ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

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SURVEY OF THE MAJOR FACTORS INFLUENCING HOUSEHOLD DEMAND FOR SCHOOLING IN RURAL BALE ZONE

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A THESIS

PRESENTED TO THE

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

BY

SEYOUM WODAJO

May 21, 1999

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

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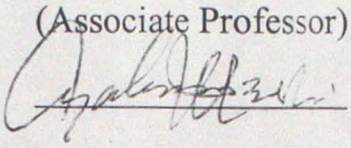
Signature: 

Date of Submission: May 21,1999

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ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Deep thanks are due to my thesis advisor, Ato Ayalew Shibeshi, for his continuous guidance, constructive comments and useful suggestions. Without his unreserved dedication, the development and completion of this study would have been impossible.

I also express my thanks to Bale Zone Education Department for typing and duplicating the instruments of the study.

Finally, I am very much obliged to express my indebtedness to my wife W/o Biruktayit Bekele for her unfailing encouragement during my study and taking all the responsibilities of running home duties and taking care of our children.

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to identify the major factors that influence household demand for schooling in rural Bale Zone. In order to fulfill this purpose, basic questions were raised regarding the utilization of school resources, the background of the children who mostly lack schooling opportunity, the factors that determine school participation in general and difference in schooling between sexes in particular.

The study was carried out in eight rural primary schools and 17 peasant associations that use these schools. The sources of information were 250 household heads (100 household heads having at least one schooling child, 100 household heads having no schooling child and 50 household heads of drop-out children) eight school directors, 98 teachers, 497 students and 5o non-schooling primary school-age children. Household heads' and non-schooling children's interviews and teachers', directors'and students' questionnaires were the instruments used to gather information for the study. The data obtained were analysed through qualitative method, percentages, correlation coefficient and average rank order. Based on the analysis made, the following major findings were obtained.

There is under utilization of teachers and an indication of crowdedness of classrooms in some of the surveyed schools. The findings of the study also has shown that, the demand of the households for schooling in the surveyed areas is low which was indicated by low and fluctuating enrollment growth rate and high drop-out. Drop-out is more severe at lower grades and for girls. In general, females have low school participation because of the low demand of the households for schooling them due to high home duties on females, parents' perception of low employment prospect for educated females and marriage of girls.

Majority of the students are older for their grades, and there are more over-age males than females. Children from the household heads who speak Oromo Language as their mother tongue have a relatively low school participation than children from Amharic mother tongue households when compared with the proportion of the households by mother tongue. Muslim children in general and Muslim girls in particular are the other groups

of children who are educationally deprived. In addition to this, Muslim household heads are found to have high preference for their children to attend Koran school than government school, and there is high Koran school attendance among Muslim children.

Economic conditions are the main factors determining household demand for schooling. Family wealth and distance from school have high influence on school participation, while household heads' educational level has weak relation with family educational consumption.

Based on the findings obtained, the following recommendations are made. Future enrollment in most of the schools must be preceded by the construction of some additional classrooms, or operating with double shift is another option. In order to attract more children to school and to reduce drop-out, the present full-day school time need to be reduced to one session and change of school schedule according to local situation are required. Other than this, improvement of economic condition of the society, persuading community about the value of education and initiating literacy program are suggested to increase school participation. To increase females' school participation, the recruitment and training of female teachers in primary schools and giving priority for females in job employment are suggested.

LIST OF TABLES

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CSAE	-Centre for the Study of African Economies
EADTC	-East African Development and Training Consultants
GER	-Gross Enrollment Ratio
HHs	-Households
MOE	-Ministry of Education
OEB	-Oromia Education Bureau
PAs	-Peasant Associations
PHRD	-Policy and Human Resource Development
UNICEF	-United Nations Children's Fund
UPE	-Universal Primary Education
USAID	-United States Agency for International Development
WCEFA	-World Conference on Education for All

CHAPTER ONE

I N T R O D U C T I O N

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The history of economic growth and educational development are strongly interrelated. No country has scored sound economic growth without development in education (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991; Lockheed and others, 1991; Gould, 1993). Education contributes directly to the growth of national income by improving the skills and productive capacities of the labor forces.

Regarding the social benefits of education, many studies (UNICEF, 1990; Gould 1993; King and Hill, 1993; PHRD, 1996) have confirmed that education, especially of women, will lead to better child health, lower fertility rate, reduced maternal mortality, and improved nutritional intake and personal hygiene. Jamson and Lau (cited in Gould, 1993) explain similar implication of education for the agriculture sector Agriculture is more productive and farmers are more likely to innovate and apply advanced technology when they have been to school; and

the longer they are in school, the more likely that their productivity will be.

Cognizant of these contribution of education to the socio-economic development of the nation, every country has been striving towards the schooling of its citizens. In developing or poor countries, however, the education of the majority of population could not be realized, due to the economic constraints (World Bank, 1989) and different socio-cultural factors (Kelly and Elliott, 1982; King and Hill, 1993).

Although the enrollment ratios in the developing countries have increased steadily during the last two decades, the number of children who are not enrolled in school has also increased (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991). According to the report of UNICEF (1990) about 145 million children between the ages of 6 and 11 years are out of school in the developing world. This problem of low school enrollment is particularly severe in the poorest countries. As observed by Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, "... in some cases school enrollments are low because school-supply is low, in other cases, young people or their families do not chooseto take the advantage of existing opportunities." Stressing the second

point, Psacharopoulos and Woodhall further state that, even when the supply of school places is sufficient to provide the opportunity to universal primary education (UPE), shortfalls may occur since a wide variety of other factors also affect enrollment. Similarly, the report of UNICEF (1990) has pointed out that building of schools does not guarantee that children will attend or parents will consider schools useful or relevant.

Ethiopia is one of the countries with the lowest participation ratio in the World (PHRD, 1996). Evidences from published statistics indicate that a strikingly low percentage of school-age children in Ethiopia participate in the formal education, when compared with other low-income African countries. For example, according to UNESCO's 1995 statistical report (cited in PHRD, 1996), the primary gross enrollment ratio and most of the other educational indicators for Ethiopia fall far behind from most of the Sub-Saharan African Countries.

In addition to this, there is a great disparity in school enrollment ratios between rural and urban areas. According to the Ethiopian Social Sector Report (PHRD, 1996) because of the high increase in enrollment as compared to the increase in

school supply, class sizes in the urban areas have reached at a pedagogically unaccepted level. On the other hand, many schools in rural areas have had much lower number of students than the schools are expected to accomodate.

As to gender-disparity in enrollment, eventhough female enrollment ratios are generally lower than those of males, even in countries with the highest enrollment ratios (World Bank, 1989), the case in Ethiopia has been found as a serious educational problem, especially in the rural areas (USAID/ Ethiopia, 1994;CSAE, 1996).

Educational planners often attribute low levels of educational participation to supply-side constraints and government efforts are directed at expanding the supply of schools (USAID/Ethiopia, 1994). The low level of school supply in many countries also serves to obscure to what extent lack of or limited demand for educational services by households negatively affects educational participations. In countries with traditional societies, the demand of the households for the schooling opportunities is more determinant than its availability, as it is the case in Ethiopia (USAID/Ethiopia, 1994).

The report of education sector review conducted by the USAID in 1994 cited in USAID/Ethiopia (1994:1) also cited in Tekeste (1996:65) noted that.

> ... many children in rural Ethiopia are kept out of school not because of lack of school places, but because their parents might have made the conscious decision not to enroll them.

This shows the low demand of the households for schooling.

Available studies conducted in Ethiopia in this respect (USAID/Ethiopia, 1994; PHRD, 1996; EADTC, 1998), have come up with different factors which are supposed to affect the demand of the households for schooling in rural areas. Some of the factors identified are: household income, parents' educational background, family size, the price of schooling interms of user fees and other expenses for school materials, costs of the child's time forgone, and expected returns from schooling. But the specific factor determining the demand for schooling vary in different areas (PHRD, 1996; EADTC, 1998).

