximum distance a primary school child should be permitted to travel to school as 3km (JICA and OEB, 2006).

Experience has shown that parents decisions about whether or not send their children to school are very much influenced by the proximity of schools. In this regard Anderson describes that, the greater the distance between a child's home and a school, the less likely is that the parents will send the child. Even if children start to school, distance often makes them decide to dropout because it "takes too long" or is "too much trouble" to get there (Anderson, 1992).

2.4.2. School Related Challenges

With this regard, the appropriateness of the curriculum, delivery method, time tabling and relevance must be considered. In most cases, balances will need to be struck between the 'integrative' and the 'distinctive' qualities of any programme for nomads. This applies not only to the content of the course materials but also to the delivery and support systems. It also applies to the language(s) used in course (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

2.4.2.1. Curriculum and Policy Aspect

Lack of curriculum relevance has become one of the major explanations for pastoralists' low interest in education and for the high dropout rates from schools in pastoral areas (and also, of course, for other disadvantaged groups). The basic argument made by researchers is that school curriculum are developed by sedentary people for sedentary people (or even by urban dwellers for urban dwellers) and are therefore largely irrelevant to nomads' experiences and concerns (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Moreover, supportive policies in the social, cultural and economic spheres are required in order to realize the full provision and utilization of basic education for individual and society improvement. Attaining basic education for all depends on political will and commitment manifested in appropriate fiscal measures, educational policy reforms and institutional strengthening (WCEFA, 1990).

2.4.2.2. Language Aspect

The issue of using local languages has a relatively long history. On the whole, the international consensus now is that one should start the educational process in the local-language assuming one can find the teachers, and only introduce the national or international language when the children are literate in their own. There is also an argument that local languages are part of the culture and not survive independently from the maintenance of the resources and modes of production on which the culture depends (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Moreover, there was also a general argument that teaching in the mother tongue is important to ensure quality of education, especially at the earlier stages of education. Moreover, school performance of children is better when they are taught in the language that is most used at local level and instruction in the mother tongue is the best way of ensuring that pupil's grasp the meaning perfectly because only when their thoughts are activated through their mother tongue, they can interact well with the subject taught (Boulanger and Kolawole Cited in Derbessa, 2006).

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2.4.2.3. Time Schedule

A number of countries have found that school attendance can be improved and wastage reduced by organizing school calendars so that pupils in rural areas, especially the pastoral groups, are expected to attend school during planting and harvest seasons when their families need their labor. Similarly, the hours of the school day can be set to take account of the fact that some pupils, especially girls, must perform household chores (UNESCO, 1998).

Moreover, when the schedule of school conflicts with other essential activities, children do not attend, or because they miss too many lessons, and eventually dropout. If the jobs that a child must do for family survival have to be done during the same house that school is in sessions, then the indirect costs of school are too high for a family to afford (Anderson, 1992).

On top of this, as a strategy, some countries in sub-Saharan Africa have adopted an evening or flexible school timetable, instead of boarding school, which helps them trying to minimize: the dropout of children through labor commitments or other aspects of students' life conditions, the economy and the consequence of children's education becoming in appealing to their families (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

2.4.2.4. Lack of Educated Female Role Mode

A female teacher of the ethnic group which acts as a role model can be a means to increase the enrolment of the same ethnic females. Therefore, one good school level practice strategy that has been promoted is the increased use of female teachers to act as a role model for girls making the school environments more girl-friendly and opening labor market opportunities of the girls (UNICEF, 2002).

2.5. Some Strategies to Achieve UPE in Agro-pastoralist Areas of Ethiopia

To reach, and teach, the children not served by existing education system, new approaches to education are needed. Programmes tried in the past have not been able to reach those children and therefore, what is needed to day are educational responses that are tailored to the special requirements of the as-yet-unreached and

to the growing numbers of new un served children new strategies has to be designed (Anderson, 1992).

Moreover, once government commitment has been established, there could be a debate about the strategies that would be most effective in increasing and sustaining pastoral participation. In particular given the constraints on the children of nomadic pastoralist being able to attend fixed conventional schooling, it is natural to think of the potential for alternative forms of provision, such as boarding schools, Mobile schools, School feeding programmes, evening shifts or simply of very different calendar for provision (Ezomah in Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

2.5.1 Boarding schools

Boarding schools are currently discussed in some countries (e.g. Tibet, Kenya) as the solution to the high rate of drop-out among their very spare population. However, there are two problems arise in the establishment of boarding schools. First, parents are reluctant to send their children to boarding schools which and to whom they don't know, moreover, children might not like to be separated from their family for a long time. Second, the construction and maintenance of boarding school is costy as it provides foods and lodging on the top of instructional costs (UNESCO, 1990).

In spite of such shortcomings, boarding schools is an essential strategy to deliver education for the children of pastoralists who are in constant movement and sparsely populated remote areas (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

2.5.2. Mobile Schools

Mobile schools have generally used specially constructed tents or temporary shades or under trees that are staffed by teacher who move with the nomads and their mobile schools during migration (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005)

On top of this, mobile school also needs teachers who have commitment and trained, and getting ready with mobile tents and small blackboards that don't cost much. Teachers from pastoral community who have experienced the life before, who knows the culture of nomads are better to be recruited and trained for this purpose to overcome the obstacles of the mobile school (Zien, 2004).

2.5.3. School Feeding Program

For hunger, and particularly for poor children, going to school means the prospects of hope, opportunity and independence. Many are never given this chance. Hunger and poverty condemn millions of children to illiteracy, limiting their future options (WFP, 2005).

Pertinent to this, school meals offer hope. A school feeding programmes gives poor families an incentive to enrol their children in school. It provides children with the nutrition and energy they need to focus and concentrate in class (Ibid)

School feeding programmes can contribute to increase access, as its principal purpose is to boost enrolment of pupils in primary and pre-primary schooling, of schools in rural areas. However, substantial problems may be raised to be addressed at secondary level, being secondary school are placed only in urban areas (MOE, 2006).

2.5.4. Non-Formal Approach and ABE Centers

There is frequently mistrust of education among nomads with nomadic parents and elders fearing that education will spoil their children and lead them away from their traditional values and life style. In this respect, non-formal and distance education approaches can go some way to avoiding the feared influence of attending a full-time day school or a boarding institution, by taking the education to the children without requiring that they leave their community or abandon their daily duties, such as herding and the like (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005).

Moreover, non-formal approach especially ABE programme, can in principle offer opportunities for nomadic children to access education while on the move, as they do not require nomads in one place or attend a rigid institutional programme such as a boarding school. If they achieve this flexibility, they might help to support the preservation of the learners nomadic life style and culture including migration, herding and clan-based cultural intercourse (UNESCO, 1990).

2.6.3 Public Demand

Currently the public demand for education has an increasing trend. Parent's level of consciousness has generated an over whelming increase in demand of education.

With this regard, demand for education has reached up to the level of out stripping the supply side. This mismatch between the demand and supply has resulted in large class size, classrooms under shades and overcrowded schools which in turn resulted in dropout and repetition with poor quality of education. Moreover, the increased in the contribution of the local community for school construction and other costs confirms the increased in demand of education, especially primary education (Mulugeta, 2007).

2.7. Major Success and achievements in realizing UPE in Ethiopia

2.7.1. Access at all level of Education Improved (the Good)

Ethiopia has made tremendous progress in all aspects of educational development's access, equity and efficiency. Between 1992/1993 and 2005/2006, primary school enrolment ratio (GER) increased from 19.7 percent to nearly 91.3 percent. The primary school NER between 1995/96 and 2005/2006, increased from 21.6 percent to 77.5 percent. On top of this, Ethiopia has devoted massive resources to increase the availability of schools. Given the phenomenal growth in the sector, Ethiopia may achieve its MDG of providing universal access to education (Augustine et.al, 2007).

2.7.1.1. Gross and Net enrolment Ratios

There has been dramatic growth in enrolments throughout the education system in recent years. Aggregate enrolments in grades 1-12 rose at a steady place of about 9 percent a year between 1994/95 and 2003/4 and in grades 1-4 it grew even faster at an average of 15 percent (MOE, 2002).

Moreover, GER for complete primary level (1-8) is increased every year. In 2003/4, the primary school age population of Ethiopia was estimated to be 13,950,688 among which 9,542,638 children were enrolled in both programme (regular and evening) of primary school (Mulugeta, 2007).

Table2.3: GER of primary schools from 2001/02 to 2005/06 in percentage

Year	Boys	Girls	Total
2001/02	71.7	51.2	61.6
2002/03	74.6	53.8	64.4
2003/04	77.4	59.1	68.4
2004/05	88.0	71.5	79.8
2005/06	92.9	78.5	85.8

Source; Education Statistics Annual Abstract (2005/06), MoE.

Although this is an encouraging sign towards the achievement of the UPE by the 2015, GER is not a good indicator of primary school coverage for it includes the over and under aged children. One of the key criteria for the achievement of UPE is the NER close to 100 percent. Accordingly, only countries with high intake levels of official school age will achieve the goal in these terms (Derebssa, 2006; UNESCO, 2005).

Table 2.4: NER for primary school (1-8) in percentage

Year	NER (1-8)		
	M	F	T
2001/02	59	45.2	52.2
2002/03	60.6	47.2	54
2003/04	62.9	51.8	57.4
2004/05	73.2	63.6	68.5
2005/06	81.7	73.2	77.5

Source: Education statistics Annual Abstract (2005/06), MoE.

Analysis of NER data in Ethiopia shows that Ethiopia has low chance of achieving UPE by 2015. According to Derbesa (2006), only those countries whose NER is 80 percent and above currently can achieve UPE in 2015. In this respect Ethiopia face a little difficulty with 77.5 percent NER in 2005/06. If the NER is considered, 22.5 percent which are about 3,850,575 of primary school age children are still out of school in Ethiopia (Mulugeta, 2007).

2.7.1.2. Survival and Completion Rates

Achieving the goals embraced at Jomtien requires not only that children be admitted to school when they are of age, but that they complete the entire primary cycle and, equally important, actually learn at an appropriate level.

With this regard it is generally agreed that at least four years of schooling are necessary for pupils to acquire the basic literacy and numeracy skills needed to become continuing learners. However to date efforts to achieve EFA have focused heavily on getting children enrolled in school, rather than on improving either completion rates or students learning outcomes (UNESCO, 1998).

Moreover, Bruns and Mingate stated that:

> ***NER, in addition to the fact that is does not capture actual primary completion, it presents another disadvantage: the target of 100 percent NER in primary school is an unrealistic goal. If would require that every single child enter primary school at exactly the official school age, proceed through the cycle with zero repetition, and stay in school with no disruptions, resulting in a 100 percent on time completion rate. If such a perfect cohort could be achieved, the NER would be in fact equal to the pupil completion rate: both would be 100 percent. However, although virtually all children in organization for economic cooperation and development country complete primary school, primary NER, rarely reach 100 percent. In dead, the average NER across the organization for economic development is only 94 percents, and this ratio has been remarkably stable over the past 30 years of educational development in industrial countries*** (Burns and Mingate, 2003:94).

Therefore, although the GER and NER particularly NER, is useful for monitoring the proportion of the official school age population that is not currently enrolled, the "out of school population," it is not also good substitute for direct measure of primary completion rate as the basic indicator of progress toward the achievement of EFA goals.

In the Ethiopian context, dropout rates are high with only 35 percent of boys and 33 percent of girls who enrol in grade 1; reaching grade 5 for the completion of the first cycle of primary education. With low completion rates, the potential for education to contribute to the development and economic growth of the country continues to be a challenging reality (Hyde et.al, 2005).

2.7.2. Equity Remains a Challenge (The Bad)

Equity refers to the state, ideal, or quality of being just, impartial, and fair. In the educational setting, equity can be expanded to indicate a state in which all children, minorities and non-minorities males and females, successful students and those who have fallen behind, and students who have been denied access in the past, have equal opportunities to learn, to participate in challenging programmes, and to have equal access to the service they need in order to benefit from that education (MOE, 2002).

On top of this, inequities most commonly related to poverty, gender, location, religious, linguistic, and physical or mental disability. Poverty creates inequity in learning in multiple ways. To reduce inequity, whatever its source, requires an aggressive commitment on the part of government and society. Helping to incorporate presently disadvantages populations into the larger society should be one of the explicit gals of primary schooling (UNESCO, 1998).

According to EFA monitoring report, almost two-thirds of the world's adult illiterate which constitute about 64 percent are women of all the problems of equity in primary education, the participation and successful achievement of girls deserves the highest priority (UNESCO, 2008).

2.7.2.1. Gender Disparity

The Jomtien conference, and the EFA movement that was born of it, recognized the importance of closing the gender gap and of taking special measures to enable girls to go to school and to stay there a long years. In the laudable drive towards EFA, it was assumed that the gender gap would be automatically reduced. However, in reality this was a major challenge that needs additional effort (UNICEF, 2003).

Table 2.6: PTR at primary school by level and region at 2003/04

Region	1st cycle (1-4)	2nd Cycle (5-8)
Addis Ababa	39	39
Gambella	48	48
Harrari	24	24
Benishngul	43	86
DireDewa	40	42
Tigray	55	84
SNNPR	74	54
Oromia	83	56
Amhara	72	69
Somalia	63	31
Afar	34	27
National	71	55

Source: http:// home-Hiroshima-u.a c.jp/cice

As indicated in the above table (Table VII) there are regions with PTR more than 80 (Oromia) and the situation at school level worse PTR reaching 120 in some cases. Teachers' numbers remain a problem in Ethiopia that must need to significantly increase in its primary school systems coverage (Derbessa, 2006).

2.7.3.2. Pupil-Text Book Ratio (PBR)

With this regard under the decentralized system, the development of text book for the primary level is the responsibility of the regions, based on syllabi and flow charts provided by the institute of curriculum development and research (ICDR). The region-based text books are meant to reflect the economic, cultural and social realities of each "state" or region, as well as to be translated in to the region's language (s) instruction (Hyde et.al, 2005).

Moreover, the quality and availability of learning materials strongly affect what teachers can do. To achieve UPE, unprecedented refurbishing and building of classrooms is needed in many countries. The other quality factor, availability of student textbook in the school, has also been given attention. The result is that the pupil book rations which stood at 1:5 and in some cases 1:7 have been improving to a 1:2 and 1:3 student book rations. Although this encouraging trend at the national level there is acute lack of textbooks at school level due to an inefficient distribution system, and malpractice (Derbessa, 2006).

2.7.4. Educational Efficiency

The concept of efficiency as used by economists refers to the relationship between the inputs into system and the outputs from the system. However, measuring the efficiencies of education systems is problematic due to difficulties in defining and measuring educational outputs, as well as in quantifying the relationship between inputs and outputs on this regard, an education system is considered to be efficient if it produce at a minimum cost the desired output in terms of a maximum number of young people who have acquired the necessary knowledge and skills prescribed by society (UNESCO, 1998).

With this regard, effects to improve efficiency in primary schools emphasize reducing costs without significantly altering the desired effects, or enhancing effectiveness without increasing costs. On top this, a special form of educational inefficiency is that described as "wastage" which normally refers to the effects of pupils repeating a grade or dropping out of school (WCEFA, 1990).

Moreover, keeping children in school is a major problem in many developing countries where high rates of repetition and dropout leading to inefficiency and wastage of scarce resources. Accordingly, repetition in Ethiopia has moved down from 12 to 6.7 percent from 1998/99 -2002/03 and further dropped to 4 percent in 2003/04 (Derbessa, 2006, and MOE, 2002).

2.8. The Current Status of Primary Education in Benishangul Gumuz Region and its Agro-Pastoralist area

The Agro-pastoralist way of life among the country presents a major challenging in implementing common strategies to increase access as schools may not be situated at places that are accessible to all the children of the communities. Children are usually forced to travel long distances to go to schools and parents are concerned about the safety of their children (UNESCO, 1990).

In BGRS context, the region was neglected for many years and the communities' awareness about the benefits of education was very low which negatively affected the participation rate of the Gumuz children (BGREB, 2007/8).

2.8.1. Quality

2.8.1.1. Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR)

The national standard of PTR is 50:1 for primary and 40:1 for secondary. The lower the PTR the higher the opportunity of context between the teacher and pupil, however, very low PTR indicated inefficiency of the education system or under utilization of the resource (BGREB, 2008). In 2005/6 the PTR for the regional state is 46:1 for 1st cycle and 45:1 for 2nd cycle primary but it is 72:1 if calculated for qualified 2nd cycle teachers (BGREB Annual Abstract, 2007/8).

2.8.1.2. Pupil-Text Book Ratio (PBR)

According to the BGRS (2008), the regional Education Bureau is aiming for PBR of 1:1 with in the coming 5 year period. At present (2000 E.C) PBR is 3 pupils: 2 sets of textbooks for 1st cycle and 2 pupils: 1 set of text book for 2nd cycle primary education is distributed (BGREB, 2007/8).

2.8.2. Efficiency

2.8.2.1. Pupil-Section Ratio (PSR)

The national standard for PSR is 60:1 for both primary and secondary education. A lower PSR indicated underutilization of resource while a higher PSR indicated overcrowding of classes and hence less interaction between students and teachers.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1. The Research Method

The main purpose of this study was to identify the successes, and the major challenges in achieving UPE in the Agro-Pastoralist areas of BGRS. It also aimed to suggest some possible strategies and interventions that can be used to increase the expansion with equity and quality on primary education in the same area to achieve the UPE by the intended year, 2015. To serve this study, descriptive research which involved survey approach was employed with the assumption that it would help to gather a large variety of data related to the problem under consideration (Jose & Gonzales, 1993).

Moreover, the descriptive research makes possible about the prediction of the future on the basis of findings on prevailing conditions. In line with this Jose & Gonzales (1993) states that it gives a better and deeper understanding of a phenomenon which helps as a fact-finding method with adequate and accurate interpretation of the findings. Moreover, it helps to gather data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing condition, or identifying standards against which existing conditions can be compared, or determining the relationship that exist between specific events (Cohen.L, 1994). Therefore, from these types of research, the descriptive survey method was preferred as mentioned above and as the approach can be used for large group survey and makes possible to the formulation of generalizations to make the sample to have a high degree of representativeness as it covers large areas of the zone, the researcher preferred the descriptive survey method.

3.2. Source of Data

Both primary and secondary data were used for the study. Primary data were obtained from students, teachers, PTA, REB, zonal and Woreda officers, principals, and Agro-Pastoralist community elders who had direct contact with the study through questionnaire, interview and FGD. These sources helped the researcher to

acquire first hand information of the situation under the study and to draw valid inferences.

Secondary data were also obtained through document analysis. For this purpose the National and Regional Education Annual Statistic Abstracts and data base was consulted to draw the profile of primary education performance in the region as well as to analyze the challenges and prospects in achieving UPE. Moreover, ESDP manuals of the MoE and the action plans as well as reports of the REB were analyzed to make comparison of achievements with target set and with the intention of evaluating the progress towards achieving the goals of UPE by the year 2015.

3.3. Sample Population and Sampling Techniques

3.3.1. Sample Population

Benishangul Gumuz Region is divided in to three zones: Assosa, Kamashi and Metekel which comprise 20 woredas. The Agro-Pastoralist areas were found in two zones of the region (Metekel and Assosa) that constitute a total of 7 woredas. Metekel zone is a habitat of Gumuz and Shinasha ethnic indigenous groups among which Gumuz communities are known in their semi-agricultural and semi-pastoral livelihood nature (BGRS, 2004).

Therefore, community members of the school, PTA of the school, Zonal, woreda and Regional educational planners and experts, and community elders of the Gumuz areas and KETB members of the three Woredas were included in the sample through using different sampling techniques. Accordingly, the study comprised a total of 17 primary schools of the Agro-pastoralist areas which consist of 305 students of Gumuz children, 86 teachers, and 15 principals of the selected schools. It also consisted of 3 regional educational experts, 18 woreda and zonal education experts (3 from Zone and 15 from the three woredas comprising 5 experts each), 21 PTA members (comprising 7 members from each of the three Woredas), 15 kebele education and training board teams (comprising 5 members from each of the three Woredas), and 12 Gumuz community elders (comprising 4 members from each of the three Woredas). Therefore, the study was consisted of a total population of 475

information obtained from literature and considering the locality of the study, one set of questionnaire which focus on school related and out-of-school factors was designed for students, teachers, school principals and educational experts. This is because of the large number of respondents that the questionnaire was prepared for. Accordingly, both closed and open ended items were prepared in English and translated into Amharic for students, primary school teachers, principals and educational experts for their better understanding of the question items.