Based on this basic assumption, this study mainly aims to find out the main determinants of the households' demand for schooling in rural Bale Zone.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

According to the 1995/96 Household Income, Consumption and Expenditure, and Welfare Monitoring surveys, enrollment ratios are by far better in urban than rural areas of Ethiopia (PHRD, 1996). The total primary enrollment ratio for the indicated year was 91 percent for urban whereas 18 percent for the rural areas. Although gender-bias in favor of boys is apparent in nearly all places and at all educational levels, the bias against girls in rural areas comeout very strongly. From the same surveys mentioned above, the overall gross enrollment ratio of female in rural areas was only 11 percent as opposed to 24 percent for male. On the other hand, the reverse was indicated for urban areas, 94 and 88 percents for girls and boys respectively.

The primary school enrollment ratio of Bale Zone is low when compared with the regional average as well as with other zones. According to the data obtained from Oromia Education Bureau annual statistical abstract, the GER of Bale for primary

level for the last two recent years (1989 and 1990 E.C.) was 26 and 32 percents respectively, while the regional averages were 31 and 35 percents for the same respective years. Compared with the other zones,Bale has the lowest GER next to Borena and Northern Shewa (OEB, 1989 and 1990 E.C.).

In addition to this, the pupil-teacher ratio of the zone at primary level for the year 1989 E.C. was 25 which was below the regional average 32, and the national standard 50. The pupil-class room ratio for the same year was 43 in grade one, compared to the regional average of 74 (Bale Zone Education Department, 1989 E.C.; OEB, 1989 E.C.).

Whereas the above data indicate the average ratio for rural and urban areas altogether, the figure for rural areas alone is expected to be even much lower than this. So, in general, this shows the under utilization of the existing primary schools in the zone, which implies the low demand of the households for schooling.

So, the identification of the main factors contributing for the low demand of the households for schooling of their children, which might be peculiar or endemic to the zone, which

is the purpose of this study, is of paramount importance in devising the strategy by which the primary school participation could be increased. Thus, this study is aimed at identifying the main determinants of households' demand for schooling in rural Bale Zone. Accordingly, at the end of this study, the following questions are expected to be answered.

1. To what extent the existing rural primary schools of the zone utilized? Are the existing rural primary schools being used to their maximum capacity?
2. Which group of children (gender, age, religion, language group, and family socio-economic background) are mostly deprived of educational opportunity?
3. What are the factors that determine the demand of the households for schooling ?
   - 3.1 What factors are responsible for children, in general, not to enroll to school or drop -out from school ?
   - 3.2 What factors are responsible for girls, in particular, not to enroll to school or drop-out from school ?
   - 3.3 What are the reasons, for the households,

for sending their children to school?

What do parents expect from the education of their children?

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Having an overall educational participation ratio of less than 20 percent, school enrollment in Ethiopia is one of the lowest in the world (PHRD, 1996). In an attempt to devise a strategy by which this ratio could be improved, assessing the existing situations of the education sector pertaining to the demand for the services by the households, the efficiency and effectiveness of the system, and so on are the preliminary steps before embarking on the expansion program.

Thus, the identification of the major factors determining household demand for schooling in rural areas of Bale Zone, in particular, will have the following significances:

1. It will help district (wereda) education offices, and zonal education department planners in locating the building of new schools based on the demand of the different communities for schooling.

2. It will provide suggestive measures that are to be taken by school administrators, wereda education officers, zonal education department planners and other pertinent bodies; to increase school enrollment and reduce dropout.
3. The study may also initiate other researchers to investigate this problem of low school participation in other areas and at national level in a wider scale.

1.4 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study is delimited to the assessment of the households' demand for schooling in rural Bale zone. It does not assess the demand for schooling in urban areas because various national and regional data on the ratio of school enrollment show that urban area by far have better ratios of enrollment than rural areas (MOE, 1989; Gould, 1993; PHRD, 1996). The study is also limited to the investigation of the school participation in the first cycle of primary school (grades 1 to 4), as it is the level which is often found in the rural areas.

The selection of Bale Zone as the area of the study is due to the fact that, first, it is one of the Zones with the lowest GER in Oromia Region. Second, the zone is also one of the most remote and deprived localities and the study of the demand for

schooling is necessary in the process of educational expansion. In addition, personal life and work experience in the particular area has enabled the writer to observe the problem of low school participation, which made him develop a strong interest to investigate the issue.

1.5 LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

Household income in rural areas, where there is no fixed monthly income, is difficult to estimate. In this study, initially it was planned to collect information on the number and kind of domestic animals the households own, to use as a predictor of the level of family wealth. But due to cultural reasons and might be fear of taxation, the household heads were reluctant to give these information, and as a result other weak indicators of the level of family wealth were used.

At the beginning, the student researcher thought that all the teachers in the sample schools can read and write in Oromo Language and did not prepare the questionnaires in Amharic or English. But during the administration of the questionnarire, it has been found out that some teachers having higher years of teaching experience in the sample schools who have been transferred from towns to these sample rural schools in 1990 E.C. due to their inability of the language of instruction

(Oromo Language) were not able to fill, and others have not returned the questionnaires. Because of this the return rate of the teachers' questionnaire was low.

Although great effort has been made in the selection of the sample household heads of this study to make as representative as possible, the findings obtained and conclusion to be drawn would have been much more reliable had the sample size been larger. But due to the shortage of time and financial limit the researcher had in relation to the time and financial resource required for conducting an interview with household heads number larger than this, selection of large size household head sample was impossible.

1.6 THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This study on the identification of the main factors influencing household demand for schooling in rural Bale Zone is a survey type under descriptive research. The population of the study includes directors, teachers and students of the first cycle of primary school (grade 1 to 4), household heads of schooling, non-schooling and dropped-out children, and non-schooling children of primary school-age in the zone.

Instruments used for collecting data were structured and semi-unstructured questionnaires, interview and document analysis.

1.6.1 Samples and Sampling Procedure

To identify samples of the study from which information is to be collected, the first step taken was to decide the woredas from which sample schools are to be selected. Accordingly, from seventeen woredas of Bale Zone which have 313 rural primary schools having first cycle grades (1 to 4), four of them which have low primary school-age population to school ratio were selected. This was used as a basic selection criterion of the sample woredas inorder to control the influence of supply-side or the availability of schools on the demand of the households for schooling.

To determine school-age population to schools ratio, the number of primary school-age population and the number of rural schools in each woreda were obtained from Bale Zone Education Department. Since data on the number of children of first cycle primary school-age (seven to ten years) were not separately available, the data for the primary school-age children in general (seven to fourteen years) was used.

Based on this ratio, the four woredas selected were Agarfa, Ginnir, Gobba and Gololcha-Gasara. The geographical location of these woredas within the zone is that Agarfa is found in the centre, Ginnir in the South, Gobba in the West and Gololcha-Gasara in the South-East direction.

Out of 115 rural primary schools having first cycle grades (1-4) in the four woredas, eight schools (two schools from each woreda) were taken as samples. The selection of the two schools from each woreda was based on their distance from towns. One school located at a distance of approximately five kms, while the second school at a distance of around ten kms away from a town. This was inorder to analyse the influence of town (urban center) on school enrollment. Since there was no school having grades only upto fourth grade in the sample woredas, all sampled schools teach beyond grade four. Three of the selected sample schools teach grades 1 to 8, while the remaining five have grades 1 to 6.

Informants of the study from the selected schools were identified in the following manner. All school heads (directors) which were eight and all teachers teaching in those

schools which were ninety-eight (98), sixty-one (61) males and thirty-seven (37) females were taken as sources of information based on availability sampling method. In addition, fourth grade students (the first section or section A in schools having more than one section), which were 497 (307 males and 190 females) have been also taken as samples of the study based on purposive sampling technique.

Only fourth grade students were taken as samples with the assumption that they are the ones who could to some extent, understand the message of the instrument of study and fill correctly from first cycle primary school students, and it was also to analyze children of what backgrounds persist in school and reach the last grade of the first cycle of primary school.