Interview guides were also prepared to obtain additional information from PTA, Regional, zonal and woreda education experts, and kebele education and training teams because of their few numbers.

Focus group discussion guides were prepared for community elders to enrich the information gathering for the study. The questionnaire and most of the interview guidelines were developed based on the literature. In order to insure the appropriateness of the items (data gathering instruments), a pilot study was carried out in two schools (Eiddeda and Qouta). The questionnaire was distributed for 100 students (50 for each school) and for 16 teachers and principals (8 for each school) which were not used in the main study. The interview and focus group discussion guides were also piloted and refined in the above localities. The field trail had helped to identify ambiguities and misunderstandings. All the necessary amendments have been made in line with the feedback obtained from the respondents.

Besides, from the piloting of the questionnaire, very important lesson has been taught. The number of the original questions were numerous, were not put in sequential order, and full of ambiguous words. In addition, questions were also scattered across several content areas, and there were conflicting ideas. These were all solved by categorizing questions which have similar ideas in the table, changing ambiguous words and reducing of questions in to appropriate numbers.

Therefore, for this study data was collected by using mixed approach methods of quantitative approach which includes instruments of questionnaire, and qualitative approach which was conducted by the interview, focus group discussion as well as by the content (document) analyses as the main instruments.

3.4.2. Data Collection Procedures and Administration

For the data collection, a total of six data collectors and one assistant researcher were recruited. They were selected for their Gumuz language skills and familiarity to the areas and on the basis of recommendations of the woreda education officials. A one day orientation was given for data collectors. The orientation consisted of instructions in how to make interview, focus group discussions, and general procedures for completing questionnaires by the respective respondents. A convenient time was also chosen for the respondents in order to place them freely and maximize the quality of responses and degree of return.

After teachers, students and principals have been identified, questionnaires were dispatched independently on different places according to the time scheduled given for the six data collectors on the three woredas. Only students starting from grade 3-8 participated in filling with questionnaire deliberately because of their adequacy to provide adequate information. Therefore, students from grade 3-8 were oriented with Amharic and Gumuz Language by the researcher and assistance researcher on how they fill the questionnaire without any problem.

PTA, Kebele Education and Training Board teams were appointed by the selected school principals and interview was made with the help of assistance researcher in different class rooms (this method was repeated in each three woredas). The assistant researcher was used as a translator of Gumuz language. The community elders were gathered in collaboration with woreda administrators and focus group discussion was made and the necessary information was recorded during both the interview and focus group discussion time.

The REB, Zonal and Woreda education officers and experts were interviewed on the time arrangement in prior meeting based on the schedule developed. Moreover,

they fill the questionnaire which asked about the possible strategies to be used to achieve the target of UPE which was similar with teachers and principals.

3.5. Method of Data Analysis

According to Solomon in Petros (2008), research methodologies are divided into two major parts, qualitative and quantitative approaches. A major contrast between qualitative and quantitative research design is how information is gathered and analyzed, and the choice to use either of them is based on the type of questions to be answered. Therefore, both of the qualitative and quantitative techniques of analysis were used even though the technique to be used is more of quantitative. In using the quantitative method depending upon the numerical results from analysis, interpretation and discussions was made, which led to the findings/results of the thesis work.

Accordingly in the analyzing of the data, a set of statistical tools was employed which includes measure of central tendency (Mean), percentage, descriptive statistics which includes frequency and weighted mean analyses. Percentage was used to explain the personality characteristics of respondents and to compare some of the data collected through content analyses. The mean of different variables was also calculated to identify the major challenges that hinder the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region. Furthermore, for the sake of analyses the five rating scale (strongly agree, agree, undecided, strongly disagree and disagree) were changed to three rating scale (agree, undecided and disagree) by combining strongly agree and agree together while strongly disagree and disagree scales are combined together.

Finally, using SPSS version 15.0, chi-square tests were run to determine the relationship among the various characteristics and challenging factors. All comparisons and difference discussed in this study were tested for the statistical significance at 0.05 levels.

The information that were gathered through content (document) analyses, interview, focus group discussion and questionnaire were transcribed and summarized using word expression as supplement to the main interpretation.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The main purpose of this study was concerned to assess the challenges, success and prospects in achieving UPE in the agro-pastoralist areas of Benishangul Gumuz region of Gumuz community children. Accordingly, characteristics of respondents, the current status of Gumuz children in primary schools, the major challenging factors that hinder the participation of Gumuz children in primary school and the possible strategies to be undertaken to solve the challenging factors would have been analyzed respectively.

In line with this, Questionnaires were distributed to 325 students, 120 teachers and 17 principals. Among the distributed questionnaires 305 (93.8%), 86(71.7%) and 15(88.2%) were returned from students, teachers and principals respectively. Therefore, the analysis of data collected from students, teachers, principals, PTAs of sample schools and KETB members, Gumuz community elders and Regional, Zonal and Woreda Education officers of the study area were analyzed and interpreted as follows.

4.1. Characteristics of Respondents

The focus of this subtopic is to give some basic background information about the target population. Accordingly, the profile of teachers, principals and educational experts and officials was discussed followed by characteristics of students and PTA, KETB and community elders respectively.

4.1.1. Characteristics of Teachers, Principals and Educational Officials

The study included 86 teachers, 15 principals from the schools under study and 21 educational officials and experts from the three woredas and REB. The characteristics of these groups of subjects were assessed based on age, educational status, services in year, teaching load per week, and ethnic background as follows.

Table 4.1: Characteristics of teachers, Principals, Regional, Zonal and Woreda Educational Officials and Experts by their Sex, Age, Educational status, service years, teaching loads (for teachers) and Ethnic background

Item		Respondents								
		Teachers			Principals			Educational officers and Experts		
Sex		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Total		71	15	86	14	1	15	20	1	21
%		82.6	17.4	100	93.3	6.7	100	95.2	4.8	100
Age	≤ 20	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
	21-30	-	14	80	7	1	8	2	1	3
	31-40	-	-	5	7	-	7	6	-	6
	41-50	-	-	-	-	-		8	-	8
	≥ 51	-	-	-	-	-		4	-	4
	Total	71	15	86	14	1	15	20	1	21
	%	82.6	17.4	100	93.3	6.7	100	95.2	4.8	100
Educational Status	12 complete	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
	12+1 (10+1)	46	14	60	11	1	12	3	1	4
	12+2 (10+3)	25	-	25	3	-	3	8	-	8
	12+4	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	-	9
	Total	71	15	86	14	1	15	20	1	21
	%	82.6	17.4	100	93.3	6.7	100	95.2	4.8	100
Service in Year	1-5	57	10	67	2	-	2	-	-	-
	6-10	13	5	18	10	1	11	1	1	2
	11-15	1	-	1	1	-	1	3	-	3
	16-20	-	-	-	1	-	1	15	-	15
	21 year & above	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
	Total	71	15	86	14	1	15	20	1	21
	%	82.6	17.4	100	93.3	6.7	100	95.2	4.8	100
Teaching load per week	15 and less	1	6	7	2	1	3	-	-	-
	16-30	46	9	55	12	-	12	-	-	-
	31 and above	24	-	24	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	71	15	86	14	1	15	-	-	-
	%	82.6	17.4	100	93.3	6.7	100	-	-	-
Ethnic background	Gumuz	7	1	8	-	-	-	4	1	5
	Shinasha	17	-	17	3	1	4	4	-	4
	Amhara	31	-	31	9	-	9	8	-	8
	Oromo	11	-	11	-	-	-	1	-	1
	Others	19	-	19	2	-	2	3	-	3
	Total	85	1	86	14	1	15	20	1	21
	%	98.9	0.1	100	93.3	6.7	100	95.2	4.8	100

With regard to sex, 71 (82.6%) of teachers, 14 (93.3%) of principals and 20(95.2%) of educational officials and experts were males. From this fact one can conclude that the participation of female both as a teacher, principals or educational officers in Metekel zone was extremely low (see table 4.1). This is an issue that needs attention

and concern of all as far as the participation of girls and equity in education is concerned. The absence of female from those mentioned fields can play a hindering role as lack of role model for girls can play a discouraging role in their educational involvement.

With regard to the age of respondents, the majority 93% of teachers and 56.3% of principals were between the age group of 21-30 years while 38.1% and 28.6% of educational officials and experts were between the age of 41-50 and 31-40 years respectively. This indicates that most of the teachers were young and relatively less-experienced which might be because of the hostile nature of working environment that do not attract to stay there. This can be easily understood from the service year of teachers and principals in which 67(77.9%) of the teachers and 11(73.3%) of principals who had served for 1-5 and 6-10 years respectively. This also coincides with the finding by Akalewold (2004) which states that the majority of teachers with few years of teaching experience were found to be not satisfied with their job and were ready to leave the profession, if they had other opportunity.

Pertinent to teachers and principals teaching loads, about 55(64%) of teachers and 13(81.3%) of principals had 16-30 periods per week with an average of 23 periods per week. This indicates the under utilization of teachers manpower compared to the standard teaching loads of 33 at first cycle and 30 at second cycle of primary education of the region (BGRB, 2007/8).

Concerning the ethnic background of the respondents, only 8(9.3%) of teachers, none of the principals and 5(23.8%) of the educational officials and experts were from Gumuz community. This indicates that there were few Gumuz communities that can be act as educated role model to increase the participation of their children.

4.1.2. Characteristics of students Respondents

This include 305 student respondents from the study areas and their characteristics based on age, grade level, ethnic background, their fathers & mothers educational

level and occupation, family size and total number of children attending school in their family was discussed in table: 4.2 and 4.3 respectively as follows.

Table 4.2: Characteristics of Students Respondents by their Sex, Age and Ethnic Background

Item		Respondents		
		Students		
Sex		M	F	T
No		25	60	305
%		80.3	19.7%	100%
Age	Below 9 years	-	-	-
	9-12 years	30	21	51
	13-16 years	133	15	145
	17 years & above	82	24	106
	No	245	60	305
	%	80.3	19.7%	100
Grade Level	3rd	24	6	30
	4th	42	9	51
	5th	48	9	57
	6th	36	9	45
	7th	36	9	45
	8th	59	18	77
	Total	245	60	305
	%	80.3	19.7%	100

As table: 4.2 above indicated, a total of 305 students were involved in the study. Out of these 245 (80.3%) were males and 60 (19.7%) were females. From this figure it is easy to understand that the participation of male exceeded by 60.6 percent than female students participation in primary schools which needs the attention of the concerned bodies.

With regard to their age, 51 (16.7%), 148(48.5%) and 106(34.8%) were found under the age category 9-12 years, 13-16 years and 17 years and above respectively. As the respondents were taken from grade 3-8, the age of 17 years and above that comprised (106, 34.8%) indicated over the school age of 7-14 years of the primary school compared to the Ethiopia case (TGE, 1994).

Table 4.3: Family Background and Ethnicity of Students Respondents

No	Item		No	%
1	Ethnic background	A. Amhara	12	3.9%
		B. Gumuz	284	93.1%
		C. Shinasha	9	3%
		D. Bertha	-	-
		E. Others	-	-
2	Fathers educational level	1-4 complete	39	12.8%
		5-8 complete	15	9.9%
		Above 8th grade complete	6	2%
		Illiterate	245	80.3%
3	Mother's educational level	1-4 complete	12	3.9%
		5-8 complete	3	3.9%
		Above 8th grade complete	6	2%
		Illiterate	284	93.1%
4	Father's Occupation	Agro-pastoralist	272	89.1%
		Private employee	15	4.9%
		Government employee	9	3%
		Merchant	9	3%
		Other	-	-
5	Mother's Occupation	House wife	296	97%
		Government employee	3	1%
		Merchant	-	-
		Other	-	-
6	Number of children in your family (family size)	1-3	51	16.7%
		4-6	112	36.7%
		7 and above	142	46.6%
7	Total number of children attending their schooling from your family	All of them	15	4.9%
		Half of them	36	11.8%
		Majority of them	6	2%
		Very few of them	248	81.3%

Regarding the educational background and ethnicity of the students respondent, 284(93.1%) were the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children. This may indicate that the area selected for the study was appropriate as it concerned on the achievement of UPE on the Agro-pastoralist areas of Gumuz community.

Concerning the educational background of their parents, 80.3% of their father and 93.1% of their mothers were illiterate. Accordingly, it is easy to understand as majority of Gumuz parents lack educational background. Moreover, women are more illiterate compared to Men with an average of 12.8 percent. This might have also an effect on the participation of Agro-pastoralist children in general and girls' education in particular as mothers can play great role on the life of their childrens' education.

This was also cited in the review of related literature by Hyde, et.al (2005) which state that the educational level of child's parent, especially mothers, is often related to the child's participation in the school in which the illiterate parents have limited

understanding of the importance of education and less inclined to provide study time, stationary, clothing etc and more over hesitate to send their child to school.

With respect to the number of children in their families, 112(36.7%) of students replied that their family comprises 4-6 while 142(46.6%) of them responded as the total number of children in their families were 7 and above. Moreover, with respect to the total number of children's attending school, 248(81.3%) of the students replied that very few of the children in their family have got the chance to attend schools which indicated that majority of Gumuz family children are out of schools.

4.1.3. Characteristics of PTA, KETB and Community Elders

Under this study, 21 PTA members (7 from each of the three Woredas), 15 KTEB team members (5 from each of the three Woredas) and 12 Gumuz community elders (4 from each of the three Woredas) were treated and their characteristics based on their age, educational status and occupation were discussed as follows.

Table 4.4: Background of the Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) members and Kebele Education and Training Board (KETB) teams and Community Elders

Item		Respondents								
		PTA-members			KETB - Members			Community Elders		
Sex		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
No		19	2	21	12	3	15	12	-	12
%		90.5%	9.5%	100	80%	20%	100	100	-	100
Age	20-25	3	1	4	-	-	-	-	-	-
	26-30	4	1	5	6	2	8	2	-	2
	31-35	8	-	8	5	-	5	8	-	8
	36 and above	4	-	4	1	1	2	2	-	2
Educational Status	Illiterate	9	1	10	6	2	8	12	-	12
	1-4 completed	4	1	5	3	1	4	-	-	-
	5-8 completed	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Teachers (12+1, 12+3, 12+4)	6	-	6	3	-	3	-	-	-
Occupation	Agro-pastoralist	6	-	6	6	1	7	12	-	12
	Government employee	13	2	15	6	2	8	-	-	-
	Private employee	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Merchant	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Pertinent to their sex, 19(90.5%) and 2(9.5%) of the PTA members while 12(80%) and 3(20%) of KETB members were males and females respectively. On the other hand 12(100%) of community elders were males. This indicated that majority the three members(KETB, PTA and community elders) in the three woredas were composed of males as males exceed females with 79.2 percent which might not be a good role model for the participation of Gumuz girls' in their education.

With regard to their educational status, 10(47.6%) of PTA members, 8(53.3%) of KETB members and 12(100%) of community elders were illiterate respectively. On the other hand, 5(23.8%) of PTAs, 4(26.7%) of KETB members were 1-4 grade completed respectively, while 6(28.6%) of PTAs and 3(20%) of KTEB members were teachers.

Concerning their occupation, 15(71.4%) of the PTA members were government employee and 6(28.6%) were Gumuz Agro pastoralist. Similarly, 7 (46.7%) and 8(53.3%) of KTEB members were agro-pastoralist and government employees respectively where as all, 12(100%) of community members were agro-pastoralist.

4.2. The Current Status of Gumuz Children in Primary School Participation

One of the key criteria for the achievement of UPE is the NER closer to 100 percent as GER is not a good indicator of primary school coverage for it includes the over and under age children (UNESCO, 2004). Accordingly, only those countries with the NER of 80 percent and above in the year 2007/8 can achieve UPE in 2015 (Derbesa, 2006). Therefore, under this subtopic the current participation of Gumuz children regarding the GER and NER, indigenous participation vis-à-vis other ethnic groups, repetition and dropout rates of the region as well as of the agro-pastoralist areas were assessed respectively as follow to decide the achievement of UPE in the agro-pastoralist areas of the region.

Table 4.5: The status of participation of Gumuz Agro-pastoralist children in Primary school (1-8) of Mandura, Dangur and Guba Woredas of Metekel Zone

No	Woredas	Sex	Total School age (7-14) population	Total Enrolment	Total 7-14 years of students in the school	GER %	NER %
1	Dangur	M	4590	3796	3075	92.4	67.0
		F	4559	2809	2705	67.4	59.3
		Total	9149	6605	5780	79.9	63.2
2	Guba	M	1621	1422	1075	95.9	66.3
		F	1069	698	649	73.5	60.7
		Total	2690	2120	1724	86.9	64.1
3	Mandura	M	5103	4609	3282	91.8	64.3
		F	3016	1957	1638	66.1	54.3
		Total	8119	6566	4920	82.3	60.6
4	Total	M	11314	9827	7432	86.9	65.7
		F	8644	5464	4992	63.2	57.8
		Total	19958	15291	12424	76.6	62.3
5	Regional 2006/7					110.6	84.2
6	National 2006/7					91.7	79.1

NB: school age (7-14) population of the region in 2007/8= 152,747

School age (7-14) children in school of the region = 111.033

Source: BGREB Annual Report (2007/8) & Statistical Report of the 2007 Population and Housing Census: (UNFPA, 2008)

From the above data, the GER of the three woredas under the study was 76.6 percent while the NER was 62.3 percent in 2007/8. These indicated that the GER and NER of the three woredas were far from the regional GER of 110.6 and NER of 84.2 percent (BGREB, annual statistics, 2006/7). Moreover, 7534(37.8%) of children of the 'right' age did not get a chance to go to school and were out of school (except those children in ABE school). Similarly, the participation rate of girls with NER of 57.8 percent was again considerably lower than that of boys with NER of 65.7 percent.

From this figure it is easy to understand how much the participation of the Gumuz Agro-pastoralist children in Metekel zone was low as compared to the regional data.

This also indicated that there might be challenges that contribute to this low level of participation in primary education of the Agro-pastoralist children.

Moreover, the researcher was in doubt about the reported NER (82.7percent) of the region in its Annual Abstract of 2008/9. This is mainly because, as the total school age children in the region reported in 2007/8 educational statistics annual abstract was 111,033, while the report of Ethiopia Population and House census in 2007 showed that school age (7-14) population in the region account for 152,747 in which the NER of the region should be 72.7 percent instead of 82.7 percent (except those children in ABE schools).

4.2.1. Indigenous Group Participation (2004/05-2007/08)

In the region, there are five indigenous nationalities. These are Berta, Gumuz, Shinasha, Mao and Komo (BGREB, 2007/8). The primary school participation of these indigenous ethnic groups further indicate how they were deprived of education in the past will present as follow.

Table 4.6: Indigenous Group Participation in Education in BGRS

Year	Level	Total Enrolment			Indigenous Enrolment			Percentage Share
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
2004/05	Primary	78442	53230	131672	43667	22923	66590	50.6
	Secondary	7760	3264	11024	2593	528	3132	28.4
2005/06	Primary	80567	57147	137714	46430	34630	71060	51.6
	Secondary	9102	4149	13251	3629	934	4563	34.4
2006/07	Primary	8364	61031	144672	46953	25888	72841	50.4
	Secondary	10128	4807	14935	3971	1132	5103	34.2
2007/08	Primary	82497	61746	144243	46054	27668	73722	51.1
	Secondary	10200	5715	15915	3985	1429	5411	34.0

Source: Education Statistics annual Abstract. BGREB, 2007/08

According to the above table, the participation rate of indigenous pupils in primary schools as compared to the non-indigenous groups including Agew, Amhara, Oromo and others constitute an average of 51.1percent (BGREB, Annual Abstract, 2007/8). The total enrolment of the five indigenous ethnic groups (Berta, Gumuz, Shinash, Mao and Komo), as indicated above was 73,722 out of 144,243. Moreover, it was observed that 29,886, 27,512, 13,517, 2,185 and 622 were Berta, Gumuz, Shinasha, Mao and Komo ethnic group children participation respectively. This revealed that if we consider the ratio among the five indigenous ethnic groups to the non-ethnic

group, it might be very small which indicate that the majority of indigenous ethnic group students were out of school. Therefore, the participation of the indigenous ethnic groups in general and those of the agro-pastoralist Gumuz in particular in primary school was too low.

4.2.2. Repetition and Dropout Rates of the region

Wastage is about missed opportunities for individual, communities, entire nations and regions of the world (UNESCO, 1998). It deprives developing countries of the ability to make the most efficient use of scarce resources and it takes its greatest toll on the most vulnerable groups in society. Therefore, the repetition and dropout rates of the region were compared with other regions, national level and were analyzed in table 4.7 and 4.8 respectively.

Table 4.7: Repetition Rate by Region in 2002/03 & 2003/04

Regions	Repetition Rate 2002/03			Repetition Rate 2003/04		
	M	F	T	M	F	T
Tigray	6.8	5.0	5.9	2.6	3.4	3.0
Afar	10.0	6.1	7.5	5.5	9.6	6.9
Amhara	7.8	5.5	6.6	1.1	1.4	1.3
Oromia	6.0	4.6	5.1	4.5	4.7	4.6
Somalia	2.2	2.6	2.5	2.6	2.2	2.5
Benishangul G	8.5	7.3	7.8	12.3	13.7	12.9
SNNPR	10.4	8.3	9.1	4.9	5.9	5.3
Gambella	11.3	7.4	8.8	8.1	14.4	10.2
Harari	15.0	14.6	14.8	7.9	7.7	7.8
Addis Ababa	9.9	9.1	9.6	6.2	6.5	6.3
Dire Dawa	5.0	3.9	4.3	3.5	4.5	3.9
National	7.7	5.9	6.7	3.9	4.2	4.0

Source: MOE (2003) and 2005, Education statistics Annual Abstract Addis Ababa

According to the above table, almost all regions showed a decreasing of repetition rates in 2003/04, except Benishangul and Gambella. Moreover, the other regions were not very far from the national and while others even below that of the national repetition rate. However, Benishangul Gumuz region accounts about 3.5 times more than the national repetition rate. This indicate how much it was difficult for the region to achieve UPE in the year 2015, in which significant numbers of students were found out of school at the past(except those in ABE schools).

Table 4.8: Dropout Rates by region in 2002/03 and 2003/04

Regions	*Dropout* Rate 2002/03			Dropout Rate 2003/04		
	M	F	T	M	F	T
Tigray	17.2	17.1	17.1	9.5	10.7	10.1
Afar	19.8	19.1	19.5	30.0	30.6	30.2
Amhara	13.8	15.8	14.7	18.9	18.7	18.8
Oromia	17.3	18.6	17.8	19.0	17.8	18.6
Somalia	12.4	28.9	17.8	27.0	33.5	28.9
Benishangul G	19.7	21.6	20.4	27.2	22.7	25.5
SNNPR	21.6	23.7	22.4	25.8	25.2	25.6
Gambella	5.9	12.8	8.4	30.2	48.3	36.7
Harari	7.0	12.1	9.1	12.7	9.5	11.4
Addis Ababa	1.4	2.3	2.1	2.0	2.5	2.3
Dire Dawa	8.3	8.3	8.3	8.5	8.2	8.4
National	16.7	17.8	17.2	19.8	18.5	19.2

Source: MOE EMIS (2003) Educational Statistics Annual Abstract

According to table 4.8, the dropout rates of students increased from 20.4 to 25.5 in BGRS which also indicated that it might take time to reduce it. Similarly, the dropout rates of the region compared to other region was high except those of the four regions (Gambella, Afar, Somali and SNNPR). The dropout rate of BGRS was also very high compared to the national that indicated the inefficiency of the region and how much resource was misused by dropout when they returned for their education.

4.2.3. Repetition and Dropout Rates of the Study Area

According to Tegegn (2005), the pupil-year is a convenient and non-monetary way of measuring the internal efficiency as input in primary schools. The input in which pupil flowed through the education cycle can be measured by promotion, repetition and dropout rate. Therefore, the efficiency of the education system in the sampled woredas of the agro-pastoralist areas were calculated from the total number of repeaters, dropout and promoters and comparison was done with the regional data as follows.

Table 4.9: Repetition and Dropout Rates of the Study Areas in 2006/07

Year	Woredas	Total No of Pupil Enrolled (1-8)	Total No of Pupil Promoted to the Next Grade (1-8)	Total No of Pupil Repeated (1-8)	Repetition Rate in 2006/7 (1-8)	Dropout Rate in 2006/7 (1-8)
2006/7	Mandura	6566			6.5	26.2
	Dangur	6605			6.2	13.8
	Guba	2120			20.0	21.6
	Total	15291			8.3	20.2
2007/8	Mandura	6553	4402	430		
	Dangur	7313	5993	410		
	Guba	2340	1458	424		

Note that: $RR_g^{2006/7} = \frac{R_g^{2007/8}}{E_g^{2006/7}}$ *where RR= repletion rate g=grade (1-8)*

Source: BGREB Annual Abstract 2006/7 and 2007/8 and Zone Education office data

From the above table the average repetition rate of the three woredas was 8.3 percent while the dropout rate was 20.2 percent in 2006/7. This figure exceeded the regional repetition and dropout rates which were 6.5 and 12.9 percent in 2006/7 respectively (BGREB annual abstract, 2006/7). This indicated that the educational efficiency of the agro-pastoralist localities seemed to be far even compared to the regional and achieving of the UPE target might be difficult unless possible measures have been takes place.

4.3. Major Challenging Factors that Hinder the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz Children's Participation in the Primary Schools

There are many challenging factors that hinder the participation of children from attending their education to achieve the goal of UPE. Among these many challenging factors, under this topic the school related challenging factors, out-of-school factors in general and the problem of medium of instruction and distance from home to school in particular were analyzed as follows.

4.3.1. School Related Factors

For the teaching-learning process to be effective, any problems that were obstacle for the process should be minimized. Even though the school related factors are many in type and nature, under this section some of the school related factors (which were classified as facilities & resource, the nature of education given and teacher related factors) that might hinder the participation of Gumuz children in primary education in achieving the target of UPE were assessed in Table 4.10 as follows.

Table 4.10: School Related Factors that Hinder the Participation of Agro-Pastoralist Gumuz Children from Primary Education as Reported by Students, Teachers and Principals

No	*Item*	*Respondents*	*Statistic*	*Agree 3*	*Undecided 2*	*Disagree 1*	*Total*	*Mean*	*WM*	X^2
1	Shortage of text book	S	Frequency	214	21	70	305	2.5	2.5	10.6*
			Percent	70.1	6.9	23	100			
		TP	Frequency	61	18	22	101	2.4		
			Percent	60.4	17.8	21.8	100			
2	Shortage of teacher	S	Frequency	180	13	112	305	2.3	2.2	1.5
			Percent	59.0	4.3	36.7	100			
		TP	Frequency	55	7	39	101	2.1		
			Percent	54.5	6.9	38.6	100			
3	Lack of school facilities	S	Frequency	225	21	59	305	2.6	2.5	6.9*
			Percent	73.8	6.9	19.3	100			
		TP	Frequency	67	3	31	101	2.4		
			Percent	66.3	3.0	30.7	100			
4	Overcrowded classroom	S	Frequency	30	33	242	305	1.3	1.3	2.3
			Percent	9.8	10.8	79.4	100			
		TP	Frequency	9	6	86	101	1.3		
			Percent	8.9	5.9	85.1	100			
5	Absence of upper primary schools near your village	S	Frequency	279	11	15	305	2.9	2.9	0.7
			Percent	91.5	3.6	4.9	100			
		TP	Frequency	94	2	5	101	2.9		
			Percent	93.0	2.0	5.0	100			
6	Irrelevance of Curriculum	S	Frequency	214	46	45	305	2.5	2.6	2.8
			Percent	70.2	15.1	14.7	100			
		TP	Frequency	79	9	13	101	2.7		
			Percent	78.2	8.9	12.9	100			
7	Lack of involvement of Gumuz parents in school affairs	S	Frequency	211	12	82	305	2.5	2.6	6*
			Percent	69.2	3.9	26.9	100			
		TP	Frequency	82	4	15	101	2.7		
			Percent	81.2	4.0	14.9	100			
8	Teachers are unable to speak and teach in Gumuz Language	S	Frequency	81	42	182	305	1.7	1.8	2.6
			Percent	26.5	13.8	59.7	100			
		TP	Frequency	35	14	52	101	1.8		
			Percent	34.7	13.9	51.5	100			
9	Lack of Special training of teachers based on the agro-pastoralist life style	TP	Frequency	81	10	10	101	4.04		
			Percent	80.2	9.9	9.9	100			
10	Teachers are unsympathetic and don't understand my situation	S	Frequency	51	48	206	305	2.15		
			Percent	16.7	15.7	67.6	100			

S= students, TP= teachers and Principals
N=406 α=0.05 df= 2 *X^2=significant difference
WM value ≤1.25 not a problem, 1.26-2.25 is partially a problem, ≥ 2.26 a major problem

With respect to shortage of text book 214(70.2%) students agreed while 21(6.9%) and 70(23%) of them undecided and disagreed respectively. Similarly, 61(60.4%) principals and teachers were agreed as there was shortage of text books. The chi-square result(X^2=10.6, p< 0.05) also revealed that there was significant difference between the opinion of students, teachers and principals. This indicated that there was difference between the distributions of observed and expected frequencies than the sampling fluctuation alone. It is also true that the problem of shortage of students' text book concerns much of the students than teachers and principals. Moreover, the mean value of students (Mean=2.50) indicated that they rated higher than that of teachers and principals with the mean value of 2.40. However the average mean value (WM=2.45) for both respondents was above average which indicated that shortage of text book might be one of the hindering factor as, it affect the quality of education, on the achievement of the target of UPE.

Similarly the interview with zonal and woreda educational officials and experts revealed that they agreed on the shortage of text book in which one of them from woreda education experts has said the following:

> The necessity of text books is indispensable to school since they are back bones of teaching learning and also guides teaching procedure. We ask the regional education bureau according to the statistical numbers that are gathered in September. But during the distribution program, Woreda education office may make the distribution wrongly to each kebeles and we already heard complain after the distribution of the book (Mankush, 18/03/09, 2:45 P.M).

This may indicate that there was shortage of student text books in schools of the zone. In conformity with this finding, Hyde et.al (2005) also states that, the development of region based text books for primary schools is the responsibilities of the regions. It is also believed that the availability & quality of text book strongly affects what teachers do. To achieve UPE, especially with good quality, the availability of students text book in the school has to be given due attention.

Moreover, as students, teachers and principals were asked to identify the average distribution of students text book from the choice given, majority 166(54.4%) of students responded that the distribution of text book for the students was in a 1:3

ratio while few 87(28.5%) of them responded as it occupies the ratio of 1:2. Similarly 67.4% of the teachers and principals responded that the text book pupil ratio was 1:3 and 1:4 (See item 2 of Table 34 in Appendix XII).

This contradicted to the BGRS ESDP II (BGREB, 2008), which stated that the REB is aiming for pupil: text book ratio of 1:1 with in the coming 5 years period (2000/01-2005/6) and also stated that at present (2007/08) the pupil book ratio of the region was 3: 2 for 1st cycle and 2: 1 for 2nd cycle primary education.

Therefore, the average distribution of text book and the ratio of pupil:text book of the Gumuz area was less than what was aimed and present now which indicated inefficiency of the region that might hinder the participation of Gumuz children, especially girls from primary school.

Related to shortage of teachers, fifty nine percent of students and 54.5% of teachers and principals agreed as prevalence of shortage of teachers. Similarly, 55(54.5%) of teachers and principals agreed while 39(38.6%) and 7(6.9%) disagreed and not sure respectively. The chi-square result (X^2=1.5, P> 0.05) also reveals that there is no significant difference between the opinions of the respondents. The mean value of students (Mean=2.3) and of teachers and principals (Mean=2.1) indicated that students rated higher than that of teachers and principals as there was occurrence of shortage of teachers. Moreover, both mean values are rated above the averages that indicate shortage of teachers as one of the problem that hinders the participation of Gumuz children in primary school.

In the same way, the zonal education officer at Mandura woreda confirms the problem by saying that:

> Teachers at the lower primary school are sufficient as there is regional Collage which supplies sufficient number of certificate teachers. Regarding diploma holder teachers, I personally agree that there is shortage. However, the zone designs to upgrade teachers in the summer in-service program and I hope the problem will be solved in the near future *(GilgelBeles, 25/03/2009, 8:45 A.M).*

Moreover, PTR of first cycle primary school was 46:1 while 45:1 for second cycle and 72:1 for qualified second cycle (BGREB, 2007/8). This means

qualified second cycle teachers were only 69 percent and the standard rate set by the MoE, 50:1, which implies that the region has a shortage of second cycle teachers.

As far as lack of school facilities were concerned, 73.8% student respondent agreed while 19.3% of them disagreed. In the same way 67(66.3%) of teachers and principals agreed while 31(30.7%) of them disagreed. The chi-square result (X^2=6.9, P<0.05) also indicated that there was significant difference between the opinion of the two respondents. This indicated that there was difference between the distributions of observed and expected frequencies than the sampling fluctuation alone.

Similarly, students rated with the mean value (Mean=2.6) which was higher than teachers and principals (Mean=2.4). However, both respondents rated above average with mean value (WM=2.5) which indicated as the item was a problem which might hinder the achievement of UPE goal. In this line, one of the PTA members of Dangur Woreda said that:

> I personally observed that the school facilities were not conducive for teaching- learning process. The school in our locality (Qouta) has no fence and sport field in which our children play and spent most of their time in a field covered by large grasses that is full of snakes. There were many students who are bitten by snakes but thanks to God we are with our local medicine to treat our children. In addition to this there is no water supply, toilet, ventilated classrooms, well covered roofs, and totally the interest of our children to go to school is very low. For example my son is happy if he goes for hunting with me than going to school *(Manbuk, Qouta, 21/03/2009, 2.45 P.M).*

Similarly as it was observed by the researcher himself during observation session, some classrooms lack desk, blackboards, water supply, toilets etc. In some areas like Bashata and Mankush Junior primary schools, classrooms were not built based on the climatic condition of the areas in which the walls were built of concrete without sufficient window and most of the students were sitting on the floor. In addition, leave alone separate toilets, most of the schools do not have common toilets and students were expected to go to the nearest forest for toilet which is a little bit far from the school itself. Moreover most of the school do not have fence which separate

it from the neighboring parents house in which it was common to found goats and other animals in front of each of the door less classrooms. This problem was common for most of the schools like Bashata, Almahal and Qouta primary schools.

Concerning the over crowdedness of classrooms, 30(9.8%) of students agreed while most 242(79.3%) of them disagreed. Similarly 86(85.2%) of teachers and principals disagree while only few, 9(8.9%) of them agreed. This fact was related to PSR of the three Woredas (Mandura, Dangur and Guba) 54, 48 and 37 respectively in which the average PSR was 45 which was lower than the standard of the region that was 60:1(See Table 32 in Appendix III). The lower PSR indicated the underutilization of resource in which the class built was not fully occupied with sufficient number of students. Moreover, the mean value of students, teachers and principals (Mean=1.3) and the average mean value (WM=1.3) of both respondents were below average which indicated that the item might not be a problem.

Moreover, as students, teachers and principals were asked to identify the total number of students in their class, majority of students (183(60%)) responded that it was below 50 while 67(22%) respond as the average was 56. Similarly, most of teachers and principals, 33(32.6%), responded that the total number of students in a class were below 50(See Table 34 of Appendix XII).

Furthermore, the regional standard for PSR was 60:1(BGREB, Annual Abstract, 2007/8). The analysis indicated that the total number of students found in a class were less than the standard setting which revealed that there were inefficient uses of class, teachers and other resources. Similarly, as the average numbers of students found in a class were less than the standards number, that might revealed that students' participation was very low in the study area.

Pertinent to the absence of upper primary school (5-8) in the nearby Gumuz villages, 279(91.5%) students agreed while only 15(4.9%) of them disagreed as there was shortage of upper primary school existed. Similarly 94(93.1%) of teachers and principals also agreed while 5(5%) of them disagreed. Moreover, the mean value of students (Mean=2.9) and of teachers and principals (Mean=2.9) also

indicated both respondents almost rated equally and the average mean value of them (WM=2.9) were above average which indicated that the item might have major influence in hindering the participation of Gumuz children in primary school.

As the government expands accessibility to lower primary education, it must simultaneously increase the supply of upper primary education (5-8) and also if possible secondary and other higher institutes. The absence of upper primary education will discourage the children and might frustrate them to continue even on the first primary education. In line with this, one of educational officer from Guba Woreda stated that:

> As a culture Gumuz communities live in a separate village which includes very small ethnic tribes. Moreover as the expanding of primary schools lies on the shoulder of government and the expansion needs high budget, the government alone cannot build the upper primary schools for each separate villages and also assign teachers to conduct the teaching-learning process. Therefore the best solution to expand the upper primary school for each village is using resettlement program and collecting the separated Gumuz villages in one area which is near to main road and market place *(Mankush, 12/03/2009, 5:30 P.M).*

This was also confirmed during the observation as 11(64.7%) of the sampled schools do not have upper primary schools while only 6(35.3%) of the schools were complete primary (1-8) (See Table 32 of Appendix III). Moreover, the enrolment of indigenous ethnic groups of the region in the secondary education was lower compared to that of primary level which indicates that they may not complete their primary education because of the absence of upper primary school near their village (see Table 4.6 above).

Concerning the irrelevance of curriculum with Agro-pastoralist life, 214(70.2%) students agreed while 45(14.7%) disagreed with the irrelevance of curriculum. Similarly, 79(78.2%) of the teachers and principals also agreed. The chi-square result (X^2= 2.8, P>0.05) revealed that there is no significant difference between the opinion of the respondents. The mean value (WM=2.6) of both respondents was above average and indicated as the irrelevance of curriculum with the life style of the agro-pastoralist might be one of the major problems in hindering the

achievement of UPE in the study areas. Moreover, one of the educational experts of the REB agreed with the irrelevance of curriculum by saying that:

> In our region the curriculum for the primary education is adopted from the SNNP REB. There is a little bit adjustment made to make it relevant to the culture and life style of the region. Therefore it is possible to say that there is a problem and moreover the problem is severe in the case of the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz community which needs readjustment *(Assosa, 9/03/2009, 8:30 A.M).*

In addition to this other educational office experts from Guba woreda explains the case as;

> I can say that the curriculum is totally irrelevant with the life style of Agro-Pastoralists. Leave alone others, the name of individuals in the students text book which was taken as an example did not coincide with Gumuz communities. Moreover, different reading paragraphs were talking about the culture, religion and life styles of unknown communities by Gumuz children *(Mankush, 11/03/2009, 5:20 P.M).*

The result of the study also coincides with the finding of carry-Hill and Peart (2005) that indicate the school curricula and teaching methods used do not reflect the curricula back ground of the nomadic groups. As a result, children had faced difficulty in applying what they had learned in the school to solve their daily problem. This might compromised their interest to education and the achievement of UPE in the Agro-pastoralist areas of the region. Moreover, UNESCO (1998) and Anderson (1992) also added that people learn best when what they are learning makes sense in their lives. Therefore, relevant curriculum is one that presents the basic learning skills in such a way that parents see their importance for the daily lives and expected the futures of their sons' and daughters'.

Pertinent to the case of mother tongue as a medium of instruction, though there was no statistical difference between the opinion of students, teachers and principals, the majority of both groups (272 (89.2%) of the students and 89 (88.1%) of teacher and principals) agreed that lack of using Gumuz language as a medium of instruction in the primary grades contributed negatively in the achievement of UPE in the study area. The mean value of

students (Mean=2.9) and of teachers and principals (Mean=2.7) also indicated that students rated higher than teachers and principals and both rated above average.

Currently students learn in Amharic language in the lower primary (1-4) and in English in upper primary (5-8) schools of the sampled schools. Furthermore, the absence of mother tongue as a medium of instruction might confirm as the curriculum was irrelevant (Carr-Hill and Peart, 2005). In addition one of the REB experts explained the following:

> It is well known that the best medium of instruction for a child at primary level by his/her mother language. A student taught in language he/she understood well can used his/her home experience and learned more rapidly than when unfamiliar language was used. It is also pedagogically accepted to teach student in their first language at this stage, which made clear, understood what they already taught. Moreover, it is political rights of individual to learn in his/her language. However, in our region we started from last year and finished the designing of syllabus to teach students in their language for three ethnic groups (Gumuz, Bertha, and Shinasha) except Mao and Komo. By now we started teaching the three ethnic groups at pilot schools starting from grade 1-3. Therefore, this problem which still forced students to learn with other language becomes solved and we hope that regional dropout and repetition rate which might be because of this problem will be solved for the future *(Assosa ,9/03/2009 8:50 A.M).*

Moreover one of the educational experts of Dangur woreda further elaborates the issue as:

> As the medium of instruction was Amharic, Gumuz children as well as parents believe that the education itself benefits the owner of the language but not Gumuz community. That was why Gumuz children lost interest and did not understand what they learned *(Manbuk, 18/03/2009, 2:45 P.M).*

In conformity with this finding, Bolanger and Koawole cited in Derbessa (2006) stated that teaching in mother tongue is important to ensure quality of education, especially at the earlier stages of education. Moreover, school performance of children becomes better, activated and interact well with the subject when they are taught in their mother tongue which might be the best way of insuring that pupil's to grasp the meaning perfectly.