The selection of sample household heads, who are the main sources of information for this study, followed the location of the selected sample schools, that is to mean, they were selected from peasant associations (PAs) that use or supposed to use the sample schools. There are three groups of household heads selected: household heads having at least one schooling child, no schooling child and dropped-out child, inorder to

analyze the background of the households who school, do not school and drop-out their children from school.

The steps followed in the selection of the household heads are as follows. The number of sample household heads having at least one schooling child was 100 (one hundred), and this was divided among the sampled four woredas which is twenty five household heads per woreda. Since there were two schools sampled from each woreda, twelve household heads were selected from the PAs using the first school, while thirteen from the PAs using the second school. The exact household heads who are going to be the samples were determined first by sampling students whose household heads are going to be samples.

From four grades (grades 1-4), students of each grade were proportionally selected. That is, in each school three students from each grade which gives twelve students, and in the next school since the sample becomes thirteen, one more student will be taken from grade four, that is, three students from grades one, two and three while four students from grade four. To select representative sample students, the total number of students in each grade was divided by three, and students found at an interval of the quotient number was taken.

So, it is the household heads of these students who are taken as samples.

The number of sample household heads having no schooling child was equal to that of the household heads having schooling child, that is 100. So, there are twelve or thirteen household heads to be selected from the PAs found in the locality of the sample school or using them. The number of PAs using one school range between one and three. If the PAs using a given school are three, four household heads were selected from each PA, if two PAs use one school, six household heads from each PA, if only one PA use a given school, all the twelve household heads were from that PA. In the second school, one more household head was selected.

The specific household heads who are going to be samples were selected in such a way that, if the number of PAs using a single school is three, the total number of PA members found from the PAs list is divided by four; if the school serves two PAs, the total number of PA members is divided by six and if it serves only one PA, the number of PA members is divided by twelve, and the samples will be household heads found at the

interval of every quotient number on PAs list. One more household head was selected in the next school.

In the selection of sample household heads having no schooling children, the presence of two primary school-age children (male and female) in the household was another criterion. If the household selected based on the above procedure did not have two school- age children, the next household head on the list of PAs members was taken.

Household heads of fifty children dropped-out from school, selected arbitrarily by referring to school record were also samples of the study. In addition to this, fifty non-schooling children of primary school age of both sexes interviewed accidentally while performing different family duties were sources of information.

1.6.2. Instruments of Data Collection

Two types of instruments were used to gather information: from the seven groups of informants. directors', teachers' and students' questionnaires, and all the three household head groups' and non-schooling children's interview. Data on the number of rural schools and school-age population of rural

areas in each woreda were obtained through document analysis from Bale Zone Education Department.

The questionnaires for school directors, teachers and students comprise of mostly structured (close-ended) and some an unstructured (open-ended) items, where views and suggestions are required. Directors' questionnaire, in particular, has two parts: the first part which requires the directors to express their personal information and views, and the second part pertains to the school condition (information) and requires them to consult school documents, where necessary. All the three groups of questionnaires were first prepared in English, then translated to Oromo Language and checked by two language experts for actual data collection.

Four different types of interview schedules were prepared for the three groups of household heads and non-schooling children. The interview schedules for the household heads consist of mostly close-ended items and some open-ended items, where comments and views are required, while that of non-schooling children is solely close-ended. Similar to the questionnaires, the interview schedules were also first prepared in English, then translated to Oromo Language and

checked by two language experts for the actual data collection. (The copies of the questionnaires and interview schedules are attached at the end of this research report on Appendices A-F).

1.6.3 Procedures of Data Collection

Four field-assistants were trained for one day to conduct the interview. The general purpose of the instrument and each item in the interview schedule were explained during the training. The field-assistants have also actually practiced how to conduct the interview during the training.

Questionnaires for the directors and teachers were distributed by the researcher himself, explaining the general purposes of the questionnaires, while that of the students was administered by homeroom teachers, reading and explaining each item for the whole class while filling . Since the sample schools have either grades 1-6 or 1-8, and according to the information obtained from directors, there were some teachers teaching both the first cycle, that is grades 1-4 as well as grades 5-6 or 5-8, teachers' questionnaire was distributed to all teachers in the schools without discrimination.

All the questionnaires distributed for the directors, that is eight of them, have been returned, but only seven of the directors have given all the necessary data. Of ninety eight (98) questionnaires administered for teachers, only seventy-five (75), that is 76.5 percent have been correctly filled and returned. Out of the remaining questionnaires, some were not returned and others have been discarded because they were not correctly filled. In the case of students' questionnaires, out of the 497 questionnaires distributed, 482 have been returned back, but thirty-six (36) questionnaires have been discarded since they were not correctly filled, and only 446 were correctly filled, and hence tabulated.

All the 250 interview schedules of the three groups of household heads and fifty (50) non-schooling children have been correctly filled.

1.6.4. Methods of Data Analysis

Based on the basic research questions raised and the data collected to answer these questions, relevant statistical tools were applied to analyse the data.

As most of the data required for answering the basic questions were collected through interview and as the research is survey type, qualitative or descriptive statistics was the widely used method of analysis. Other than this, analytic statistics used in the analysis of some data are pearson's linear correlation coefficient,and average rank order.

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient was used to analyse the degree of relation between household heads' educational level and household educational consumption, and between the number of children in the household and household educational consumption. Average rank order was used to analyse all teachers average rank order of the factors responsible for low school enrollment and drop-out separately for children of both sexes.

1.7 Operational Definition of Key Terms

Demand for schooling- the quantity of education actually purchased by a family and corresponds with the enrollment and persistence of the family's children in school (pearse in Rao, 1983:69).

Direct costs of schooling- the costs of schooling expended for cloths and school materials of school attending child.

Gross enrollment ratio- is the total number of students enrolled at a given educational level divided by the population of the age group of that level (world Bank, 1989:ix).

Household educational consumption- the aggregate number of years the children of the household attended formal schooling (USAID,1994)

Household head- the male or female responsible for the household (Anbesu and Junge,1988).

Opportunity cost (forgone earning or indirect costs of schooling)- the value of the alternative opportunity (productive employment) that both the student and society must sacrifice when the former spends his/her time in being educated rather than working (PHRD, 1996:28).

Universal Primary education- is the case in which the entire population of primary-school age enroll to school(Garrido, 1986:204; World Bank,1980:17).

1.8 Organization of the Study

This thesis comprises of four chapters. The first chapter, introductory part, includes background of the study, statement of the problem, significance, delimitation and limitation of the study, the research design and methodology and definition of key terms. The second chapter is review of the related literature. The third chapter deals with the presentation and analysis of the data. Summary, conclusions and recommendations are presented in the fourth chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This review of related literature begins with the general assessment of the factors contributing for the unfulfilment of universal primary education (UPE) in the developing countries. This is followed by the determinants of educational participation, variation in enrolment between genders' and rural and urban, and the discussion on the demand for schooling. This last section of the review deals with the determinants or factors influencing the demand for schooling as they are seen from individual child characteristics, family socio-economic and religious factors and school related factors.

2.1 Obstacles to Universal Primary Education (UPE)

In line with the basic human right," everyone has the right to education,"increasing the level of school enrollment at all levels of education continues to be a policy objective in every nation.But despite the very great efforts made to achieve the education of their every citizen,most of the poor countries are far away from the democratisation of even the primary education (WorldBank,1980; Garrido,1986; WCEFA,1990; Gould, 1993). Within the broader framework of the

democratisation of education, equality of educational opportunity in primary education is considered as one of the priority areas (Tung and Chinaphah, 1985:28). This high emphasis for primary education seems due to the fact that, a strong primary education is a crucial foundation on which developing nations can build more productive futures (UNICEF,1990: 167) and its linkage with enabling population to be literate and numerate, as well as its being foundation for further education (Lockheed and others, 1990:1).