Pertinent to the lack of involvement of Gumuz parents in school affairs, 211(69.2%) and 82(26.9%) of students agreed and disagree respectively. Similarly, 82(81.2%) of teachers and principals agree while 15(14.9%) of them disagreed. The chi-square result (X^2=6, P<0.05) revealed that there was significant difference between the opinion of the respondents. This indicated that the difference between the distribution of observed and expected frequencies was greater than that which would be expected from sampling fluctuation alone.

The mean value of students (Mean= 2.5) and of teachers and principals (Mean=2.7) indicated that there was difference in rating scale and teachers and principals rated the impact of low level of involvement of Gumuz parents in school affairs higher than that of students. Even if there was difference in rating, both groups rated with the mean value (WM=2.6) above average which revealed that low participation of Gumuz parents in school affairs was one of the major factors that might affect children participation in their education.

Concerning lack of special training of teachers based on the agro-pastoralist way of life, 81(80.2%) of teacher and principals agreed while 10(9.9%) of them disagreed. The mean value of teachers and principals (Mean=2.7) also indicated that lack of special training of teachers might have an impact on the participation of their children in education.

It is also true that if teachers have awareness and trained based on the life style of the agro-pastoralist, they can easily understand what problem do students face and make the teaching-learning simple and clear for their students. Furthermore, the irrelevant curriculum suggests the need to have special training for teachers to adapted and use them efficiently. Lack of special training in this regard might resulte in the formation of gap between teachers and students. Furthermore, as it was reported in the teachers background characteristics, about 93(92.1%) of them were from other ethnic groups like Agew, Amhara, Oromo, Shinasha etc (see Table 4.1 above). In addition to this, one of the woreda education officer (head of the office) indicated the non-existence of such training and the problem of budget to train when he said:

The training needs budget and there is one international NGO working on TDP (Teachers Development program) which release budget for training. However, the fund was released only for REB and higher institutes. The college found in our zone provides training for the teachers in our zone on CPD (continuous professional Development) and Active learning-teaching process, and the likes. I believed that this training is good but still it does not contain such training that focused on the agro-pastoralist way of life. Therefore, it is known that teachers need a special training but where do you get the budget to do that? So we used most of the teachers who born in the locality and know the language, culture and life style of the agro-pastoralist and we give priority during recruitment *(GilgelBeles, 26/03/2009, 2:35 A.M).*

4.3.2. Out-of-School Related Constraints

There might be many out-of-school challenging factors (household/demand side related challenging factors) which hinder the achievement of UPE targets. As far as achieving the target of UPE was concerned, the socio-economic problem might play an immense role as household/demand side challenging factor (UNICEF, 1998). Therefore, from the socio-economic problems, the effect of parents' level of income, demand of child labor by parents, problem of security issues, distance from home to school and parents awareness about the value of education in achieving UPE target were assessed as follows.

Table 4.11: Socio-Economic Related factors that Hinder Gumuz Children Participation in Primary School as responded by Students, Teachers and Principals

No	Item	Respondents	Statistics	Agreed 3	Undecided 2	Disagree 1	Total	Mean	WM	X^2
1	The level of income of Gumuz parents was inadequate to fulfill all school requirement to their children	S	Freq	251	14	40	305	2.7	2.7	2.3
			%	82.3	4.6	13.1	100			
		TP	Freq	89	2	10	101	2.7		
			%	88.1	2.0	9.9	100			
2	High demand of children labor by the parents	S	Freq	251	24	30	305	2.8	2.8	0.5
			%	82.3	7.9	9.8	100			
		TP	Freq	84	9	8	101	2.7		
			%	83.2	8.9	7.9	100			
3	Lack of awareness about the value of education by the Gumuz parents	S	Freq	257	12	36	305	2.7	2.8	0.6
			%	84.3	3.9	11.8	100			
		TP	Freq	86	5	10	101	2.8		
			%	85.1	5.0	9.9	100			
4	Problem of security issues around the ago-pastoralist localities	S	Freq	143	20	142	305	2.0	2.0	7.1*
			%	46.9	6.6	46.5	100			
		TP	Freq	49	-	52	101	2.0		
			%	48.5	-	51.5	100			
5	Distance from home to school is too far	S	Freq	265	18	22	305	2.8	2.7	22.7*
			%	86.9	5.9	7.2	100			
		TP	Freq	71	5	25	101	2.5		
			%	70.3	5.0	24.7	100			

N=406 α=0.05 df= 2 *X^2=significant difference
WM value ≤1.25 not a problem, 1.26-2.25 is partially a problem, ≥ 2.26 a major problem
S= students, TP= teachers and Principals

As table 4.11 depicts, 5 major out-of-schools socio-economic related challenging factors were identified that hinder the participation of Gumuz children in primary education and being obstacle for the achievement of UPE.

With regard to the level of income of Gumuz parents, 251(82.3%) of the students agreed while 40(13.1%) disagreed and 14(4.6%) of them undecided. Similarly 89(88.1%) of teachers and principals also agreed while only few 10(9.9%) of them disagreed. The mean value of students, teachers and principals indicated that both rated with equal rating scale and the average mean value (WM=2.7) of both respondents indentified as the item can be considered as a major challenging factor.

In line with this, the finding of UNESCO (1980) stated that the major obstacle to children's basic education in Ethiopia is a widespread poverty particularly at the household level. The relevance of poverty factors lies in the fact that even when there are schools it inhibits school enrolment and attendance due to high poverty of their parents which leads inability to pay school related expenditure, sickness due to malnutrition and lack of medical care etc.

Furthermore, as it was observed by the researcher himself Gumuz communities live mainly in small but scattered villages by farming while others live in goat breeding as they are being agro-pastoralist. However, the way they breed and ploughing their land is by using hand tools which are back ward and they were not profitable while their income in house hold level was very small.

In the same way, one of the KETB members at Mandura woreda confirms the problem by saying that:

> The burden of poverty (low economic income) is much more on girls than boys as Gumuz parents use girls to work in farmland, fetching water from distant place, preparing food at home, looking after babies etc. Culturally in Gumuz community girls work at farm while the husband is looking after goats and going for hunting outside the home. Therefore, lack of income has a burden on girls' education than boys *(Manbuk, 20/03/2009, 8:40 A.M).*

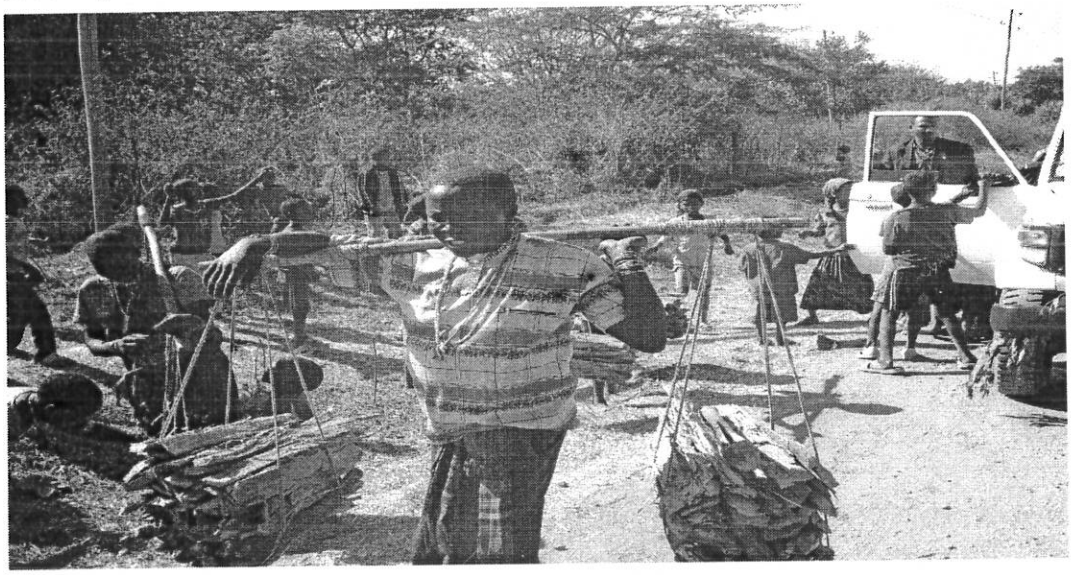
Moreover, one of the community elders further elaborated the problem as:

> The farming style of Gumuz community did not using oxen or other machines as the other parts of rural Ethiopia, instead they only used hand

tools and human labor, the income they earn was not more than what they eat. To overcome this burden it needs the participation of the whole families to survive. Therefore, children also participate in this ceremony to bring up the income rather than going to school *(Manbuk, 19/03/2009, 3:30 P.M).*

From the above interviews it seemed that the problem of poverty might challenged children, especially girls', in attending their education.

Figure 4.1: Gumuz Girl carrying heavy wood (Hardship life style because of low economic problem)



Source: Photo by the researcher at Mandura Woreda, 28/03/2009, 8:40 A.M

As it was observed from the figure above, the burden of poverty hurt more of mothers and girls than husbands and they tried to overcome it through selling wood, charcoal etc. on market of the near town by carrying it on her shoulder.

Furthermore, on the questions that student were asked on how often they did have adequate breakfast before they went to school, 205(67.2%) of them responded as they had breakfast sometimes while 30(9.8%) and 70(23%) of them responded always and never at all respectively (see Table 33, Appendix XVI). Therefore, as most of students did not have breakfast, they might become passive in their education and think about their hunger than learning in the class actively.

As far as the need of child labor by their parents was concerned, 251(82.3%) of students agreed while 24(7.9%) and 30(9.8%) of them undecided and disagreed

respectively. Similarly 84(83.2%) of teachers and principals also agreed while 8(7.9%) of them disagreed and 9(8.9%) undecided.

The mean value of students (Mean= 2.8) and of teachers and principals (Mean= 2.7) indicated that students rated higher than teachers and principals while the average mean (WM=2.75) indicated as the item was a major problem.

Furthermore, the finding made by Anderson (1999) coincided with this study and revealed that children of poor families, those who need every family member to work if they were to survive, frequently must forfeit education by dropout children from their education. Even when schooling is free, families must pay for clothes, transport, and school supplies added an expense to the loss of children's labor contribution to the household.

Figure 4.2: Gumuz mother going to market with her daughter

Source: Photo by the researcher at Dangur Woreda, 18/03/2009, 5:55 P.M

The above figure indicate how much Gumz daughters are suffering in helping their parents by going with them to town while others (at the back) are playing at the break time of schooling

Furthermore, on the questionnaire students were asked whether they perform their homework or not, 209(68.5%) responded as they do not perform while 96(31.5%) of them responded as they perform their homework and daily study lesson at home. For the question to give their reason why they do not perform and lose daily study time, 186(61%) of them justified as they were expected to help their parents at home after schooling while 98(32.1%) of them responded as they become tired during night because of the long journey they travel to reach home (See Table 34 of Appendix XII).

Therefore, high demand for child labor was seemed to be one of the household related prominent factors that might hinder Gumuz children participation in primary school.

With regard to awareness about the value of education, 257(84.3%) of students agreed while 36(11.8%) of them disagreed. Similarly 86(83.2%) of teachers and principals agreed while 10(9.9%) of them disagreed. The mean value of student (Mean=2.7) and of teachers and principles (Mean= 2.8) indicated that teachers and principals rated with higher scale than that of students. Even if the mean value was rated at different rating scale, both rated above average (WM=2.75) and revealed as the item might be one of the major problems.

On the open questionnaire asked to express how it was going to make parents aware about the value of education and whose responsibility is it, teachers explain that more of the task was given for them. Moreover, the house to house canvassing by teacher to aware parents on the value of education and to make them send their child to school brings teachers and agro-pastoralist Gumuz parents, who consider the demand of sending their child to school as unwarranted and intrusive into their economic and household affairs, into direct conflict.

In line with this finding, the conclusion reached by Hyde et.al (2005), stated that illiterate parents have limited understanding of the importance of education and the urgency to send their school age children for study. They are not only hesitate to send their children to school, but less inclined to provide study time, stationary, clothing etc. as they lack the awareness about the value of education.

Therefore, that lack of awareness about the value of education by the parents was seemed to be one of the major household related problems that might hinder the participation of Gumuz children in primary school in order to achieve the target of UPE.

Pertinent to the existence of security problems, 143(46.9%) of students agreed while 142(46.5%) of them disagreed. Similarly 49(48.5%) of teachers and principals also agreed while 52(51.5%) of them disagreed. The chi-square result (X^2=7.1, P<0.05) revealed that there was significant opinion difference between the respondents.

In line with this, the community elders at Mandura Woreda also agreed that there were security problems between Gumuz ethnic groups of one village and other village as well as between Gumuz ethnic groups and other ethnic groups like Agew communities which by now became reduced even though not eradicated. However, Dangur and Guba woredas are where security problem was not common compared to the Mandura woreda. This might be the reason for the significant opinion difference between the respondents.

The average mean value (Wm=2.0) of both respondents indicated that the item seemed to be one of the household related partial problem that might hinder Gumuz children in primary school participation.

Moreover, this problem coincided with the review of related literature stated by UNICEF (2003) stated as lack of safety and security in the school environment may be very obvious in terms of physical danger, such as beating and rape and parents will naturally hesitate to send their daughter to schools that are thought to be sites of physical or sexual gender violence.

Concerning distance from home to school, 265(86.9%) of students agreed as the distance from home to school was far. Similarly 71(70.3%) of teachers and Principals also agreed while 25(24.7%) disagreed. The chi-square result (X^2=23.0, P<0.05) revealed that there was significant opinion difference between the respondents. Moreover, the significant difference in their opinion might be because

of the participation of both respondents from rural and urban as they were taken randomly from the selected Gumuz localities where distance can be varied accordingly.

The mean value of students (Mean=2.8) and of teachers and principals (Mean=2.5) also indicated that students responded with high rating scale than teachers and principals. However, both rated above average mean value (WM=2.65) and the item can considered to be severe problem that might have an impact on students' participation in primary schools.

According to the interview made with Dangur Woreda education officer, the problem of distance is because of the living style of Gumuz community. Naturally one village was found at a very far distance from the other. This has again its own reason that as Gumuz communities mainly live on farming of small land to plough crops like maize, corn and raring goats. They need fertile lands as they use simple hand tools to get the plants grow easily and free lands for their goat to graze.

Moreover, on the question that students asked on how often they became absent from school and came late to school, 165(54.1%) of the responded as they became absent always while 124(40.7%) of them responded sometimes they become absent from school. Similarly, 265(86.9%) of them responded that they came late school always while only 28(9.8%) and 12(3.9%) of them responded as they sometimes and never come late to school respectively. On the open questionnaire they asked to give reasons for what make them to be late and absent from school, 111(36.4%), 102(33.4%) and 92(30.1%) of students responded that to help their parents, lack of upper primary school near to their villages and far distance from home to school respectively (see Table 33, Appendix XVI).

4.3.3. Socio-Cultural Related Factor

There might be various harmful traditional practices that might affect children, especially girl', physically, socially and psychologically as the cultural aspects that have passed from generation were taken for granted and have been accepted and practiced by communities. Among the socio-cultural problems that might hinder the education of agro-pastoralist Gumuz communities, fear of bad culture (like rape,

harassment, early marriage etc.), problem of exchanging Gumuz females to get wife for her brother, instability of parents in one place, lack of educated role model and lack of awareness of the value of educating girls were analyzed as follows.

Table 4.12: Socio-Cultural factors that Hinder the Participation of Gumuz Children in Primary Education as responded by Students, Teachers and Principals

No	Item	Respondents	Statistics	Agree 3	Undecided 2	Disagree 1	Total	Mean	WM	X^2
1	Gumuz parents fear bad culture (like rape, abduction, early marriage, harassment) & hesitate to send their child to school	S	Freq	134	51	120	305	2.0	2.0	4.3
			%	43.9	16.7	39.4	100			
		TP	Freq	44	9	48	101	2.0		
			%	43.6	8.9	47.5	100			
2	Problems of exchanging Gumuz female to get wife by her brother	S	Freq	226	8	71	305	2.6	2.55	1.6
			%	74.1	2.6	23.3	100			
		TP	Freq	75	5	21	101	2.5		
			%	74.2	5.0	20.8	100			
3	Instability of Gumuz parents in one place	S	Freq	11	21	273	305	1.1	1.15	3.3
			%	3.6	6.9	89.5	100			
		TP	Freq	8	7	86	101	1.2		
			%	7.9	6.9	85.1	100			
4	Lack of educated role model of Gumuz ethnic group	S	Freq	224	30	51	305	2.6	2.55	2.1
			%	73.5	9.8	16.7	100			
		TP	Freq	70	8	23	101	2.5		
			%	69.3	7.9	22.8	100			
5	Lack of awareness of Gumuz parents about the value of girls education	S	Freq	269	13	23	305	2.8	2.85	0.4
			%	88.2	4.3	7.5	100			
		TP	Freq	91	4	6	101	2.9		
			%	90.1	4.0	5.9	100			

*N=406 α=0.05 df=2 *X^2=significant difference*
WM≤1.25 not a problem, 1.26-2.25 partially a problem, ≥ 2.26 a major Problem
S=Students TP=Teachers and Principals

Pertinent to fear of bad culture by Gumuz communities, 134(43.9%) of students agreed while 51(16.7%) and 120(39.4%) undecided and disagree respectively as parents fear bad culture to send their children to school. Similarly 44(43.6%) of teachers and principals also agreed while 48(47.5%) disagreed and 9(8.9%) undecided. The chi-square result (X^2=4.3, P>0.05) revealed that there was no significant difference between the opinion of the respondents.

The mean value of students (Mean=2.0) and of teachers and principals (Mean=2.0) indicated that the respondents rated equally and the mean value of both rated was at an average and revealed that the item might have partial problems on hindering students participation.

On the top of this, one of the PTA members explained the problem as:

> Normally this bad culture like abduction, rape and harassment were not Gumuz cultures. However as a culture when one boy do not has sister to exchange with other girl to make a wife or do not has gun to give as a dowries he may uses forcible marriage through rape to avoid the payment of a bride price and therefore girls may face early marriage which happened in rear cases *(GilgelBeles, 23/03/2009, 5:55 P.M).*

Therefore, fear of bad culture like rape, abduction and early marriage by Gumuz parents was not seemed to be a major bad culture to influence the participation of their children from primary school.

As far as the problem of exchanging of Gumuz girls to get wife by her brother was concerned, 226(74.1%) of students agreed while 71(23.3%) of them disagreed. Similarly, 75(74.2%) of teachers and principals agreed and 21(20.8%) disagreed. The mean value of students (Mean=2.6) and of teachers and principals (Mean=2.5) indicated that students rated higher than teachers and principals. This seemed to be also accepted as they are students who were more exposed and influenced by the problem than teachers and principals. Even though there was difference in rating scales, both rated above average (WM=2.55) which indicated as the problem might have an impact on Gumuz children participation in primary school.

In line with this finding, one of the KETB members at Mandura woreda explained the problem as:

> The practice of exchanging one's Gumuz boy sister for a wife of her brother was previously the predominant culture of our marriage style. But now the kebele administrators decide to penalized (punished) the boy's parents who exercise it and the Gumuz parents partially aware of it and the situation decreased even though not eliminated for other Gumuz girls living at rural areas. It is possible to take as an example that what was happen at Gidmdafli (one of the Gumuz village) last week in which two female students were exchanged at the same time by their brothers for wife *(GilgelBeles, 13/03/2009, 3:55 P.M).*

From this interview, the practice of exchanging Gumuz females to get wife by her brother was still exercising at the rural Gumuz localities which might be one of the hindering factor in participation of girls' in their education.

In support with this finding, Augustine et.al (2007) stated that particularly a common reason for girls not attending or dropping out of school is early marriage and other bad cultural practice like abduction, rape harassment and the like. The study also describe that, although early marriage is decreasing and the legal age for marriage started from 18 years in the criminal code revised in 2005, there was still marriage under this age. Therefore, the problem of exchanging Gumuz girls to get wife by her brother was seemed to be one of the bad cultural practices that might hinder Gumuz female from participation in primary school.

With regarded to educated role model in Gumuz communities, 224(73.5%) of students agreed while 51(16.7%) of them disagreed and 30(9.81) undecided as there was lack of educated role model of Gumuz ethnic groups. Similarly, 70(69.3%) of teachers and principals agreed while 23(22.8%) disagree and 8(7.9%) undecided. The chi-square result (X^2=2.1, P>0.05) revealed that there was no significant difference between the opinion of the respondents.

The mean value of students (Mean= 2.6) and of teachers and principals (Mean= 2.5) also indicated that there was difference in rating scale and students rated higher than teachers and principals. Even if there was difference in their rating scales, both rated above average and revealed that the item might have an impact on Gumuz student participation in primary school.

In line with this, one of the community elders confirmed the importance of role model by saying:

> We have seen those children who learn their education at primary school and join government's job. But the job is not above janitress, guards and drivers. Beside their government work all of them work at the field to satisfy their family needs. What we understand from this situation is that education does not benefit them. Therefore, why I send my children to education? Instead it is better to teach my son how goats can be reared and sold at the market, plough at field etc. to be good farmer which is expected from me *(GilgelBeles, 22/03/2009, 8:50 A.M).*

From the above interview it seemed easy to understand to what extent Gumuz parents argued and understand as education is not an appropriate investment by looking other Gumuz communities which cannot be a good role model for them.

Moreover, the conclusion made by UNICEF (2002) which stated that one good school level practice strategy that has been promoted was the increased use of female teachers to act as a role model for girls making the school environments more girl-friendly and opening labor market opportunities for the girls which showed that using educated girls role model that might be as a teacher or other administrative position in that area helps to increase the enrolment of girls.

Moreover, one of the Educational office experts at Dangur woreda explains that:

> Lacks of educated role model has its own effect to initiate their children to participate in education. However, most of the Gumuz ethnic group who were being on the administrative position in the few past years and even now were not being educated and completed their schooling. Therefore, the community assumes as it was possible to be a leader without completing even the primary education. Then to act as a role model, it is better if there was more of Gumuz teachers at both level, Nurses, Doctors and other higher administrative bodies that attract others to increase their participation in education *(Manbuk, 18/03/2009, 5:45P.M).*

In addition to the above interview, the total number of educated female Gumuz teachers, principals and educational experts both at zonal and regional level was 15(17.4%), 1(6.7%) and 1(4.8%) respectively (See Table 4.3 item 3 above). This indicated that lack of educated role model from Gumuz ethnic group was seemed to be one of the major socio-cultural related problems that might hinder Gumuz children participation in primary school.

Pertinent to the awareness of Gumuz parents about the value of girls education, 269(88.2%) of students agreed while 23(7.5%) disagreed as there was lack of awareness by Gumuz parents in the value of girls education. Similarly, 91(90.1%) of teachers and principals agreed while only few 6(5.9%) and 4(4.0%) of them disagreed and undecided respectively.

The mean value of students (Mean=2.8), teachers and principals (Mean=2.9) indicated as teachers and principals rated higher than that of students. Even if they rated in different rating scale, the mean value of both respondents (WM=2.85) was above average which indicated as the item might be one of the prominent problems.

Similarly, it was observed that 1203 (25.4%) female Gumuz students were participated in their primary education out of 4736 students of Metekel Zone of Gumuz localities (see Table 4.2 above). This showed that girls education compared to boys seemed to be relatively low in which it might be because of lack of awareness of Gumuz parents about the value of girls' education that also might leads to Gender disparity and can affects the target of achieving UPE.

4.3.4. Socio-Climatic Challenges

It is clear that different geographic areas do have different climatic conditions that might be harsh or conducive for living in general and conducting education in particular. Hereunder, socio-climatic constraints like, harsh weathering condition, disease, the demographic nature etc that hinder the participation of children of the agro-pastoralist areas in their education in achieving the target of UPE will be assessed.

Table 4.13: Socio-Climatic Problems that Hinder the Participation of Gumuz Children in Primary School as responded by Students, Teachers and Principals

No	Item	Respondent	statistics	Agree 3	Undecided 2	Disagree 1	Total	Mean	WM	X^2
1	The impact of half day schooling on student participation	S	Freq	137	69	99	305	2.2	2.0	9.5*
			%	44.9	22.6	32.4	100			
		TP	Freq	35	16	50	101	1.8		
			%	34.7	15.8	49.5	100			
2	The impact of malaria on student health	S	Freq	179	36	90	305	2.2	2.2	1.8
			%	58.7	11.8	29.5	100			
		TP	Freq	58	8	35	101	2.2		
			%	57.4	7.9	34.7	100			
3	Inflexible class schedule	S	Freq	34	29	242	305	1.3	1.3	5
			%	11.1	9.5	79.4	100			
		TP	Freq	9	3	89	101	1.3		
			%	8.9	3.0	88.1	100			

*N=406 α=0.05 df=2 *X2=significant difference S=Students TP=teachers and Principals*
WM value ≤1.25 not a problem, 1.26-2.25 is partially a problem, ≥ 2.26 a major problem

As table 4.13 depicts, there are three socio-climatic related problems that hinder the achievement of UPE by decreasing Gumuz children participation which included the

impact of half day schooling, impact of malaria and the inflexibility of school calendar.

Pertinent to the impact of half day schooling, 137(44.9%) students agreed while 99(32.4%) and 69(22.6%) disagreed and undecided respectively as half day schooling has an impact on students participation on their education. On the other hand 35(34.7%) of teachers and principals also agree while 50(49.5%) disagree and 16(15.8%) undecided. The chi-square result (X^2=9.5, P<0.05) reveals that there was significant difference between the opinion of the respondents. Moreover, on the open questionnaire students were asked what they did after half day schooling also prevails this idea in which the students were busy on the housework and become tired to study and fail in doing their homework for the tomorrow's class.

The mean value of student (Mean= 2.2) and of teachers and principals (Mean=1.8) indicated that there was difference in rating scale in which students rated higher than teachers and principals. Even if the mean value of the respondents differ in rating scale, both rated above average value and indicated as the half day schooling might have partial impact on student participation.

As far as the impact of malaria was concerned, 179(58.7%) of students agreed while 90(29.5%) and 16(5.2%) of them disagreed and undecided respectively. Similarly 58(57.4%) of teachers and principals agreed while 35(34.7%) and 8(7.9%) of them disagreed and undecided respectively. The chi-square result (X^2=1.8, P>0.05) revealed that there was no significant opinion difference between the respondents.

The mean value of both respondents rated equally and above average that indicated as the item might have impact on students' primary school participation.

In line to this, the findings by WFP (2005) stated that disease, war, lack of infrastructure and chronic poverty all pay a part in keeping children from school along with other socio-climatic factors. With this regard, a child may struggle through prolonged absences due to malaria or intestinal worms that might be endemic because of the socio-climatic problems.

Moreover, teachers and principals also identified during the open questionnaire that the problem of malaria in the existing place did not only affected students participation but teachers were also sick for a week or more and absent from school while students become absent which indicated that malaria might have its own impact on the participation of children in primary school.

4.4. Strategies to be undertaken to solve the challenging factors

As there are challenges in achieving the target of UPE because of different problems like socio-economic, socio-cultural, socio-climatic and other school related factors, it is convenient to design a possible strategies to reduce, even though impossible to overcome, the obstacles. A number of strategies were applied in many parts of the world and even in our country to overcome the challenges in achieving UPE targets in the agro-pastoralist areas where children are living in a place of very hard to reach and tighten in different social problems mentioned above. Therefore, under the present study, a question was arranged for teachers, principals and educational experts to put across their experience regarding alternative strategies that could help to achieve the target of UPE in the region in general and in the agro-pastoralist areas of the study areas in particular. The strategies suggested and the responses were analyzed and presented as follows in table 4.14 below.

*Table 4.14: **Possible Strategies to be used to Achieve UPE as Responded by Teachers and Principals** (See Appendix XIII)*

As table 4.14 depicts, there are about 14 possible strategies to solve the challenging factors that might be used to achieve the UPE targets in the study areas. For the sake of analyses the possible strategies were categorized as out-of-school (supply side), and school related strategies.

The chi-square value at $\alpha = 0.05$ and df = 2 is 5.99 at p=0.05. If the calculated chi-square value of respondents' ≥ 5.99, $P < 0.05$, there is a significant difference between the opinions of respondents while if the calculated chi-square value of respondent < 5.99, $P > 0.05$, there is no significant difference between the opinions

of the respondents. In addition by considering the average mean score of the respondents as 2.0, the following analyses were forwarded.

With regarded expansion of school feeding, 72 (71.3%) of teachers and principals agreed while only 17(16.8%) and 12(11.9%) of them disagreed and undecided respectively as expansion of school feeding program can enhance children registration to school. On the other hand 16(76.2%) of educational experts agreed while only 5(23.8%) of them disagreed. The chi-square value ($x^2 = 3.6$, $p > 0.05$) also revealed that there was no significant difference between the opinion of teachers, principals and experts. The mean values of teachers and principals (Mean=2.4) and of educational experts (Mean=2.5) indicated that experts rated higher than teachers and principals. Even though experts rated with high rating scales, both rated above average (WM=2.45) which indicated as the item can be one of the possible strategies.

Moreover, on the open questionnaire to explain why they take as possible strategy, educational experts argue that without the participation of NGOs it was very difficult for the government to allocate budget for such program. In line with this, one of the REB education officers explained that:

> It is an interesting strategy if and only if there was allocated budget on the prior. As it was known that Gumuz parents did not have sufficient income and as one of the obstacle in hindering the participation of their children was economic problem, I suggest the program by selecting children of those parents who were economically poor and can't send their child to school because of such problems and of course with the participation of donors *(Asossa, 9/03/2009 8:50 A.M).*

In support with this, WFP (2005) states that a school meals offer hope and gives an incentive for poor families to enroll their children in school. It provides children with the nutrition and energy that they need to focus and concentrate in class. Similarly MOE (2006) stated that as the program can contribute to increase access and as its principal purpose is to boost enrolment of pupils in primary and pre-primary schooling the school feeding program might be one mechanism to alleviate the participation of poor Gumuz parents' children in school.

As far as boarding schools were concerned, 87(86.1%) and 11(10.9%) of teachers and principals agreed and disagreed respectively while 1(4.7%) of them undecided. Similarly 11(52.4%) of teachers and principals agree while 9(42.9%) of them disagreed and 3(3.0%) of them undecided. The chi-square result($X^2 = 13.9$, $p < 0.05$) revealed that there was significant difference between the opinion of teachers, principals and experts. Moreover, on the open question that asked their justification, experts stated as establishing boarding school by itself needs high budget and administration was not an easy task in which the region by now face difficulty to administer the only two boarding schools located at the region while teachers and principals explain as the boarding school solve the problem of low parental income by tolerating the administrative challenges which might be the cause for the opinion difference between the respondents.

The mean values of teachers and principals (Mean=2.8) and of experts (Mean=2.1) indicated that teachers and principals rated the item with higher rating scale than experts as boarding school can increase children registration to school. Even though they rated in different rating scales, both rated above average with the mean value (WM=2.45) which indicated as the item might be used as a major strategy.

Moreover, as it was observed that there are two boarding schools in the region, Tana Beles Girls' Boarding school and Kamash Boys' Boarding school located at two zones, (Metekel and Kamash). The boarding schools occupied 253 girls and 289 Boys respectively. This boarding school at the region was established on the agro-pastoralist areas by considering the large number of illiterate Gumuz communities. This number was not a simple thing compared to the total number of indigenous ethnic groups who were attending primary school in the regional level from 2004/05 to 2007/08 which has an average or percentage share of only 50.9 percent compared to other ethnic groups (see table 4.6 above) and the total number out of school students in the region.

In line with this, the use of boarding school as a strategy was also confirmed by UNESCO (1990) which state that boarding school is used as a solution to the high

dropout rate of students and economically poor areas. In spite of its short coming in which first parents are reluctant to send their children to boarding school and to whom they don't know and moreover children might not like to be separated from their family for a long time and secondly the construction and maintenance of boarding school is costly as it provides foods and lodging on the top of instructional costs different countries used it as the best solution. Beside to this, one of the regional education experts elaborated the idea by saying:

> The region had two boarding schools which were located at the agro-pastoralist Gumuz areas, Metekel zone Girls boarding school and Kamash zone boys' boarding school. The region established with the aim of educating Gumuz parents children which were economically poor and can't afford school payment even though the number was not adequate and also the selection criteria of children to join the school was not clear and has some ambiguity at the zonal level. This boarding school consists up to grade ten and we send the 10th grade completed students to Addis Ababa in which the effort was preparing educated indigenous ethnic groups particularly Gumuz children as they are backward in education compared to other ethnic groups. We believed that the number is not adequate and REB is trying its best to expand the program even those it has burden in administration and source of budget *(Assosa,10/03/2009, 8:50 P.M).*

Therefore, establishing boarding schools for economically poor and rural areas of Gumuz children was seemed to be one of the major possible strategies that might help to increase the participation of the agro-pastoralist children in primary school.

Concerning to improving Gumuz parents' awareness on the value of education, 89(88.1%) of teachers and principals agreed while 9(8.9%) disagreed as Gumuz parents were aware about the value of education. Similarly all 21(100%) of experts agreed as improving Gumuz parents' awareness of the value of education could be used as a strategy.

The mean values of teachers and principals (Mean=2.7) and of experts (Mean-=3.0) indicated that experts rated the item higher than teachers and principals. However, both rated above average mean value (WM=2.85) which indicated as the item might be used as a major strategy.

On top of this, Carry-Hill and Peart (2005) state that education could be seen as one vehicle for bringing nomadic pastoralist and their backward and inefficient

production system in to twenty-first century, which is "for transforming nomadic pastoralist in to modern livestock producers". To make them productive, they need to be aware first about the values of education as illiterate do not understand how education benefits them. In line to this, one of the KETB members confirmed the idea by saying:

> This program was one of our key strategies starting form the last two years. The administrative body also understand that one of the problem of Gumuz commity to send their children to education was not by hating the education itself but it was from not understanding how education benefits their child and even parents themselves *(Manbuk, 18/03/ 2009, 3:P.M.).*

From this, that awareness about the value of education was seemed to be one of the major possible strategies that might increase Gumuz children particpaiton in primary school.

With regarded to application of ABE centers approach to primary education, 73(72.3%) of teachers and principals agreed while 25(24.7%) of them disagreed and 3(3.0%) undecided as ABE centers plays a major role in enhancing primary education enrolment. Similarly 18(85.7%) of educational experts agreed while very few 25(24.7%) of them disagreed and only 3(3.0%) undecided.

The chi-square value (X^2=1.8, P>0.05) also revealed that there was no significant difference between the opinion of the respondents. The mean values of teachers and principals (Mean=2.6) and of experts (Mean=2.7) indicated that experts rated in higher rating scale than teachers and principals. Even though they rated at different rating scales, both of the respondents rated above average mean value (WM=2.65) which indicated as the item seemed to be used as a major strategies that might help to increase the participation of Gumuz children in primary education for the achievement of UPE target.

Moreover, in conformity with the above finding, Carry-Hill and Peart (2005), state that non-formal approach especially ABE program, can in principle offer opportunities for nomadic children to access education while on the move, as they do not require nomads in one place or attend a rigid institutional program such as a

boarding school. Moreover, one of the REB educational officers confirmed the importance by saying:

> ABE program can be taken as a solution for providing education especially for agro-pastoralist Gumuz areas which were found in dispersed and un reach villages. Moreover, using the program was not this much costly as a formal education and did not need well trained teachers. The program can also be taken to solve the problem of distance in which much of the Gumuz communities' children face the problem and leads to dropout. Therefore, by now we do have a total of 28 ABE centers in the Metekel zone of Gumuz areas, but we do have a program to increasing the number to 54 in the coming 5 years (2009/10-2014/15) as a strategy *(Assosa, 9/03/2009, 3:50 P.M).*

Therefore, the Application of ABE centers approach in to primary school and establishing the center for small Gumuz community village was appeared to be one of the major possible strategies to achieve the UPE program as it might increase Gumuz children participation in primary education.

The result from table 4.14 indicated expansion of school feeding program, using boarding schools for the extreme rural Gumuz areas and for those economically poor families, improving Gumuz parents awareness on the value of education, application of ABE centers approach into primary education, using Gumuz language as a medium of instruction, revising the curriculum based on the life style of Gumuz communities and construction of upper primary schools at a medium distance between Gumuz villages were identified by teachers, principals and REB, Zonal and woreda educational officers as a possible strategies that might help in alleviating the challenging factors to achieve UPE.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Summary

The main purpose of this study was to examine the major socio-economic, socio-cultural, socio-climatic as an out-of-school and school related factors that hinder the achievement of UPE in the agro-pastoralist areas of BGR and then to provide some possible strategies that should be implemented to alleviate those challenges the participation of Gumuz children in primary school. To this end, the following four basic questions were raised.

1. What is the current status of primary education in the Agro-Pastoralist areas of the region?
2. To what extent do out-of-school related (like socio-economic, socio-cultural etc) factors affect the achievement of UPE in the Agro-Pastoralist areas of the region?
3. To what extent do school related (like policy, curriculum, teaching material, medium of instraction etc) factors affect the achievement of UPE in the agro-pastoralist areas of the region?
4. What possible strategies are there to increase the possibility of achieving UPE in the Metekel zone of Gumuz communities?

The study was carried out in 17 government primary schools of Metekel zone of three woredas (Mandura, Dangur and Guba). The subjects of the study were 305 students, 86 teacher, 15 principals, 12 community elders, 21 educational experts, 21 PTA members, and 15 KETB teams. On the top of this, Metekel zone and the three woredas(Mandura, Guba and Dangur) were selected using purposive sampling method while the schools, teachers, students and educational experts were selected using random sampling method. Moreover, PTA, KETB, Gumuz community elders and principals were selected using availability sampling method.

The primary data obtained from questionnaire, interview, FGD and secondary data from the educational management information system of the Bureau were analyzed

in which data's were obtained through questionnaire from students, teachers and principals and while educational experts were also included in questionnaire to identify the possible strategies used to alleviate the challenging factors, interview from PTA members, educational experts, and KETB team, while FGD from Gumuz community elders. Moreover, relevant documents from zone, MOE, UNESCO, UNICEF etc. were treated.

In general, the sample population of the study comprised various groups that include pupils, teachers, school principles, Regional, Zonal and Woreda educational officials and experts', Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) members, Kebele Education and Training Board (KETB) teams and Gumuz community Elders. This diverse nature of the respondents has contributed a lot to the study in collecting reliable and relevant data and also helped to triangulate (counter check) the data gathered.

The data collected were analyzed using different statistical tool like frequency distribution, percentage and means. Opinion difference between student in one group and teachers and principals in other group, between teachers and principals responses as well as teachers and principals in one group and REB, Zonal and woreda education experts in the other group based on each variable were measured using the chi-square (x^2) test. Depending on the result of the data analyzed, the following major findings were obtained.

To begin with the primary education participation of agro-pastoralist Gumuz children in Metekel zone of the three Woreda (Mandura, Dangur and Guba), the NER was found to be 62.3 percent, which is relatively low compared to the regional NER 82.7 percent in the year 2007/08. Similarly, the GER of the three woredas was fond to be 76.6 percent which was very small compared to the regional GER of 107.5 percent indicated the low participation of the zone in general and the agro-pastoralist in particular. Moreover, from document analyses high dropout and repetition rates was fond to be 20.2 percent and 8.3 percent which even exceeded the regional rates of 12.9 and 6.5 percent respectively (BGERB, Annual Abstract,

2006/7). These altogether leave a well recognized shadow on the light of achieving UPE in the region.

With regard to the major school related factors, a serious problem of shortage of upper primary schools, absence of using Gumuz language (mother tongue) as the medium of instruction, irrelevance of curriculum with the life style of Gumuz parents and shortage of the new revised students text book (as it was adopted from SNNP region and lack of facilities like toilet, school fence, water service, student chairs and ventilated windows were found to be the major influential factor in limiting the interest of Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children in primary school participation. In most villages of the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz community those children who by chance completed their first primary school, faced a major challenges as upper primary school are sorely lacking. In addition to this, most of the teachers, principals and students respondent considered the presence of low involvement of Gumuz parents in school affairs in considering the school as their own and helping the school in kind and very minimum cash in this particular zone was found as impediment factor which in turn affect primary school participation of their children to achieve UPE in the region.

As the school related challenges related to the medium of instruction, it was found that Gumuz children speak with their own language (Gumuzigna) at home but learned in Amharic starting from grade 1-4 and English from grade 5-8, except those few pilot schools in which the program of mother tongue education have been started. Therefore, the difference in the medium of instruction from their own mother tongue was found as it face difficulty in understanding the subjects learned by Gumuz children and hesitate to continue in their education being their academic performance decreased and the dropout and repetition rates also increased.