Despite the many efforts made and impressive achievements in recent decades, many writers (Garrido, 1986; Brown, 1993; Gould, 1993) have taken up pessimistic position regarding the attainment of universalization goal, in these countries. In this respect, it seems important to quote Frederiksen (cited in Garrido, 1986:205):

> In spite of an enrollment growth during the past two decades unparalleled in history, the battle to reach UPE is still far from won for most developing countries ... Therefore in view of the high population growth, present economic crisis and persistent high levels of repetition and dropout, it is likely that many developing countries will enter the 21st century without having achieved this target.

Although the situation varies significantly among regions and countries, in developing countries, less than 65 percent of children between the ages of 6 and 11 years are enrolled in school, and of them only 50 percent reach fourth grade (World Bank, 1989). In addition to this, there are unequal education opportunities within countries based on sex, socio-economic status, regional, rural/urban and sometimes ethnic backgrounds.

Efforts to expand and equalize education opportunities face many constraints. The first and frequently mentioned reason is lack of resources or economic crisis or poverty (UNICEF, 1990; WCEFA, 1990; Brown, 1993; Gould, 1993). Economic decline in many of the developing countries, according to this writers, has an impact on the democratization of education in at least three aspects. First, it affects the system directly by influenceing the availability of education (the amount and quality of resources which are invested in it) and second, indirectly by the pressure it puts on peoples ability to take advantage of it, interms of paying for school expenses; and thirdly, interms of many children requird to work to supplement family income dropout from school or never enroll.

The second factor for the unfulfilment of UPE in the targeted time is subject to the high rate of population growth which made it possible for the poor countries to provide facilities for the growing number of young generation (Brown, 1993). Brown Further explains that, this population growth together with the falling or static educational expenditure, due to economic crisis, has resulted in the majority of the people of developing nations to watch the goal of 'education for all' EFA fade in the distant future.

The other group of constraints arises out of the cultural and sociopolitical characteristics of a country (World Bank, 1980: 25). Many countries may also lack the analytic and managerial capacity to perceive and implement alternative, more efficient methods of expanding and equalizing education opportunities.

In addition to this, participation in education is determined not only by the education opportunities that are provided, but also by the degree of their use (World Bank, 1980). It is unrealistic to assume that if an educational service is offered, the intended beneficiaries will

automatically accept it. For social or economic reasons, some groups may be apathetic toward the education being provided, or not consider it worth the opportunity cost involved (World Bank, 1980; Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991; EADTC, 1998).

But the specific factors responsible for determining educational participation at a given level of education are common every where, and it is the issue to be dealt with in the following section.

2.2 Educational Participation

Accordidng to Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1991:106), projections of future enrollment ratios depend on three basic factors; these are:

1. demographic trends, which will provide accurate estimates of the school-age population,
2. the determinants of private demand for education, that is the factors that determine whether or not pupils choose to enroll in education, and
3. promotion, repetition and dropout which will indicate how many of the pupils who orginally enrolled will remain in the system and ultimately graduate.

But above all, because the presence of a school is the minimum condition for participation, the unequal distribution of school places within a country can create unequal distribution of educational participation (WCEFA, 1990). Even within the school, the availability of school facilities will have adverse effect on educational prticipation (King and Hill, 1993:33). In Bangladsh, for example, parents have withdrawn girls from schools without latrines.

The factors that reinforce students to dropout from school are many, and dropout, as mentioned earlier, is one factor determining education participation. And it seems relevant to discuss about dropout before looking at enrollment, because all students enrolling in the system do not complete.

2.3 Drop-out

According to the report of World Bank (1989:80), for every 1,000 children who enter primary school in Africa, only about 600 enter the final year. This can show how serious the dropout problem is in Africa.

In general, dropout is more common among female than male, in rural than urban (Jabre, 1988; UNECEF, 1990; Lockheed and others, 1991), and among students from low socio-economic background (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991).

As to its origin, different causes of dropout are given by different authorities, which are similar or different among themselves. Just to mention few, Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1991:209) mentioned poverty, high opportunity cost of schooling, cultural factors, lack of textbooks and other school facilities, overcrowded classrooms and lack of further educational opportunity as the causes of dropout. Others like (Jabre, 1988,World Bank, 1989; Anbesu and Barbara, 1988) have come up with direct costs, personal illness, marriage (for girls) and parental illness as the causes of dropout from school.

But the conclusion of Simmons (1986:145) seems more comprehensive in explaining the causes of dropout in developing countries. He states:

> Poverty is a major reason why students leave before completion. Dropout rate is higher for developing countries because of low motivation of people of these countries to obtain more years of schooling, the need of child labor, lack of support for studying during learning and high direct costs involved.

Drop-out is the main educational problem in Ethiopia. (PHRD,1996). A more comprehensive and very recent assessment of drop-out trend in Ethiopia in presented by Ayalew (1997:501), and he has found out that,

a) drop-out rates are unacceptably high even by African standards,

b) when seen over time, the retention power of the schools is declining

c) it is more serious at the primary level and with in the primary in the initial years of schooling,

d) more severe on the already deprived sector of the population, i.e. girls and children from rural areas.

Similar findings were reported by Adane (1993) in his study of drop-out in primary schools of Bahir Dar Awraja in that drop-out rate is high in the initial years of schooling, in rural than urban schools and among girls than boys. In addition, he has identified the causes of drop-out as lack of prospect in education, financial and material constraints, poor

academic performance, late admission, early marriage (for rural girls), child labor, parental death and broken homes.

2.4 Disparity in Enrollment

Certain groups of children are educationally disadvantaged in virtually all societies (Lockheed and others, 1991:146), and this is reflected in their enrollment, tendency to stay in school and in their educational attainment. It is also true that, countries vary greatly in the proportion of population enrolled at different levels of education. There are also marked differences in enrollment rates between sexes, rural and urban, socio-economic groups, ethnic and linguistic groups (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991).

As to the causes of the inequalities in educational opportunities, many authors have identified different factors. Even when the supply of school places is sufficient to provide the opportunity of education for the relevant age-group, different factors may contribute for the inequality of accessibility, because, as Ayalew (1989:26) stated, "expansion is not a sufficient condition for equalizing educational opportunities." Similarily, Brown (1993:70) argued that, the failure of formal education to create a literate population is

not simply a question of shortage and lack of resource, though these factors are important. It reflects the alienation of substantial sectors of the population from the education system and its providers. The problem is not merely economic impoverishment, but cultural and political impoverishment.

Other authorities like Gould (1993:12), Lockheed and others (1991:24), Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1991), have given different reasons for variation in educational opportunities. Some of the factors identified include geographical distribution of school places, private cost of schooling, socio-economic and cultural factors, and school characteristics.

Lockheed and others (1991:167) specifically in pointing out the specific groups deprived of educational opportunity stated that, "the vast majority of children who do not attend school in developing countries come from one or more of the traditionally disadvantaged groups of the society: rural dwellers, females, the poor or minorities." And accordidng to these writers, these group of people donot participate in schooling for three principal reasons: inadequate supply of

school places, lack of parental demand for education, and discriminatory treatment in schooling opportunities.

Inequalities in educational enrollments are generally a matter of great concern for education planners. Stressing this great concern for educational inequality, Neav cited in Ayalew (1989:26) noted that, "of all the inequalities that exist, there is no inequality more intolerable than the inequality of educational opportunity." Because of this, the fact that inequalities exist and persist has been one of the major concerns of educationalists and has generated a vast literature on the nature, causes, and effects of inequality, and on what can and ought to be done about it (Gould, 1993:38).

It is an expected fact that rich (developed) countries, having higher levels of educational enrollment at all levels, do have almost equal access to educational opportunities than the poorer countries (Gould, 1993).

In order to have a clear picture of variation in enrollment, it is essential to look at the two mainly common enrollment disparities: gender, and rural/urban disparity.

2.4.1 Gender Disparity

Female enrollment ratios are generally lower than those of males even in countries with high total gross enrollment ratios (World Bank, 1989; PHRD, 1996). But the situation is more severe in countries having low enrollment ratios. It is also true that female students are more likely to dropout than male students and illiteracy is much higher among females.