As an out-of-school related challenging factors, the socio-economic factors of low level of income of Gumuz parents, as they follow primitive way of farming and animal husbandry which was also not adequate to fulfill school requirement for their child and even clothing, challenged the participation of their children in

primary school. This low parental income further resulted in participating children with the agro-pastoralist activities like herding goats, fetching water, collecting fire wood, participating in hunting, producing charcoal from wood for sale etc. which demand intensive labor force of their children as income generation and forced their children to dropout from school.

Furthermore, the effect of socio-economic problem along with other out-of-school related factors like distance from home to school, high demand of child labor and lack of awareness about the value of education by the parents were resulted as major challenging factors on the achievement of UPE particularly in the agro-pastoralist areas and generally in the region.

In this study, in related to the socio-climatic problems the fixed time schedule and school calendar which was only adjusted to half day schooling instead of considering harvesting and planting time of the agro-pastoralist parents was found to be cause for the agro-pastoralist children be involved in labor intensive activities after schooling which deprives students from their study time and might leads to poor academic performance which further resulted to low enrolment of school participation. Moreover, the impact of malaria on students and teachers health was found to be the major problem in hindering students' participation in primary school.

The socio-cultural related factors that hinder the participation of Gumuz children were that lack of awareness of Gumuz parents about the value of girls education, existence of exchanging Gumuz female to get wife by her brother and lack of educated role model from Gumuz female were found to be the major factor that discourage Gumuz females in their education.

Regarding with other possible obstacles on the participation of Gumuz children in primary schools, lack of having adequate breakfast before going to school, being absenteeism and coming late to school were raised. Among these possible challenges, as most of the students responded, coming late to school and lack of adequate breakfast before coming to school were found to be the other possible

obstacles for students to participate in their primary education. Moreover, majority of respondents' replay that they become late to school because their parents need them to help at home and because of the far distance from their home to school was found to be the second reason for their being late.

Inefficiency was found to be other obstacles in which the average Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR) and Pupil-Section Ratio (PSR) for the surveyed school were found to be 35.7:1 and 45:1 respectively. In comparison to the national standard PTR and PSR of 50:1 and 60:1, and the region PTR and PSR of 45:1 and 61:1 respectively in 2006/07 the founding figure indicated the under utilization of teacher and classrooms in the study area because of the low demand of the locality for schooling. Furthermore, the PBR was found to be 1 book: 3 pupils in most areas and 1book:4 pupils in other areas of the Gumuz localities which also indicated the presence of shortage of students' text books compared to the PBR of 1:1 standard of the national and the present PBR of 3 pupil: 2 set of books of regional level, as stated in BGREB annual abstract 2006/07, that affect the quality of education as a challenging factor and in affecting children participation in their education.

Regarding the possible strategies to be taken as an intervention, the following findings were obtained;

a. improve Gumuz parents awareness on the value of education in general and females education in particular
b. using Gumuz language as the medium of instruction where the majority of the community are Gumuz
c. construction of low cost upper primary schools (5-8) near the Gumuz villages
d. application of ABE centers approach into primary education
e. increasing the involvement of Gumuz communities in school affairs through PTA, KETB etc. and make them to participate in helping schools in kind and very minimum cash to make them think the school as their own

f. revising the curriculum based on the life styles of the agro-pastoralist Gumuz communities

g. using boarding schools for the extreme rural and economically poor Gumuz children and

h. Expansion of school feeding program for economically poor parents children were identified by teachers, principals and educational experts as a possible strategies to alleviate the challenging factors with the mean values of 2.85, 2.8, 2.65, 2.6, 2.55, and 2.45 respectively.

5.2. Conclusions

Depending on the findings of the study, the following main conclusions were made.

The findings of the study, as discussed in the preceding part, showed that progress has been made in the movement toward achieving UPE in Benishangul Gumuz region as enrolment rate become increased from year to year. However, as the result of this study revealed, the current status of Gumuz students participation in primary school for the agro-pastoralist areas of Gumuz community was found to be very low in which the progress made has been uneven and far too slow in achieving UPE.

Moreover, it can be conclude that the very high dropout and repetition rates was a problem in lowering the participation of primary education of the region and thereby prolonging the target year for achieving UPE. Similarly, it was possible to conclude that the lower PSR, PTR and the higher PBR in the study area indicated that it was inefficient and with less quality to achieve the UPE target. Furthermore, the participation of students in the agro-pastoralist areas of the region in most case was challenged by other factors like school related, socio-economic, socio-cultural, and socio-climatic problems as an out-of-school related challenging factor.

As the demand for schooling is the direct indication of household decisions that are affected by the above school related and out-of-school related factors and also as the finding of this study revealed, it is possible to conclude that the major challenging

factors on the agro-pastoralist Gumuz children participation in their education to achieve UPE in the region were found to be school related, socio-economic, and socio-climatic related factors.

The finding of the study also showed that the gap between participation of boys and girls and especially agro-pastoralist localities were at disadvantage position.

Thus, it might concluded that even though remarkable improvement have been registered with regarded to the movement toward achieving UPE , BGRS had less chance or unlikely meet the goal of UPE by the year 2015 unless the challenging factors in the Agro-pastoralist areas have been solved. If those challenges and problems have been persisted as constraining the progress towards achieving UPE in the agro-pastoralist areas in particular and the region in general would be an uphill battle and also leaves a well recognized shadow in the achievement of UPE.

5.3. Recommendations

On the basis of the major finding of the study and the conclusions arrived at, the following recommendations were forwarded as the basic solutions for the challenges in achieving the goal of UPE by the year 2015 in the agro-pastoralist areas in particular and the region in general.

In general, in the study area there was low demand for education which is reflected by low PTR and PSR. There was also low enrolment growth rate in general and for girls in particular. The reasons for this low participation in primary school were mainly related to school related and out-of school related challenging factors. Simply constructing schools did not solve such challenges. Hence, to solve the challenging factors the following measures should be taken and considered by the concerned bodies.

5.3.1. Address Those Socio-Economic Problems

1. As the finding of this study revealed, one of the major challenges in achieving UPE in agro-pastoralist areas of Benishangul Gumuz region was fond to be socio-economic constraints. Although there is encouraging evidence that the political commitment is strong, and effective reforms are adopted, the region is "at risk" of

not reaching the goal of achieving UPE unless stronger combination of political will, sustained and profound reform, and intensified supports with the socio-economic related demand side challenging factors have been reduced to increase participation of their children in primary schools.

Therefore, the school feeding programs and using boarding schools for those poor and economically low level parents to send their children to school has to be taken as a possible intervention. The practice of boarding school is observed in Tana Beles girls and Kamashi boys schools in which it enhance the participation of children of ethnic groups as they deprive education at the past. Thus, the regional education bureau should exert its maximum effort to expand such programs for the other rural and marginalized Gumuz localities with the participation of other NGO's.

Moreover, as low parental income negatively affects the ability to purchase school materials, parents with several children would likely be forced to make decision regarding the number of children they can afford to send to school. In this case, parents who have educating their sons over their daughters will choose accordingly. Thus, the reduction in the cost of required materials for children of poor families or for who are many in number but from a family can pay as a single person which would eliminate the direct cost of schooling would enable more parents to send their daughters to schools. Moreover, as poverty (economic problem) was one of the reasons for parents not send and withdrew their children to and from school, alleviating poverty by increasing their income through different means is important. In this regard, strengthening agricultural extension program, as the major income of agro-pastoralist Gumuz communities is through semi-agriculture in addition to their pastoralist, is important.

Furthermore, scholarships for poor parents' children and awarding parents who teach all of their children need to be established and expand. In this case, it is observed that FAWE Ethiopia chapter (NGO) donated uniform and other school material as well as pocket money for children of poor families in few areas of Metekel Zone. Thus, as the program would lessen the economic constraints which prevents, especially females, from attending school, by inviting other NGO's the

concerned body has to expand the program to the extreme rural and economically poor areas of Gumuz communities.

2. As the analysis and finding of the study confirmed, illiteracy and low awareness on the value of educating their children, especially girls, were the serious problems in affecting the education of children in the agro-pastoralist areas of the region. Therefore, awareness raising workshops and rallies on the importance of education in general and girls' education in particular through strengthening school-community relationship, PTA and community elders' relation with school can improve the participation of students in their education.

Moreover, organizing literacy program and classes for parents, especially mothers, would serve a dual purpose: in which they become literate and supportive to follow up more effectively the academic performance of their children. Furthermore, the high demand for child labor might be reduced as parents become more knowledgeable about the benefit of education through literacy program.

5.3.2. Improving the Current Status of Educational Opportunities

1. As this finding revealed in which the participation level of Gumuz females was extremely low, special efforts should be done in creating awareness on the importance of girls' education and influence parents' to send girls to school and assist girls in order to successfully completed at least their primary schooling by involving PTA, KETB and community elders.

2. Increase a number of Gumuz female teachers and school heads who act as educated role model to enhance girls' participation in primary school

3. As the study depicted, the illiteracy level of the Gumuz society was found to be the major hindering factors in the educational participation of their children to achieve the UPE target. Moreover, it was believed that the formal school system in providing primary education is a better means than other systems. However, large numbers of children were found out of school, which was either due to school, household or other out-of-school related challenging factors. As the result, the non formal way of teaching is of paramount means for the children of out of school and marginalized

Gumuz parents as the educational service deprived at the past and almost all of the parents were illiterate. Hence, the BGREB, the woreda Educational office, Non-Governmental and other voluntary organizations should strength the non formal and adult education mode of delivery as an alternative route in the provision of education to reach the target in the year of 2015.

4. Overall, reducing the gender gap in education is not only a matter of having more schools, or just bringing girls to school. Bridging the gap in education has strong cultural, social and economical dimensions. It means identifying and removing cultural, social and economical barriers or challenges that impede girls' education, enrolment, retention, performance and completion. Thus, as the finding of the study showed that the gap between participation of boys and girls and between woredas is extremely wide, and as most especially agro-pastoralist communities were at disadvantage position, it is necessary to take a broad-based set of concrete action in minimizing the gap.

5.3.3. Address Those Schools Related Challenging Factors

Enhancing the school environment for learning is the crucial factors for increasing school enrolment, attendance, and academic performance. To this end, as revealed by data analyses of the study, basic school facilities and resources like absence of upper primary (5-8) schools, lack of facilities like toilet, school fence, water service, student chairs and ventilated windows, absence of learning in mother tongue, shortage of students' text book, and irrelevance of curriculum with the life style of the agro-pastoralist were the challenging factor in primary schools of Gumuz localities. Thus, to make learning environment attractive and conducive to bring more students to school, the following should be adequately undergo.

1. The problem of school facilities can be solved by involving parent through community mobilization in order to help the school in kind by using local materials in fencing the school, preparing students toilet, and ventilated classrooms. Thus the woreda and zonal education officer should make coordination with community so as to create conducive environment for teaching-learning process.

2. As the irrelevance of curriculum and inappropriate medium of instruction were found as a major challenging factor in achieving the UPE target, the BGREB should think of the existing curriculum to reflect the socio-economic, cultural and climatic condition of the Gumuz agro-pastoralist instead of adopting from somewhere else. The problem of inappropriate medium of instruction in which majority of the agro-pastoralist had faced challenges to understand the language than the subject and thereby their academic performance decrease which also leads to the decrease in survival and completion rate of students. Thus, the REB should think the adverse effect of using other language than their mother tongue on achieving the target of UPE and as is also politically and pedagogically unacceptable.

3. As the study further indicated that lack of upper primary (5-8) was the major impediments in challenging the achievement of UPE, the REB, Zonal and Woreda education bureau in coordination with community ought to upgrade the existing primary school or constructing low cost local schools at the average distance from Gumuz villages so as to create additional places for higher grades and encourage Gumuz children to continue their education.

4. The shortage of students text books were found to be the other major school related challenging factors in achieving the target of UPE as it mainly influence the quality of education system. Thus REB should think of how preparing low cost students text books by copying the original material and make timely distribution with the correct statistical data of students at each school of the agro-pastoralist localities.

5.3.4. Addressing Those Out-of-School Related Challenging Factors

1. One of the causes for the non enrolment and dropout of students was found to be the high demand for child labor by parents. Aware the agro-pastoralist GUmuz about the value of educating their child through the participation of PTA, KETB and community elders so that parents might reduce the demand of child labor and encouraged to send their children to school. Moreover, changing the school calendar by taking into considerations of the agricultural cycle to meet the agricultural

seasonal which demand child labor to increase and sending children for schooling among parents and the community to decrease. Therefore, zonal, woreda and school communities should make class scheduled with the participation of agro-pastoralist community that consider the calendar for opening and closing the school based on critical harvesting and farming time which decrease the dropout rates.

Moreover, expanding labor saving technologies like easing accessible water wells, grain mills, fuel efficient smokeless wood burning stoves in collaboration with NGO's can save children time, especially Gumuz females in which as a result parents may send their children to school and dropout rates also decrease.

2. It has been observed that grade repetition and students' dropout was high and even exceeded the regional data.

In this regard, one of the great dangers facing the region is the growing number of students who are excluded from meaningful participation in economic, social, political and cultural life of their communities. When critical masses of students or individuals become marginalized, society becomes polarized. In this condition we appear to be moving towards a world in which wealth of all kind, economic assets, social capital, political influence and knowledge, is being concentrated and privileged few. Such a world is one that that is neither efficient nor just nor safe.

Therefore, attention should be given to minimize the total number of dropout and repeated students by construction of low cost schools near Gumuz villages, using awareness campaign program by KETB, zonal and woreda education offices instead of using teachers, and establishing a well-integrated sector-wide development framework to eliminate poverty.

Furthermore, to minimize dropout, PTA and KETB teams in collaboration with woreda education officers can use and threatening to penalize parents who pull their children out of school without any legitimate reason by way of fires and imprisonment.

Moreover, to overcome the problem of long distance from home to school, which was also one of the out-of-school problem, resettlement program in a manner that the agro-pastoralist can have suitable place for their goat and farming land but

closer to road and market place can be used. This is because it is very difficult for the government (supply side) to build school and assign teacher for each village.

5.3.5. Addressing Those of Socio-Cultural challenging Factors

According to these finding, the participation level of Gumuz female in their education was found to be extremely low. Absence of Gumuz female teacher which acts as a role model, problems of exchanging Gumuz females to get a wife by her brother and lack of awareness of Gumuz parents about the value of girls' education were some of the socio-cultural related challenging factors that might discourage the Gumuz girls to continue further in their education. This might be the reason for that not finding Gumuz girls still in the higher educations like AAU.

Therefore, the REB, Zonal and woreda educational officers should think of it in training Gumuz female teachers in collaboration to the CTE of the region even by using affirmative action in the college and assigning them in the areas where the is burden was high by considering the role they expected to play as a role model. The problem of existence of exchanging Gumuz females to get a wife by her brother can be considered as a bad culture and the Zonal and woreda education offices can work in collaboration with Zonal women affairs, Gumuz community elders, and KETB teams to minimize and even eradicating by penalize parents who practice such culture and aware them about the value of educating their daughters.

5.3.6. Using ABE as Alternative Strategic Interventions

As the finding of these study revealed, it was found that using many possible strategic intervention like school feeding program, boarding schools and ABE mode of delivery approach were found to be the major strategies used as an intervention to overcome the major challenging factors that hinder the participation of agro-pastoralist children in primary education to succeeded the achievement of UPE. Among these possible strategies, ABE can be considered as a key strategy, as the circumstance makes the use of ABE even more essential. The harsh weather condition, the rural topography of the region that makes it unreachable and too long distance from home to school, altogether make it difficult for many children in the

region to fit easily and well to formal, regular system of education. Therefore, ABE has the potential to be flexible in size and location in which the agro-pastoralist areas should continue. Therefore, developing this form of delivery as the key strategy can increasing access to primary education near the agro-pastoralist village and achieve the UPE goal in which the region has to think of it.

5.3.7. Policy Option Recommendations

1. It was stated in Ethiopian Education and Training Policy (ETP, 1994) that the structure of primary education of 8 years (four years of first cycle and the next four year of the second cycle). Universalization of eight years of primary schooling is very difficult for typically poor country like Ethiopia. Therefore, it is better to restructure(reconsider) the primary level to the extent of country's capacity in general and regional level in particular which can be viable with the social, economic and educational realities of the country. Therefore, for poor countries like Ethiopia, it is better to set different time-bound targets, since the developed and developing countries logically could not achieve the same goal at the same year, which calls for different time setting for the achievement of UPE.

2. The policy of developing decision-making powers to the lower level is believed to be one of the factors for the increased enrolment recorded in school level. Moreover, decentralization has opened on the political agenda for almost the last two decade and has become evident in Ethiopia. Ethiopia is currently undergoing a far-reached decentralization of education where accountability and responsibility are transferred to lower administrative level. Benishangul Gumuz region is not exceptional. Decentralization of education in itself has to empower schools regarding budgeting (as a block grant budgeting did not applied) and to be for their own actions so that they will be empowered to improve their performance. Moreover, woreda educational offices work under the strain of lack of required human, financial and material resources. Therefore, it is important to strengthen the capacity of them as they are the front line for planning and implementing education in their localities as decentralized education system has been practiced more.

3. Recognition of the agro-pastoralist culture which are of good practice is also necessary for the achievement of the UPE program of EFA goals and the agro-pastoralist parents should be involved in planning, implementing and evaluating their education program instead of using being 'top-down' policy to achieve the intended goal.

5.3.8. The Need for Further Study

It is strongly recommended by the researcher that further research and case studies should be undertaken so as to dig out the problem and come up with more solutions to the issue under the study. To the best of the researcher Knowledge this work is the first for Benishangul Gumuz region of the agro-pastoralist areas. However, it is also recommended for the related research problems like **Medium of instruction versus achievement of UPE** and also on problems like **the Impact of distance from home to school on the achievement of UPE** and the like for the other ethnic groups like Mao, Komo and Berta.

3. Recognition of the agro-pastoralist culture which are of good practice is also necessary for the achievement of the UPE program of EFA goals and the agro-pastoralist parents should be involved in planning, implementing and evaluating their education program instead of using being 'top-down' policy to achieve the intended goal.

5.3.8. The Need for Further Study

It is strongly recommended by the researcher that further research and case studies should be undertaken so as to dig out the problem and come up with more solutions to the issue under the study. To the best of the researcher Knowledge this work is the first for Benishangul Gumuz region of the agro-pastoralist areas. However, it is also recommended for the related research problems like **Medium of instruction versus achievement of UPE** and also on problems like **the Impact of distance from home to school on the achievement of UPE** and the like for the other ethnic groups like Mao, Komo and Berta.

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APPENDIX I

Addis Ababa University

School of Graduate Studies

College of Education

Department of Educational Planning & Management

Educational Policy & Planning stream

Questionnaire to be filled by primary school students (Grade 3-8)

This questionnaire is designed to collect sample respondents opinion for the study entitled **"The Success, Challenges and Prospects in Achieving UPE: The Case of Agro-Pastoralist areas of Benishagul Gumuz Region"**. The study is aimed at assessing the progress towards the goal of UPE, identifies the major challenges that hinder the achievement of UPE and to come up with alternative strategies that need to be designed for the children of Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children. You are, therefore, kindly requested to fill in the questionnaire because the success of this study directly depends up on your genuine responses to the questions.

Instruction:

1. No need of writing your name
2. Put an "✓" mark in the space provided for your answer
3. Give short answers in the space provided for the open ended item.
4. Circle the letter you choose for chose item

Thank You in advance for your cooperation.

Part-One

General information

1. Woreda _____ Kebele (village) _____
2. Name of the school _____
3. Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐
4. Age: A. Below 9 year ☐
   B. 9-12 years ☐ D. 17 years and above ☐
   C. 13-16 years ☐
5. Grade: 3rd ☐ 4th ☐ 5th ☐ 6th ☐
   7th ☐ 8th ☐
6. Your ethnic Background
   A. Amhara ☐
   B. Gumuz ☐
   C. Shinasha ☐
   D. Berta ☐
   E. If other, specify_____
7. Your father's level of education
   A. 1-4 Grade compl ☐
   B. 5-8 Grade comple ☐
   C. Above 8th complet ☐
   D. Illiterate ☐
8. Your mother's level of education
   A. 1-4 Grade complete ☐
   B. 5-8 Grade complete ☐
   C. Above 8th complete ☐
   D. Illiterate ☐
9. Your Father's Occupation
   A. Agro-Pastoralist ☐ B. Government employee ☐
   C. Private employee ☐ D. Merchant ☐
   E. If any other, Specify_____

10. Your Mother's Occupation

A. House wife ☐ B. Government employee ☐

C. Merchant ☐ D. Private employee ☐

E. If any other, Specify_____

11. Total number of children in your family

A. 1-3 ☐ B. 4-6 ☐ C. 7 and above ☐

12. How many of them (children) in your family have the chance to attend school?

A. All of them ☐

B. Half of them ☐

C. Majority of them ☐

D. Very few of them ☐

E. None of them ☐

Part-Two

I. Major Challenging Factors

1. This section identified some of the Challenging factor that hinder the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children's Participation in the primary schools. You are kindly asked to put a "✓" mark to those factors that you think are affecting Gumuz children Participation in education by using the following five points of rating scale.

Use: *Strongly agree = 5*

Agree = 4

Undecided = 3

Disagree = 2

Strongly disagree = 1

No	Challenging factors	Rating scale				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	**School related factors**					
1.1	Shortage of students text book					
1.2	Irrelevance of curriculum with your life style					
1.3	Not using Gumuz language as a medium of instruction					
1.4	Lack of school facilities (Like desk, water, toilet, sport field etc)					
1.5	Inflexible school time schedule (the school time is not suitable based on the need of Gumuz children)					
1.6	Overcrowded classrooms					
1.7	Shortage of teachers					
1.8	Absence of upper primary school (5-8)					
1.9	Low participation of Gumuz parents in school affairs					
1.10	Teachers are unsympathetic & don't understand my situation					
1.11	Lack of awareness of your teachers about the culture, religion and language of the Gumuz community					

No	Challenging factors	Rating scale				
		5	4	3	2	1
2	**Out-of-School related factors**					
2.1	The level of income of my parent is inadequate to fulfil all school requirements (like books, texts, uniform etc.)					
2.2	I have much to do at home that clashes with my attendance in the school					
2.3	Parents don't see any value in investing on their children's education					
2.4	Our locality is known with security problem and parents may not send their children to school					
2.5	Distance from home to school is too far					
3	**Socio-Cultural factor**					
3.1	Students lack of interest in education					
3.2	Parents/Students fear of bad cultural practice (like abduction, rape, harassment etc.)					
3.3	Host female students terminate their education due to early marriage practice in my locality					
3.4	Parents do not trust modern education in preparing good Agro-pastoralist					
3.5	Instability of your family in one area/locality					
3.6	Lack of educated role model of your ethnic group					
3.7	Lack of awareness of parents about the values of girls education					
4	**Socio-Climate**					
4.1	Health problem because of Malaria					
4.2	Half day schooling because of the hotness					

2. This section also identifies some of the challenging factors that hinder children to not participate in primary schools. Please put a "✓" mark on the rating scale parts by using the following three points of rating scale.

Use: Always=3

Sometimes=2

Never at all=1

No	Challenging Factors	Rating Scale		
		3	2	1
1	How often you have adequate breakfast before going to school			
2	How often you become absent from the school			
3	How often you come late to school			

3. If you are often absent and lately come to school, what do you think is the reason? (Put in the rank order (1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc.) on the space provided from the allternative below):

A. School time is fixed_____

B. The distance from home to school is too far_____

C. Parents need me to help them at home_____

D. Fear of abduction in my locality _____

E. Fear of security problem _____

4. Have you ever repeated at any grade?

A. Yes ☐ B. No ☐

5. How do you judge your performance in the school? What is your rank in the current grade level during the first semester? _____

6. Do you perform homework and study daily lesson at home?

A. Yes ☐ B. No ☐

7. If your answer to the above question (No-5) is No, what do you think is the reason? State the most important factor

A. I don't have the habit

B. I am tired at night due to the long distance I travelled

C. I have a lot of work to do at home

D. If other, Specify_____

_____

_____

II. Medium of instruction

1. What is your mother tongue language that you mostly speak in your home?

A. Amharic ☐

B. Oromifa ☐

C. Gumuz Language ☐ D. Shinashigna ☐

E. If any other, Specify_____

2. What is the medium of instruction in your school (1-4)?

A. Gumuz language ☐

B. Amharic language ☐

C. Both Amharic and Gumuz ☐

D. English ☐ E. If any other, Specify_____

3. Is there any problem you face in your medium of instruction to learn subjects given in your class?

A. Yes ☐ B. No ☐

III. Distance from the School

1. How far the school is located from your home? (Give approximate figure)

A. 0-3km ☐

B. 4-6km ☐

C. 7-9km ☐

D. 10 km and above ☐

2. Do you think distance from school influence enrolment/ participation on primary education in your area?

A. yes ☐ B. No ☐

IV. Efficiency (Pupil-text book Ratio)

1. What is the average distribution of pupil text book ratio in your class?

A. 1 book: one pupil ☐ B. 1 book: two pupils ☐

C. 1 book: three pupils ☐ D. 1 book: four pupils and above ☐

APPINDIX II

Addis Ababa University

School of Graduate Studies

College of Education

Department of Educational Planning & Management

Educational Policy & Planning stream

Questionnaire to be filled by sampled primary school teachers and principals

This questionnaire is designed to collect sample respondents opinion for the study entitled **"The Success, Challenges and Prospects in Achieving UPE: The Case of Agro-Pastoralist areas of Benishangul Gumuz Region"**. The study is aimed at assessing the progress to wards the goal of UPE; identify the major challenges that hinder the achievement of UPE and to come up with alternative strategies that need to be designed for the children of Agro pastoralist Gumuz children.

I would like to assure you that this study is made for academic purpose and your comment will be kept confidential. You are, therefore, kindly requested to fill in the questionnaire for the success of this study as it directly depends on your genuine responses to the questions.

Instruction:

1. No need of writing your name.
2. Put a "✓" mark in the space provided for your answer.
3. Give short answers in the space provided for the open ended item
4. Circle the letter you choose for chose item

Thank You in advance for your cooperation.

Part-One

General Information

1. Woreda _____ Kebele (Village) _____
2. Name of the school _____
3. Sex: A. Male ☐ B. Female ☐
4. Age:
   - A. Below 20 year ☐
   - B. 21-30 years ☐
   - C. 31-40 years ☐
   - D. 41-50 years ☐
   - E. above 51 years ☐
5. Educational status
   - A. 12th complete ☐
   - B. Graduate of TTI (12+1) ☐
   - C. Graduate of TTI (10+1) ☐
   - D. Graduate of CTE (12+2) ☐
   - E. Graduate of CTE (10+3) ☐
   - F. 12+4 ☐ H. If other, Specify_____
6. Number of service years as a teacher/principal
   - A. 1-5 years ☐ B. 6-10 years ☐ C. 11-15 years ☐
   - D. 16-20 years ☐ E. Above 21years ☐
7. Teaching load
   - A. less than 15
   - B. 15-29
   - C. 30 and above
8. What is your ethnic background?
   - A. Gumuz ☐
   - B. Shinasha ☐
   - C. Amhara ☐
   - D. Oromo ☐
   - E. If any other, Specify_____

Part-Two

I. Major Challenging factors

This section identified some of the Challenging factor that hinder the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children's Participation in the primary schools. You are kindly asked to put a "✓" mark to those factors that you think are affecting Gumuz children Participation in education by using the following five points of rating scale.

Use: *Strongly agree = 5*

Agree = 4 *Disagree = 2*

Undecided = 3 *strongly disagree = 1*

No	Challenging factors	Rating scale				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	**School related**					
1.1	Shortage of students text book					
1.2	Shortage of teacher					
1.3	Irrelevance of curriculum with the life style of the Gumuz children					
1.4	Absence of mother tongue medium of instruction especially at the lower primary school (1-4)					
1.5	Lack of school facilities (like students Desk, water, toilet etc)					
1.6	Overcrowded class room					
1.7	Inflexible class schedule					
1.8	Absence of upper primary school (5-8)					
1.9	Low involvement of Gumuz parents in the school affairs(Like Parent Teacher Association, PTA)					
1.10	Lack of awareness of teachers about the culture and language of the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children					
1.11	Lack of special training of teachers in teaching the Agro-pastoralist area					
2	**Out-of-School related**					
2.1	Socio economic (poverty because of drought)					
2.2	The need of child labour by parents					
2.3	Lack of awareness about the value of education by the Gumuz Parents					
2.4	Problem of security issue around the Agro-pastoralist area					
2.5	Distance from home to school is too far					

3	**Socio-Culture**					
3.1	Lack of interest in education from the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz children					
3.2	Negative attitude of Gumuz parents about modern education					
3.3	Low demand of Gumuz parents to educate their children					
4	**Socio-Climate**					
4.1	Half day schooling because of the hotness					
4.2	Health problem because of Malaria					

II. Distance from home to school

1. How far is the distance that students travel from home to school daily in your school

   A. Less than or equal to 3km ☐

   B. 3km to 6km ☐

   C. 7km to 10km ☐

   D. 10km and above ☐

2. Do you think distance from school influence enrolment in your school?

   A. yes ☐ B. No ☐

3. Specify the problem if you answer "yes" for question No.2 above_____

III. Medium of Instruction

1. Is the medium of instruction in your 1st cycle primary school (1-4) conduct with Gumuz language?

   A. Yes ☐

   B. No ☐

2. If your answer to question no. 1 is No, How do you think that this primarily affect Gumuz children educational participation?

   _____

   _____

   _____

IV. Strategies used to achieve UPE

1. Below, the possible strategies to achieve UPE are listed in the table, please put a "✓" mark on the option you agree

Use: *Strongly agree = 5*

Agree = 4 *Disagree = 2*

Undecided = 3 *strongly disagree = 1*

No	Possible Strategies	Rating scale				
		5	4	3	2	1
1	Expansion of school feeding program for economically poor family children					
2	Making the school time schedule flexible					
3	Using boarding schools for the extreme rural Gumuz children					
4	Using Mobile schools					
5	Making the Gumuz community involved in the school affairs through PTA, KETB etc.					
6	Improve Gumuz Parents' awareness on the value of education					
7	Recruit and train Gumuz high school complete students for teaching as a role model					
8	Construction of low cost schools closer to the Gumuz community					
9	Application of ABE centre approach into primary education					
10	Recruit educated Gumuz in Kebele/Zone/Woreda administration					
11	Using Gumuz language as a medium of instruction					
12	Revising the curriculum based on the life style of Gumuz community					
13	Construction of upper primary schools (5-8) near to the villages of Gumuz community					
14	Address security problem					

2. Specify if there are other strategies that are not listed but you think are important_____

_____

_____

3. Are you sensitive to the educational needs of Gumuz children? (Did you take any additional training to teach Gumuz children based on the culture of Gumuz community)?

   A. Yes ☐ B. No ☐

4. Did you tried to make the curriculum you teach relevant to the life style of Gumuz children?

   A. Yes ☐ B. No ☐

5. If your answer on the above (No-4) is "No", whose responsibility do you think to make the curriculum relevant? _____

   _____

   _____

VI. Efficiency (Pupil-Section Ratio and Pupil-text book Ratio)

1. What is the total number of students in your class?

   A. Below 5 ☐ B. 51-60 ☐ C. 61-70 ☐

   D. 71-80 ☐ E. 81 and above ☐

2. What is the average distribution of pupil: Text book ratio in the class you are being homeroom teacher?

   A. 1 book: one pupil ☐

   B. 1 book: two pupils ☐

   C. 1 book: three pupils ☐

   D. 1 book: four pupils and above ☐

APPENDIX III

Addis Ababa University

School of Graduate Studies

College of Education

Department of Educational Planning & Management

Educational Policy & Planning stream

Unstructured Interview and points of discussion prepared for REB, Zonal and Woreda Education Experts

Part-one

General Information

1. Sex: A. Male ☐ B. Female ☐
2. Educational Level:
   A. 12 Completed ☐
   B. 12 + TTI ☐
   C. 12 + 2 (10 +3) ☐
   D. 12 + 4 (12 + 3) ☐
   E. 12 + 6 ☐
   F. If other, specify_____
3. Woreda/ Zone_____
4. Position in the Office _____
5. Your ethnic background_____

1. What are the prominent problems hindering the students participation to achieve UPE in the Agro-pastoralist area with particular reference to

A. Out-of-School factors

- Household income of the Agro-Pastoralist Gumuz to afford on their child for Uniform, cost of books, texts etc.
- The need of child labor because of the poverty
- Lack of awareness of Gumuz community about the value of educating their child
- Lack of interest of Gumuz community to send their children because of far distance between home to school

B. Socio-Cultural factors

-Fear of Gumuz parents to send their children because of abduction, rape and harassment exist in the village
-Negative attitude of parents towards modern education in preparing good agro-Pastoralist
-Teachers awareness about the culture & religion of the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz

C. School related factors

-Relevance of curriculum with the life style of the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz
-Relevance of medium of instruction with the language of the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz, especially for lower primary schools (1-4)
-Is school time table suitable to the living condition of Gumuz children?

2. If the medium of instruction in the Agro-Pastoralist Gumuz School is different from Gumuz language, what do you think can be the reason for it?
3. What other problem do you think can affect the achievement of UPE other than the above?
4. What is the average home-school distance in your woreda/zone?
5. What mechanism do you suggest to minimize the current students dropout and repetition to achieve UPE in the Agro-Pastoral areas of the region?
6. What is the attitude of the Agro-pastoralist parents towards formal education?
7. How many schools are found in Gumuz community? Do you think that this is adequate? Why?
8. What is the level of participation of Gumuz children vis-à-vis other ethnic groups?
9. How planning was made for achieving UPE in the region in general and Gumuz community in particular?
10. What specific consideration was made in relation to:

-any problem recognized by the region in general and Gumuz community in particular that affect their participation level and achieving UPE?
-what specific strategies were adopted (or planned to be adopted) to address this problem?

11. What strategies do you suggest to improve the achievement of UPE in particular reference to the Agro-pastoralist areas? (For this, similar questionnaire with teachers and principals of **part IV** was given).

APPENDIX IV

Addis Ababa University

School of Graduate Studies

College of Education

Department of Educational Planning & Management

Educational Policy & Planning stream

Focus Group Discussion Guideline prepared for Gumuz Community Elders

1. Are there any Socio-Cultural problems that affect Gumuz children participation in primary education? How?
2. What household problems can hinder parents to send their child to school? How?
3. What school related problems do you think makes parents hesitate to send their child to Schooling? How?
4. What is the attitude of Gumuz parents towards modern education? And Why?
5. What do you expect from the educating of your child?
6. What are the problems you encountered in educating a child in general?
7. In which month(s) of the year do you think that your children help you/ your community and as a result may be absent from school?
8. What strategies do you suggest to improve the participation of Gumuz children to school?

APPENDIX V

Addis Ababa University

School of Graduate Studies

College of Education

Department of Educational Planning & Management

Educational Policy & Planning stream

Unstructured interview questions prepared for PTA and Kebele Educational and Training Board (KETB) members

1. What are the prominent problems hindering the students participation to achieve UPE in the Agro-pastoralist area with particular reference to
- Household income of the Agro-Pastoralist Gumuz to afford on their child for Uniform, cost of books, texts etc.
- The need of child labor because of the poverty
- Lack of awareness of Gumuz community about the value of educating their child
- Lack of interest of Gumuz community to send their children because of far distance between home to school
-Fear of Gumuz parents to send their children because of abduction, rape and harassment exist in the village
-Negative attitude of parents towards modern education in preparing good agro-Pastoralist
-Teachers awareness about the culture & religion of the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz
-Relevance of curriculum with the life style of the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz
-Relevance of medium of instruction with the language of the Agro-pastoralist Gumuz, especially for lower primary schools (1-4)
-Is school time table suitable to the living condition of Gumuz children?
2. What other problem do you think can affect the achievement of UPE other than the above?
3. What mechanism do you suggest to minimize the current students dropout and repetition to achieve UPE in Gumuz community?

4. What is the attitude of the Agro-pastoralist parents towards formal education? Why?
5. Do schools in your Woreda/Zone have appropriate calendar and time table with respect to the Agro-pastoralist life style?
6. To what extent Gumuz parents participate in school affairs as PTA, KETB?
7. Are there educated Gumuz member in Kebele, Zone, Woreda and other level of government in appropriate leadership position?
8. What strategies do you suggest to improve the achievement of UPE with particular reference to the Agro-pastoralist areas?

APPENDIX VI

Table 35: PTR and PSR of BGRS from 2002/3-2006/7

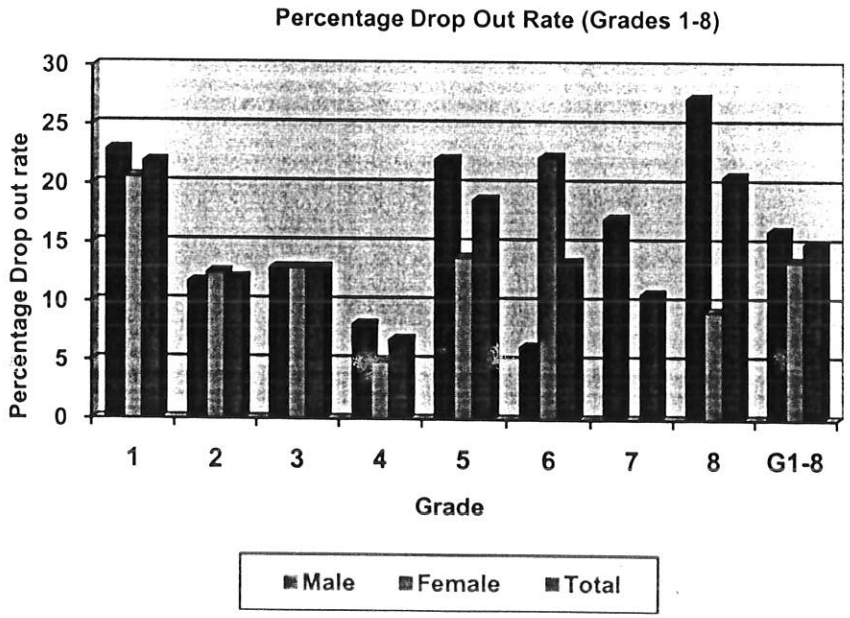
PTR and PSR					
Year		Primary (Grade 1-8)		Secondary (Grade 9-12)	
		PTR	PSR	PTR	PSR
2002/3		51	64	40	108
2003/4		50	59	38	72
2004/5		50	61	32	81
2005/6		47	61	38	73
	G 1-4	48	59		
	G 5-8	47	65		
2006/7		53	58	59	71
	G 1-4	46	56		
	G 5-8	72	60		

Source: Education Statistics Annual Abstract. BGREB, 2007/8

Table 36: dropout rate of primary education of BGRS

	Percentage Dropout Rate of Primary (Grade 1-8) in 2006/7								
	Grade								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	1-8
Male	22.9	11.7	12.9	8.1	22.1	6.2	17.1	27.3	16.1
Female	20.6	12.5	4.9	13.8	22.3	-30	9.2	13.5	
Total	21.9	12.0	12.9	6.8	18.7	13.4	10.7	20.7	15.0

Source: Education Statistics Annual Abstract. BGREB, 2008



APPENDIX VII

Table 37: Survival Rate (SR) of Primary schools 2002/3-2006/7

	Male	Female	Total
2003/4	29.8	33.2	31.1
2004/5	48.4	50.2	49.1
2005/6	52.2	50.0	51.3
2006/7	49.6	53.0	51.0

Source: BGREB, Annual Abstract, 2008

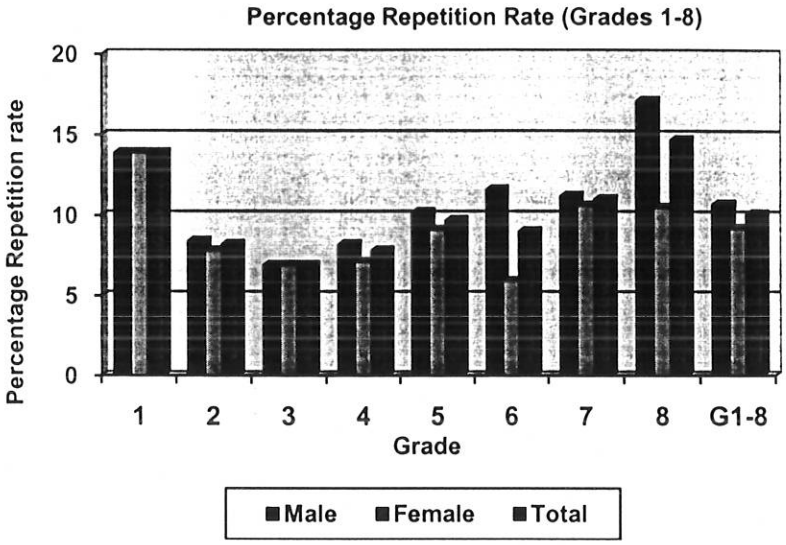
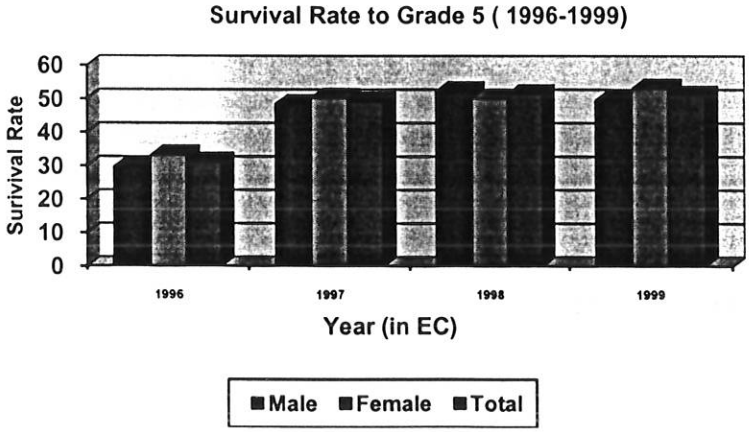