It seems due to this fact that the World Conference on Education For All (WCEFA) assembled in Jomtien, Thailand, from 5 to 9 March, 1990 has emphasised the reduction of gender-disparity as priority issue in its adoption of the proclamation World Declaration on Education for All: Meeting Basic Learing Needs. Article three (3) of this proclamation states as follows:

> The most urgent priority is to ensure access to and improve the quality of education for girls and women, and to resolve every obstacle that hampers their active participation. All gender stereotyping in education should be eliminated. WCEFA (1990:158).

It is enough to mention the report of UNICEF to have a good picture of the extent to which women are deprived of

educational opportunity. Out of more than 100 million children with no access to primary schooling in 1990, at least 60 million are girls, and of the world's almost one billion adult illiterates two thirds are women (UNICEF, 1990:213).

As a general trend, the high disparity in the enrollment between boys and girls is prevalent in developing countries (UNICEF, 1990; WCEFA, 1990), and the bias against girls in the rural areas come out very strongly (PHRD, 1996). The exception to this assertion for the developing countries is Latin America, where the enrollment of females have caught up with that of males.

Despite the great potential contribution of women, there is a very low involvement of women in the development process of developing countries. The main reason for this, as put by Seyoum (1986:6),is the lack of education.

> The lack of participation of women in development process in developing countries is due to their under-representation at all levels of schooling.

But the main question remains;that is,what contributes for the low educational participation and achievement of

So many factors are given for the low educational enrollment and participation of women.

2.4.1.1 Parents' Bias Infavor of Boys' Education

Although the returns to schooling go primarily to the student, the decision and the resources usually come from the parents. Thus, the perception of parents may be the key factor in sending or not sending the girl to school. And parents may have different perceptions regarding their sons' and daughters' education (King and Hill, 1993:23). In certain societies, they tend to favor sons not only in education but also in the allocation of food at meal time or in the distribution of inheritance (Greenhalgh, 1985; Rosenzweig and Schultz, 1982 both cited in King and Hill, 1993:24).

In many societies, as far as girls'-schooling is concerned, parents hold negative attitudes, vis-a-vis the education of their daughters. They consider girls education as being much less necessary than in the case of boys. The education of boys is seen as an investment in security for old age(Psacharopoulos and Woodhall,1993:113),whereas girls' education is considered interms of consumption, since they will go to live with the family of their husbands(Jabre, 1988:23).

King and Hill (1993:27) are of the opinion that, unless daughters transfer part of their future income to their parents, parents, who must bear the costs of their education, may not have sufficient incentives to do so. For example, the earlier the daughters marry and move in with their husbands' families, the less parents enjoy the benefits of their education.

Some evidences suggest that when girls do not marry so early but spend sometime working in the labor force, parents are more willing to educate their daughters (Acharya and Bennett, 1981 cited in King and Hill, 1993). In Hong Kong, for example, although custom dictates that sons take responsibility for their parents, girls who marry when they are older and help their parents in the interim appear to attain higher levels of schooling than others.

2.4.1.2. Opportunity Cost or Home Duties

The fact that girls expected to contribute to the housework duties at a much earlier age than boys in many developing countries can be another reason why girls are less likely to be enrolled in education. Girls are involved in many

household activities, where they help their mothers in all tasks such as supply of water and fire wood, cooking food, looking after younger siblings, cleaning house and sometimes agricultural activities (Jabre, 1988; King and Hill, 1993). Consequently, a vast majority of girls never enter school or withdraw from school very early.

Besides the opportunity cost, parents may feel that girls are forgoing important childcare, household and craft training at home if they go to school, which will be required for their adult life (King and Hill, 1993:24).

2.4.1.3. Family Income

According to the description of Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1993), there is some evidence that poverty and reluctance to bear the costs of educating girls reinforce each other as a determinant of demand. For example, a study in rural India by Joshi and Roa (1964) cited in Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1993) indicated that, girls' participation in schooling may be much more affected by parental wealth than boys' enrollment rates.

The study of private expenditure on schooling in Tanzania by Tan (1985) cited in Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1993) and King and Hill (1993) also showed that, the direct costs of schooling such as books, uniforms, and incidental expenses can also be higher for girls than boys; which discourage poor parents from educating their daughters. In addition to this, parents' greater reluctance to send daughters to school without proper attire also raises the cost of their attendance (King and Hill, 1993:24).

2.4.1.4. Employment Opportunity

The accessibility of women to labor-market also determines the demand for schooling (King and Hill, 1993). In other words, lack of access of women of the same educational status with that of men, to employment of the same level, is one of the factors for the inequlity between the enrollment of the two (Brown, 1993). Brown explains that, in Malaysia, for example, boys expect higher salaries than girls do, and girls believe that the range of jobs open to them is restricted. These expectations, in turn, affect educational aspirations.

Where the employment possibilities for women are limited by tradition in this way, the demand for girls' education is

low, but an increase in employment opportunities of any type for women will lead to an increase in demand for education, as was demonstrated in an experimental project in Nepal (UNESCO, 1975 cited in Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991). Between 1968 and 1973, the employment of women as primary school teachers in Nepal increased the average enrollment of girls in primary schools from 13 to 25 percent.

2.4.1.5. Negative Attitude of Teachers

It is also widely held that, female pupils often suffer from the negative attitudes of teachers who believe that, female are incompetent (which may inforce them to dropout) and from unsupportive family and community perceptions of the "appropriate" levels of education for women (WCEFA, 1990, Lockheed and others, 1991).

Lockheed and others (1991:149) particularly indicated that, the sex-discrimination against girls by teachers is mostly true in Latin America and Islamic cultures. Tinker and Bramsen (1975) cited in Lockheed and others, from their study of Islamic schools in Nigeria reported that girls did not ask questions in class, were not asked questions by their teachers

and generally had to sit in the back of the class, away from the boys.

Similarily, Lobban (1975) cited in Weiner (1978:163), in his study of two London schools observed that the sexes were separated on many occasions for purely organizational reasons, and concluded that, this different sex grouping of students in school, within and out of the classroom, will have some discriminatory practices. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) also cited in Weiner (1978:163) showed that, the way teachers expect children to behave tends to affect both the self-esteem of the pupils and their academic progress. This means, if teachers regard boys as essentially superior to girls interms of academic potentials, they will assume a superior position, and perform in the manner expected.

2.4.1.6. Sex-Stereotyping in Textbooks

Although there is scant emprical evidence that sex stereotypes in textbooks affect the participation or scholastic achievement of girls, such biases presumably affect their aspirations and expectations for the future (UNICEF, 1990; Lockheed and others,1991).

Michel (1986) cited in Lockheed and others (1991:150) indicated that textbooks often portray women in passive and powerless roles, thus reinforcing negative stereotypes.

2.4.1.7. Sex-role Socialization

In many societies, a sharp distinction between male and female socialization still persists (UNICEF, 1990). In Arab countries, such as Egypt and Morocco, the socialization of girls emphasizes the acceptance of the predominant sex-role, with marriage and family, not education and employment in the labor market as the ultimate goals of women (UNICEF, 1990; King and Hill, 1993).

On the other hand, parents may consider education itself as a negative factor because of the prevailing doubts about whether better-educated women make good wives (King and Hill, 1993). In many traditional societies, education beyond the acquisition of literacy is contrary to the social pressure for women to become wives and mothers, and threatens their possibilities for marriage. King and Hill (1993:34),reported that, for example,in Northern Negeria,where education in Western schools considered as bad,this attitude has acted as a

barrier to female education, even when the government or donor agencies finance the construction of schools. In the Ethiopian case, Anbesu and Barbara (1988) in their study of primary school prticipation in Bahir Dar Awraja, found out that, 20 percent of the primary school students of their sample were already either promised, married or divorced.

It is simple to understand that, girls growing up under such conditions, where the main role of women is expected to be family and marriage, will be educated only if schooling is viewd as a positive factor in marriage. A very good example for a case in point is, in Zaire, higher bride-price for better-educated girls induced some parents to send their daughters to school (King and Hill, 1993:34).