Table 38: Promotion Rate (PR) of Primary school

	Percentage Promotion Rates of Grade 1-8 in 2006/7								
	Grade								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	1-8
Male	63.2	79.9	80.3	83.7	67.8	82.2	71.7	55.6	73.2
Female	65.6	79.7	80.2	88.0	77.1	71.8	89.8	80.2	77.3
Total	64.2	79.8	80.2	85.5	71.5	77.6	78.4	64.7	75.0



APPENDIX VIII

Table 31: Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR), Grade taught, Total Numbers of Teachers and Students of the Sample Schools

No	Woredas	Name of Sample Schools	Grade taught	Total No of teachers	Total No of Students	PTR
1	Mandura	Dewanzbaguna	1-8	15	490	33
		Bahus	1-4	5	171	34
		Gidmdafli	1-4	4	254	64
		Ejenta	1-4	5	215	43
		Eideda	1-6	9	364	40
		Dikul	1-4	4	167	42
	Total			42	1661	38.5
2	Dangur	Qouta	1-8	8	238	30
		Dilsambi	1-4	6	159	27
		Azarti	1-3	3	58	19
		Ippapo	1-3	1	72	72
		Gumlak	1-8	20	950	48
	Total			38	1477	39
3	Guba	Almahal	1-8	10	233	23
		Bashata	1-6	6	156	26
		Icid	1-6	8	216	27
		Mankush Primary	1-4	9	315	35
		Mankush Junior	5-8	10	305	31
		Yarenja	1-8	10	380	38
	Total			53	1606	30.3
	Total Woreda			133	4744	35.7

APPENDIX IX

Table 32: Pupil section Ratio (PSR) for sample schools

No	Woreda	Name of Schools	Grade taught	Total No of Section	Total No of Student	PSR
1	Mandura	Dewanzbaguna	1-8	9	490	54
		Bahus	1-4	4	171	43
		Gidmdafli	1-4	4	254	64
		Ejenta	1-4	4	215	54
		Eideda	1-6	6	364	61
		Dikul	1-4	4	167	42
	Total			31	1661	54
2	Dangur	Qouta	1-8	6	238	40
		Dilsambi	1-4	5	159	32
		Azarti	1-3	43	58	19
		Ippapo	1-3	3	72	24
		Gumlak	1-8	14	950	68
	Total			31	1477	48
3	Guba	Almahal	1-8	8	233	29
		Bashata	1-6	6	156	26
		Icid	1-6	6	216	36
		Mankush Primary	1-4	8	315	40
		Mankush Secondary	5-8	6	305	51
		Yarenja	1-8	10	380	38
	Total			44	1606	36.5
	Total Woreda			106	4744	45
	Regional		1-8	-	-	60

APPENDIX X

Table 34: Efficiency Related Problems responded by students, teachers and principals

No	Item	Respondent							
		Student				Teachers & Principals			
		M	F	T	%	M	F	T	%
1	What is the total No. of students in your class								
	• Below 50	134	49	183	60.0	28	5	33	32.6
	• 51-60	61	6	67	22.0	21	8	29	28.7
	• 71-80	31	3	34	11.1	29	3	32	31.7
	• 81 and above	19	2	21	6.9	5	-	5	5.0
	Total	245	60	305	100	85	16	101	100
2	What is the average distribution of pupil text book ration in year school/class?								
	• 1book: 1pupil	17	13	30	9.8	6	3	9	8.9
	• 1:2	69	18	87	28.5	20	4	24	23.7
	• 1:3	153	13	166	54.4	28	6	34	33.7
	• 1:4 and above	6	16	22	7.2	31	3	34	33.7
	Total	245	60	305	100	85	16	101	100
3	Have you ever repeated at any grade?								
	• Yes	49	35	84	27.5	-	-	-	-
	• No	196	25	221	72.1	-	-	-	-
	Total	245	60	305	100	-	-	-	-
4	What was your rank in the current class level during the first semester?								
	• 1-10	18	2	20	6.5	-	-	-	-
	• 11-20	95	13	108	35.4	-	-	-	-
	• 21-30	124	36	160	52.5	-	-	-	-
	• 31 and above	8	9	17	5.6	-	-	-	-
	Total	245	60	305	100	-	-	-	-
5	Do you perform your homework and study time daily?								
	Yes	84	12	96	31.5	-	-	-	-
	No	161	48	209	68.5	-	-	-	-
6	What is your reason for Question No.5								
	I expected to help my parent at home	143	43	186	61	-	-	-	-
	I become exhausted because of long journey to/from school	86	12	98	32.1	-	-	-	-
	I do not have hobby	17	5	21	6.9	-	-	-	-
	Other if any-------	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

APPENDIX XI

Table 4.14: Possible Strategies to be used to achieve UPE as responded by Teachers ,Principals and Education experts

No	Item	Respondents	Statistic	Agreed 3	Undecided 2	Disagreed 1	Total	Mean	WM	X^2
1	**Supply Side Strategies**									
1.1	Expansion of school feeding program for economically poor family children	TP	Frequ.	72	12	17	101	2.4	2.45	3.6
			%	71.3	11.9	16.8	100			
		Experts	Frequ	16	-	5	21	2.5		
			%	76.2	-	23.8	100			
1.2	Making the school time flexible	TP	Frequ	12	14	75	101	1.4	1.6	12.2*
			%	11.9	13.9	74.2	100			
		Experts	Frequ	9	1	11	21	1.8		
			%	42.9	4.7	52.4	100			
1.3	Using boarding schools for the extreme rural Gumuz children	TP	Frequ	87	3	11	101	2.8	2.45	13.9*
			%	86.1	3.0	10.9	100			
		Experts	Frequ	11	1	9	21	2.1		
			%	52.4	4.7	42.9	100			
1.4	Using Mobile School	TP	Frequ	4	9	88	101	1.3	1.25	2.8
			%	4.0	8.9	87.1	100			
		Experts	Frequ	-	4	17	21	1.2		
			%	-	19.1	80.9	100			
1.5	Improve Gumuz parents awareness on the value of education	TP	Frequ	89	3	9	101	2.7	2.85	2.7
			%	88.1	3.0	8.9	100			
		Experts	Frequ	21	-	-	21	3.0		
			%	100	-	-	100			
1.6	Using Gumuz language as a medium of instruction	TP	Frequ	91	2	8	101	2.8	2.8	1.2
			%	90.1	2.0	7.9	100			
		Experts	Frequ	18	-	3	21	2.8		
			%	85.7	-	14.3	100			
1.7	Recruit and train Gumuz high school completers for teaching as a role model in primary schools	TP	Frequ	35	25	41	101	1.9	2.25	12.6*
			%	34.6	24.8	40.6	100			
		Experts	Frequ	16	1	4	21	2.6		
			%	76.2	4.7	19.1	100			
1.8	Revising the curriculum based on the life style of Gumuz community	TP	Frequ	81	4	16	101	2.7	2.55	3.5
			%	80.2	4.0	15.8	100			
		Experts	Frequ	13	2	6	21	2.4		
			%	61.9	9.5	28.6	100			
1.9	Application of ABE center approach into primary education.	TP	Frequ	73	3	25	101	2.6	2.65	1.8
			%	72.3	3.0	24.7	100			
		Experts	Frequ	18	-	3	21	2.7		
			%	85.7	-	14.3	100			
1.10	Recruit educated Gumuz in Kebele/Zone/Woreda administration offices	TP	Frequ	34	29	38	101	2.0	2.15	2.8
			%	33.7	28.7	37.6	100			
		Experts	Frequ	11	5	5	21	2.3		
			%	52.4	23.8	23.8	100			
1.11	Construction of upper primary schools (5-8) near to the villages of Gumuz community	TP	Frequ	88	2	11	101	2.7	2.8	1.2
			%	87.1	2.0	10.9	100			
		Experts	Frequ	20	-	1	21	2.9		
			%	95.2	-	4.8	100			
2	**Household/Demand Side Strategies**									
2.1	Construction of low cost schools closer to the Gumuz community	TP	Frequ	65	17	19	101	2.4	2.35	6.6*
			%	64.4	16.8	18.8	100			
		Experts	Frequ	11	1	9	21	2.3		
			%	52.4	4.7	42.9	100			
2.2	Making the Gumuz community involved in the school affairs through PTA, KETB etc	TP	Frequ	81	9	11	101	2.6	2.6	0.6
			%	80.2	8.9	10.9	100			
		Experts	Frequ	16	2	3	21	2.6		
			%	76.2	9.5	14.3	100			
2.3	Address security problems	TP	Frequ	18	25	58	101	1.6	1.8	9.2*
			%	17.8	24.8	57.4	100			
		Experts	Frequ	10	2	9	21	2.0		
			%	47.6	9.5	42.9	100			

*N=122 α=0.05 df=2 *X2=Significant difference TP= Teachers and Principal*

APPENDIX XI

Table 4.14: Possible Strategies to be used to achieve UPE as responded by Teachers ,Principals and Education experts

No	Item	Respondents	Statistic	Agreed 3	Undecided 2	Disagreed 1	Total	Mean	WM	X^2
1	**Supply Side Strategies**									
1.1	Expansion of school feeding program for economically poor family children	TP	Frequ.	72	12	17	101	2.4	2.45	3.6
			%	71.3	11.9	16.8	100			
		Experts	Frequ	16	-	5	21	2.5		
			%	76.2	-	23.8	100			
1.2	Making the school time flexible	TP	Frequ	12	14	75	101	1.4	1.6	12.2*
			%	11.9	13.9	74.2	100			
		Experts	Frequ	9	1	11	21	1.8		
			%	42.9	4.7	52.4	100			
1.3	Using boarding schools for the extreme rural Gumuz children	TP	Frequ	87	3	11	101	2.8	2.45	13.9*
			%	86.1	3.0	10.9	100			
		Experts	Frequ	11	1	9	21	2.1		
			%	52.4	4.7	42.9	100			
1.4	Using Mobile School	TP	Frequ	4	9	88	101	1.3	1.25	2.8
			%	4.0	8.9	87.1	100			
		Experts	Frequ	-	4	17	21	1.2		
			%	-	19.1	80.9	100			
1.5	Improve Gumuz parents awareness on the value of education	TP	Frequ	89	3	9	101	2.7	2.85	2.7
			%	88.1	3.0	8.9	100			
		Experts	Frequ	21	-	-	21	3.0		
			%	100	-	-	100			
1.6	Using Gumuz language as a medium of instruction	TP	Frequ	91	2	8	101	2.8	2.8	1.2
			%	90.1	2.0	7.9	100			
		Experts	Frequ	18	-	3	21	2.8		
			%	85.7	-	14.3	100			
1.7	Recruit and train Gumuz high school completers for teaching as a role model in primary schools	TP	Frequ	35	25	41	101	1.9	2.25	12.6*
			%	34.6	24.8	40.6	100			
		Experts	Frequ	16	1	4	21	2.6		
			%	76.2	4.7	19.1	100			
1.8	Revising the curriculum based on the life style of Gumuz community	TP	Frequ	81	4	16	101	2.7	2.55	3.5
			%	80.2	4.0	15.8	100			
		Experts	Frequ	13	2	6	21	2.4		
			%	61.9	9.5	28.6	100			
1.9	Application of ABE center approach into primary education.	TP	Frequ	73	3	25	101	2.6	2.65	1.8
			%	72.3	3.0	24.7	100			
		Experts	Frequ	18	-	3	21	2.7		
			%	85.7	-	14.3	100			
1.10	Recruit educated Gumuz in Kebele/Zone/Woreda administration offices	TP	Frequ	34	29	38	101	2.0	2.15	2.8
			%	33.7	28.7	37.6	100			
		Experts	Frequ	11	5	5	21	2.3		
			%	52.4	23.8	23.8	100			
1.11	Construction of upper primary schools (5-8) near to the villages of Gumuz community	TP	Frequ	88	2	11	101	2.7	2.8	1.2
			%	87.1	2.0	10.9	100			
		Experts	Frequ	20	-	1	21	2.9		
			%	95.2	-	4.8	100			
2	**Household/Demand Side Strategies**									
2.1	Construction of low cost schools closer to the Gumuz community	TP	Frequ	65	17	19	101	2.4	2.35	6.6*
			%	64.4	16.8	18.8	100			
		Experts	Frequ	11	1	9	21	2.3		
			%	52.4	4.7	42.9	100			
2.2	Making the Gumuz community involved in the school affairs through PTA, KETB etc	TP	Frequ	81	9	11	101	2.6	2.6	0.6
			%	80.2	8.9	10.9	100			
		Experts	Frequ	16	2	3	21	2.6		
			%	76.2	9.5	14.3	100			
2.3	Address security problems	TP	Frequ	18	25	58	101	1.6	1.8	9.2*
			%	17.8	24.8	57.4	100			
		Experts	Frequ	10	2	9	21	2.0		
			%	47.6	9.5	42.9	100			

*N=122 α=0.05 df=2 *X2=Significant difference TP= Teachers and Principal*

APPENDIX XII

Addis Ababa University

School of Graduate Studies

College of Education

Department of Educational Planning & Management

Educational Policy & Planning stream

OBSERVATION CHEK LIST

1. Name of school_____
   - Year of foundation_____
2. Number of students_____
   - Average number of PSR
   - Average number of students per desk
   - Student-text book ratio
3. Number of teachers
   - Teacher-students ratio
4. Number of students by grade and sex

	Grade																		Total
	3			4			5			6			7			8			
sex	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	
Year																			
2002/3																			
2003/4																			
2004/5																			
2005/6																			
2006/7																			
2007/8																			

5. Classroom observation (chairs, blackboard, walls etc.)
6. Field observation (Water, toilet etc)

APPENDIX XIII

Table 33: Possible Challenging Factors that Hinder Students Participation in Primary School as Responded by Students

No	Possible challenging Factors	Statistics	Rating scales			Mean
			Always 3	Sometimes 2	Never at all 1	
1	How often did you have adequate breakfast before going to school	Freque.	205	70	30	2.6
		%	67.2	23	9.8	
2	How often you become absent from school	Freque.	165	124	16	2.5
		%	54.1	40.7	5.3	
3	How often you come late to school	Freque.	265	28	12	2.8
		%	86.9	9.8	3.9	

N=305

APPENDIX XIV

Table 38: GER of primary education of BGRS from 2002/3-2006/7

Year	Enrolment Grades 1-8			School Age Population (7-14 years)			GER (Grades 1-8)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
2002/3	73560	46968	120528	61288	58596	119884	120.8	80.2	100.5
2003/4	78442	53230	131672	62709	59944	122653	125.1	88.8	107.3
2004/5	80567	57147	137714	64166	61331	125497	125.6	93.2	109.7
2005/6	83641	61031	144672	67763	63038	130801	123.4	96.8	110.6
2006/7	82497	61746	144243	69406	64801	134207	118.9	95.3	107.5

Source: Education Statistics Annual Abstract. BGREB, 2008

Table 39: NER of primary education of BGRS from 2002/3-2006/7

Year	Male	Female	Total
2002/3	86.3	65.2	76.0
2003/4	92.2	74.5	83.6
2004/5	91.7	77.3	84.7
2005/6	90.4	77.5	84.2
2006/7	88.0	77.1	82.7

Source: Education Statistics Annual Abstract. BG

APPENDIX XV

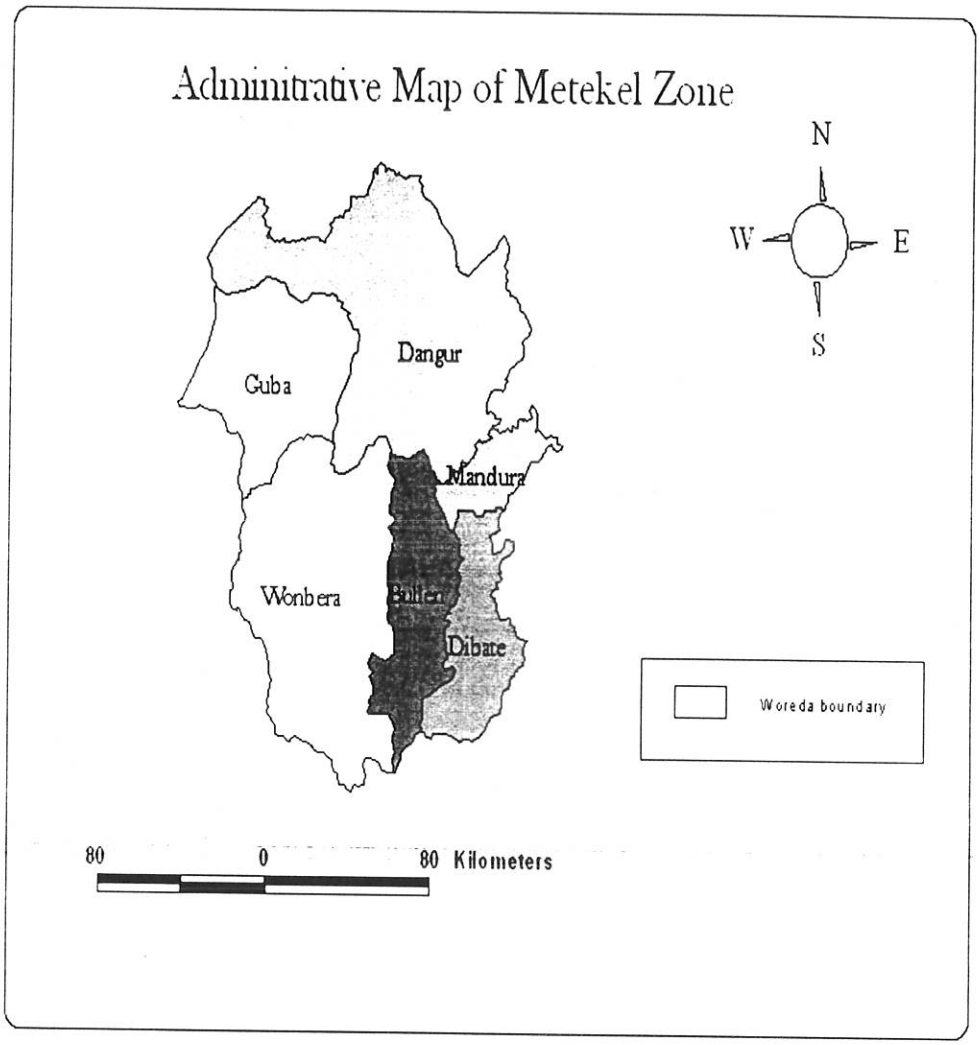
Table 41: Benishangul Gumuz Region Population of school age (7-14)

Single year and Age	M	F	Total
7	1192285	1158954	2351,39
8	1,409.700	1,347,352	2,757,052
9	993,274	961,401	1,954,675
10	13,532	12,340	25,872
11	5,749	5284	11,033
12	12198	10,593	22791
13	7495	6835	14330
14	8207	7522	15729
Total 7-14	9,032,577	8,488,570	17,521,147

Source: Statistical Report of 2007 Population and Housing Census Result, FDRE CSA, 2008

APPENDIX XVI

Figure 3: Map of the Study Area



DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, confirm that this thesis is my original work, has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all source of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name: NEGUSIE DEBISSA

Signature: ----------

Date of submission: ----------

This thesis has been submitted for examination by my approval as university advisor.

Name: AKALEWOLD ESHETE (Assis. Prof)

Signature: ----------

Date of submission: ----------