2.4.1.8. Early Marriage

In traditional societies, early marriage is a major impediment to expansion of schooling among girls; especially at upper-primary years (Kelly and Elliott, 1982:19). This means, where girls are married at ags 15 to 18 or prior to this, their enrollments at primary and upper secondary are lower.

2.4.1.9. Distance to School

Lockhead and others (1991) indicated that the single most important determinant of school enrollment is the proximity of a school to school-age children. They also mentioned that, many studies have reptedly demonstrated that distance from school is a critical factor in determining whether or not children, especially girls, attend school. For them, distnce from school has impact on the indirect cost through consumption of children's time and fatigue after making a trip. But Kelly and Elliott (1982) describe the impact of distnce to school on enrollment of girls as beieng two: interms of time and hazards.

In general, there is an impact of distance to school on enrollment but its effect varies depending on the location of the school, that is, rural/urban, and the gender of the student (PHRD, 1996). In urban areas, the impact of distance is insignificant, but in rural areas, the study of PHRD (1996:15) showed that, as expected, the negative influence of distance was demonstrated by the decline of gross enrollment for both sexes.

While the study of EADTC (1998) showed there is a great dcrease in girls' enrollment than boys as a distance between home and school increases, and they identified the problems girls' face on their way to school as " ... they are sexually harassed while walking to school, they are often kidnapped and forced in to early marriage." (EADTC 1998:53).

Assignment policies that concentrate women teachers in urban and economically advantaged areas also prevent many female pupils in other areas from having relevant role models (Lockheed and others, 1991; King and Hill, 1993).

Other than the gender-disprity, the other common disparity in educational opportunity in most developing countries is the disprity between rural and urban areas, which is the issue to be raised in the following section.

2.4.2 Disparity in Rural/Urban Enrollment

The report of World Bank (1989:39) also noted that, much larger than the disparities in enrollment between girls and boys at primary level are those between rural and urban areas. Because of this, in most countries there are two education systems, one urban and the other rural. According to

this report, the former has close to universal enrollment; in in the latter the schools are scattered and may not offer all grade levels, and enrollment ratios are much lower.

The condition in Ethiopia is not different from this. The study conducted by PHRD (1996:12) indicated that, enrollment ratios are far better in urban than rural areas. According to this study, the primary enrollment ratio for the year 1995/96 was 91 percent for the urban areas compared to 18 percent for the rural. It seems because of this that the research report of CESA (1996:12) states!the single most problem in education of Ethiopia is probably the very low enrollment rates in primary education in rural areas, and the second problem is that enrollment is very much lower for girls than for boys in rural areas."

The main factor cited by WCEFA (1990), and Lockheed and others (1991) as the cause of the disparity in enrollment between rural and urban, is that, in urban areas schools are avaiable while there is short supply in rural areas. This means the inavialability of school places in rural areas is the main cause for the low enrollment in rural areas.

The report WCEFA (1990:158) also indicated that the fact that the language of instruction is different from the lnguage at home in rural areas, puts the children of rural areas in the disadvntage.

In addition to low enrollment, rural areas are characterized by high dropout than urban areas. In the view of some writers like Lockheed and others (1991) this condition reflects a difference, not only in residence rural/urbal, but also in socio-economic and ofter in ethnic or racial composition of rular and urban areas.

But according to the general cultural background of the country, as indicated by the few research findings so far conducted, the low enrollment in rural areas of Ethiopia is a matter of parents' reluctance to use the available services than lack of school supply (USAID/Ethiopia, 1994; CESA, 1996; PHRD, 1996). So, the identification of the factors contributing for the low demand of schooling in the rural areas is a prerequisite in the process of an attempt of increasing rural school enrollment.

2.5 The Demand for Schooling

It is a well estabilished fact that the availability of educational options does not ensure its utilization. Because of this, the distinction between provision and utilization is basic for policy makers (Kelly and Elliott, 1982:12).

Household demand for schooling of children is often regarded as analogous to demand for any good (PHRD, 1996). And parents decision of educating their children, according to the explanation of Kelly and Elliott (1982) and Lockheed and others (1991), is the result of their preception and expectation of returns from education of their children. These returns could be higher future income (securing better job opportunity), good development of the personality of the child, greater prestige and an overall more productive household. The way the decision mae seems, as Kelly and Elliott put, "parents weigh the net costs with the net benefits of keeping children out of school.

The demand of the households for schooling is constrained by a number of factors. These factors could be individual characteristics (such as age and sex), family or household factors(such as socio-economic status of the family; including

family income, educational background, occupation, family size, sex of household head), socio-cultural and religious factors (religion, ethnic group, language, etc) and school-related factors (distance from school, language of instruction, lack of school facilities, lack of further educational opportunity etc.) (King and Hill, 1993; PHRD, 1996).

2.5.1 Individual Characteristics

Although some of the individual child characteristics are not mostly common in the prental decision of educating a child, some characteristics such as sex and age, do have great influence (Tung and Chinapah, 1985; PHRD, 1996).

The role of sex in determining access to educational opportunity has been discussed in the section 'gender-disparity in enrollment' in detail.

Age of entry to school has its own impact on school enrollment and persistance, and it varies depending on place of residence, rural/urban. There is, in general, low enrollment and high dropout for over-aged children, and under-aged children are more likely to persist (Anbesu and Barbara,

1988; UNICF, 1990; PHRD, 1996). And in general, over-ageness is the feature of rural areas.

Leaving other countries aside for the time being, over-ageing is the main feature of Ethiopian education (Anbesu and Barbara, 1988; CESA, 1996; PHRD, 1996). For example, the report of CESA (1996:213) indicated that, many children in primary schools of Ethiopia are over the age of 14, nd the percentage of children of school-age in school is less than 20 percent.

2.5.2 Household Factors (Socio-economic status of the Family).

The socio-economic status of the family which are mainly mentioned as determining the demand for schooling are: family income, level of parents' education, occupation and gender of the household heads, and they will be seen in more detail.

2.5.2.1 Family Income

The level of family income has one of the most powerful influences on demand for education. But the degree of influence increases with the level of education (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991: 112).

The economic analysis of the private demand for education mostly includes two aspects of private costs of education: opportunity costs or indirect costs or also called earnings forgone and direct costs.

A. Direct Cost

It is agreed upon by many writers that households in the higher income group send their children to school and spend more on education per school-age child than households in the lower income group (Panitchpakdi, 1974; PHRD, 1996; EADTC, 1998). On the contrary, poor families will certainly find it difficult to pay fees, and even free education imposes a substantial financial burden through cloths and other expenses of school materials (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991). A study by Meerman (1979) in Malaysia, cited by Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1991:112) also concluded that, "effective demand at ech educational level is a positive function of income." One reason he gives for this is that, out-of-pocket expenses, even for primry education where the fees are low, represent a substntial financial burden for poor families. On the other hand, Lockheed and others (1991:150) explain the less probability of children of poor families to enroll, interms of

the limited educational attainment and low occupational status of parents, which result in lower valuing of education.

Moreover, poor families, on the average tend to have more school-age children than highest income familis, which makes conditions worse to educate most of their children (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991).

In country after country, studies have revealed that poverty affects both the ability of the family to support schooling of their children and its willingness to bear the costs. In other words, parental decision as to whether to send children to school is heavily influenced by income (WCEFA, 1990; CESA, 1996).

Regarding the impact of family income on enrollment through place of residence and sex of a child, the study of PHRD (1996:19) indicated that, "the effect of income is more important in rural areas and on girls."

B. Opportunity Cost

The contribution interms of additional income that even very young children may generate is an equally powerful reaon

to direct costs of scholing, for keeping them at home in the poor families. From the time they are five to six years old, children of both sexes can make important contributions to the household through house-work and child-care as well as productive activities (Gould, 1993; Safilios-Roths-Child, 1980 cited in Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991:113).

It has been also suggested that the economic efficiency of households in peasant societies increaes with greater totl work input from children (Nag, 1977 cited in Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991). This reinforces the conclusion that the value of earnings forgone, or unpaid work in the household, accounts in large part for the lack of demand for education among the poor.

According to Kelly and Elliott (1982); Gould (1993); and King and Hill (1993), in the estimate of how much time and labour children contribute to the economy of the household, the burden placed on girls exceed those for boys. Child care and household tasks do not exhaust girls' contributions to the family economy; they may work in garden or field, fetching and carrying or help in trade and do home processing or products

for sale. From this, it seems that the lower enrollment of girls than boys at all levels of education can be explained interms of the higher work burden on them.

Chernichovsky (1985) cited in King and Hill (1993:114) found out that, the enrollment of children seemd to be influenced also by the presence in the home of elderly people (who can be seen as substitutes for child labor). Accordingly, children were more likely to be enrolled in school if their grndparents lived in the household.

Holdings of cattle and land are lso correlated with school enrollment. Land or stockholdings increase the opportunity cost of children's time and therefore reduce the demand for schooling (Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991; King and Hill, 1993). Children of the households having many livestock are less likely to remain in school and to enroll. But boys' schooling was more affected than girls' by the households' ownership of livestock, according to these studies, becuse boys' herding activities were more likely to take them away from home and school.

2.5.2.2 Family Educational Background

Many studies, like Anbesu and Barbara (1988); Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1991); Gould (1993); and King and Hill 1993), have identified the level of parental schooling as one of the factors influencing the taste for schooling. In general, educated parents place a higher value on the education of their children, and this shows that the demnd for schooling is higher among educated families.

The literature interprets the effect of prents' education on children's schooling in different ways. First, it may be correlated with the value that parents attach to formal education. The more education parents have, the more thay value formal education for their children. Second, parents' education gives the degree to which parents are open to inflfuences other than tradition. Even in a society that restricts the activities of girls and women, parents who are themselves educated are less likely to see formal education as a threat to their way of life. Thirdly, parents' education serves as a limited indicator of family income or wealth when more direct measures are not available. In all the three ways, parents' education has a positive reltion with the enrollment of children.

As to the degree of influence of mothers' and fathers' education on children's schooling, there seems to be a general tendency among many writers that, mothers' education has more influence on children's schooling in general and that of girls' in particular (Gould, 1993; King and Hill, 1993; PHRD, 1996). King and Hill (1993:29), for example, state that:

> ... a mother's schooling increases the educational attainment of her children, especially of her daughters. In many cases, it has been found to have a larger impact on children's schooling than the father's education eventhough the father's education also implies an income effect).

Eventhough, there is a difference in the impact of father's and mother's education on children's schooling, Biraiamah (1987) cited in King and Hill (1993:112) pointed out that, parental education, in general has great impact on girls' education than boys' education.

Other than parents' educational background, Anderson (1983) cited in Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1991):117) has confrimed that, the taste for schooling of what he termed as "educogenic families"-families who have a strong aspiration for schooling of their children because older members of the family have well schooled; determines parental demand for schooing.

In conformity with the underlying conclusion of a strong positive relation between family educational background and the demand for schooling, some of the available studies in Ethiopia, on the issue come up with the finding that, " literate parents are more likely to send their children to school than the illiterate ones," (Anbesu and Barbara, 1988:32), and "parents illiteracy is the first reason for the low female participation in education," (Dirirsa, 1993:43).

2.5.2.3 Gender of Household Heads

Households headed by educated females are more likely to send their children (both sexes) to school and to keep them there longer than households headed by uneducated females or males (Chernichousky,, 1985; Kossoudji and Mueller, 1983 both for Botswana cited in King and Hill, 1993:113). But, this women's ability to support themselves and their children, in prt depends on their schooling, accordidng to these writers.

In the study of PHRD (1996:20) for Ethiopia, gross and net enrollment ratios revealed that, in urban-femele headed households , enrollments at all levels of school (with the exception of higher education), were higher for both sexes

relative to that of urban-male-headed households. In rural areas, female-headed households show a slightly higher boys' enrollment than male-headed households at all educational levels.

2.5.3 Socio-Cultural and Religious Factors

In certain settings, religion as well as socio-cultural factors; such as norms delineating the societal, economic and familial roles of women; strongly inflfuence parents' choices by imposing a heavy cost on non-conformist behavior, and these may bear significantly on schooling decisions.

2.5.3.1 Religion

It is Islamic religion which is mostly mentioned as having negative influence in the expnsion of modern education. The demand for secular education, especially for girls, has been conspicuously lower in Muslim countries than elsewhere prtly because of the obvious difficulties of complementarity with the Koranic school (Bray et.al, 1986 cited in Gould, 1993:14).

Gould (1993:15) has also indicated that, eventhough many countries are secularizing their education, for example, Egypt and Turkey, yet in many countries, the emergence of religious

fundamentalism and growing dependence on the Shria or Muslim Law, have been assciated with flourishing of Islamic studies within the secular curriculum. In Pakistan, for example, Islmiat is a compulsory subject in the main currciulum in all state schools.

The male /female ratio which was low in the Muslim countries of the Middle East earlier is being improved dramatically though some rich Islamic countries still had low proportion of girls enrolled (Gould, 1993:47). In these countries, though the demand for education is generally high, parents may be unwilling to expose their children to the new value system that seems to be inculcated in schools.

Robertson (1986) cited in Kind and Hill (1993:113), in defending the influence of Islamic religion on girls' education, pointed out that, "Islam should not be held responsible for the low enrollment of girls in Africa," and he mentioned Sudan as a counter example, where he said, "the Muslim north has significantly higher schol enrollment rates than the christian and traditional south." He added that, since independence the predominantly Muslim countries in Africa have hd the highest enrollment growth rates.

2.5.3.2 Ethnic Group

Few data exist on issues of ethnic disadvantage. But from the existing data, it is indicated that, in some countries, a minority group is disdvantaged not so much because of its ethnic identify as because it is poor and/ or rural (WCEFA, 1990:55).

This report also indicated that ethnic discrimination can operate either through formal practices favoring a privileged group or more informal biases in employment networks. But, whether or not the discrimination is explicit, the negative effects soon will be, discrimination reduces the incentives for the disadvantaged children to participate in and benefit from the primary schooling system.

Similarily, Lockheed and others (1991:153) maintained that ethnic minorities appear to suffer from inequlities in education system. They elaborated that, in Nepl,. caste or ethnic background together with the economic status and level of literacy of parents, was found to be a significant determinant of the educational attainment of girls. They have also mentioned the existance of vast disparities in schooling

among ethnic groups in Guatemala. In describing the way discrimintion occurs, they stated that, it can be implicit as when the language of instruction favors one group over another, and children who speak a language other than the language of instruction confront substantial barrier to learning.

2.5.3.3 Employment Opportunity

As far as parents expect crtain returns from the education of their children, they anticipate employment after the completion of a given grade level. But lack of employment opportunity after graduating from a given level of schooling is what expected to demotivate the need for schooling their children. In conformity with this assumption from the study of PHRD (1996) in Ethiopia, the information obtained from school administrators states as follows:

> ... the fact the disillusionment with respect to finding job after school graduation has cused parents to refrain from sending their children to school in recent years.

Similarly, the research report of EADTC (1998:53) has indicated that, the limited employment opporutunities for high school graduates has negatively affected the attitude of many

parents and students towards achieving this level of education, and they added that parents think (due to this) that business activities are more rewarding than going to school.

2.5.4 School-related Factors

Obviously, government policy on the supply of places and the allocation of funds for education has an important influence on demand for education, because it determines the level of fees and financial support for students. Although, in general, there is an assumption that the demand for ducational services tends to increse because of population growth (Panitchpakdi, 1974:23), the under-utilization of school facilities is one of the most remarkable features of African education systems (King, 1976:vi). In most prts of the continent, eventhough the provision of educational services is not yet developed well, the established ones are not fully utilized.

In addition to the supply of school places; distance from school, language of instruction, lack of school facilities, qualaity of education and lack of the opportunity for further education are lso some of the school-related factors given by different writers as determinants of the demnd for schooling

(UNICEF, 1990; Psacharopoulos and Woodhall, 1991; King and Hill, 1993).

Although the presence of a school is the minimum condition for participation (WCEFA, 1990), the poor quality of education many schools offer reinformces the low demand and motivation of children and prents among the disadvntaged groups (UNICEF, 1990). The report of UNICEF (1990:69) indicated that, in the poorer areas of low lincome countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and Latin America, the deterioration in recent years in the quality of primary education together with the lack of school facilities has reached a stage where the minimum conditions for any form of efficient learning no longer exist.

2.5.4.1 Language of Instruction

In many developing countries, children speak a language other than national or official language, at home (Lockheed and others, 1991:153) and both literacy promoters and communities are faced with the choice of which language to learn in (Brown, 1993:69). The answer is not always obvious. It is usually easier to teach people to read and write in their mother tongue if they have no knowledge of another

language, or imperfect grasp of it. It is also the right of those learners to become literate first of all lin their own language.

Dutcher (1982) cited in Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1991:117) in a review of research in the area of language of instruction found that, overall the language of instruction may be a determinant of a child's achievement in primary school and therefore may subsequently determine demand for secondary or higher education. Similarily, experimental projects in Guatemala and Nigeria have demonstrated that, teaching with mother tongue at the beginning of primry level lwill improve learning including the mastery of the second language (Lockheed and others, 1991:168). But, the multitude of languages and dialects in many countries has posed problems in their use as a media of instruction (UNICEF, 1990).

The use of a child's mother tongue for at least the early years of education is the sound approach from educational point of view; and people also do want to assert their linguistic identify. But, if the mother tongue is different from the national or official language, the learner may be cutt-off from opportunities for further education and inother areas of life.

The solution to this problem is, as given in UNICEF, 1990:171, may be in the use of a local language at the primary or early primary level, both for pedagogical reasons, and to preserve local linguistic and cultural identify. Then a transitional phase has to be provided, during which a learner changes over to the national language.

However, Dutcher (1982) cited in Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1991), warns that, the selection of the language of instruction must take the following factors into consideration: the linguistic and cognitive dvelopment of children in their first language, the attitude of parents toward the language chosen for school and the status of the language in the wider community. In addition to this, when language policy is formulated the educational implications interms of equity in learning opportunities, availability of textbooks and reading materials, the preparation of learning aids, and the training of teachers need to be considered fully (UNICEF, 1990).

CHAPTER THREE

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter deals with the discussion of the data collected through different instruments. At the beginning, some essential characterstics of the samples are discussed,followed by the assessment of the extent of utilization of school resources, the status of household demand for schooling, characterstics of the children who deprived schooling opportunity, factors influencing household demand for schooling and difference in schooling between sexes.

3.1 Characteristics of the Respondents

Data of this study, which were collected through interview, questionnaire and document analysis were tallied, tabulated and finally analysed through both qualitative or descriptive and quantitative or analytic methods of research analysis. The samples of the study include 250 household heads, eight (8) primary school directors, 98 teachers and 497 students as well as fifty (50) non-schooling primary school-age children. Some more detail essential characteristics of the samples are given on Table 1.

Table 1. Respondents by Type and Sex

Sex	household heads		directors		teachers		students		non-schooling children	
	freq.	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
Male	213	85.2	8	100	61	62.2	307	61.8	32	64
Female	37	14.8	0	0	37	37.8	190	38.2	18	36
Total	250	100	8	100	98	100	497	100	50	100

Of the 250 sample household heads, only about 15% were females. That means the majority of the sample household heads were males. the relation of the males to the households was indicated to be totally of father, and that of females to be mothers.

The fact that all school directors are males seems the reflection of the under-representation of females in educational leadership positions in Ethiopia in general . While the relatively higher number of female teachers could be the result of female-biased training of teachers for primary schools in recent years. The proportion of female students

reaching grade four is only a little more than one-third of the students at this grade level.

3.2. Utilization of School Resources

In the face of shortage of capital for educational development, effective utilization of the existing school resources is an appropriate option before embarking on the policy of expansion of school places (PHRD, 1996:iii).

An investigation of the extent to which resources of the sample schools are utilized and whether there is a pressure on school resources or not has been analysed by different ratios, such as: pupil-teacher ratio, teaching load of teachers and student-classroom ratio.

3.2.1 Pupil-teacher Ratio

The most important resource in the school which needs to be utilized to the maximum possible capacity is teachers, because according to the research report of PHRD (1996:v), the bulk majority of the recurrent budget allocated for education in Ethiopia goes to the salary of teachers.

As rural schools, when compared to the optimum ratio recommended by MOE for primary school (that is 1:50) teacher-student ratio in all the sample schools is moderate.

Table 2. Pupil-teacher Ratio for Sample Schools (1991 E.C.)

Schools	Grades taught in the school	No. of teachers	No. of students	Student-teacher ratio
Ela-Bidu	1-6	11	363	33
Kaso-Manso	1-8	14	649	46
Ebbisa	1-6	13	568	44
Lobocha	1-6	12	256	21
Alloshe	1-6	10	263	26
Misira	1-8	13	574	44
Dambal	1-6	13	493	38
Nake-Nagawo	1-8	12	439	37

In none of the schools the pupil-teacher ratio is equal to the standard set by the national policy. However, three of the schools, two complete primary schools and one school having grades 1-6 have the ratios approaching the national standard (see Table 2). Six of the eight schools have a better teacher utilization as compared to the recent(1989 E.C)

national and regional primary school averages, which were 1:30 and 1:24 respectively (MOE, 1998; OEB, 1989 E.C.).

By rural Ethiopia standard, it can be said that there is efficient utilization of teachers except two schools which have a pupil-teacher ratio of about and below half of the ratio proposed by the MOE.

Another index used to assess the extent of utilization of the teaching force is the teaching load of teachers per week.

3.2.2 Teachers' Teaching Load

All the teachers teaching in each of the sample schools will not have equal teaching loads, at least for three reasons. First, it has been observed in the surveyed schools that, the instructional system of the grades of the first cycle of primary school (grades 1-4) is self-contained classroom system. Subjects taught at this grade level are of two types: academic subjects and aesthetics. This means there are two teachers teaching one class in the self-contained classroom, one teaching academic subjects while the other teaching aesthetics. The teacher who teaches academic subjects will have more teaching load than the one who teaches

aesthetics. Secondly, since all the sample schools teach upto grade six or eight, those teachers who teach beyond grade four will have different teaching loads from those teachers who teach in the self-contained classrooms. Thirdly, according to the information obtained from school directors, there are some teachers, in almost all schools, who can not speak and teach in Oromo Language, and they teach Amharic and English Languages. As a result these teachers have small teaching load per week.

Because of these reasons, the average teaching load in each school will not be a good indicator of the actual teaching load per a teacher.

Table 3. Teachers Teaching Load per week (second semester 1991 E.C.)

Teaching lead (periods) per week	Number of teachers	
	freq	%
less than 10 periods	15	20
10 to 15 periods	4	5.3
16 to 20 periods	5	6.7
21 to 25 periods	21	28
more than 25 periods	30	40
Total	75	100

The large proportion of the teachers (40%) have a teaching load of more than twenty -five periods per week. These are probably the teachers who teach academic subjects in the self-contained classrooms. A significant proportion of the teachers (28%) also have a relatively higher teaching load, twenty-one to twenty-five periods per week. On the contrary, some (20 %) of the teachers have the least teaching load (less than ten periods per week) and they could be those

teachers who teach aesthetics in the self-contained classrooms and the teachers who can not teach in Oromo Language due to Language problem.

The overall average teaching load per a teacher is twenty-one periods per week which is a little lower than the average for Oromia in 1990 E.C. which was 1:22. In general, about 32% of the teachers have a teaching load lower than the calculated average for all teachers. Therefore, most teachers, especially those who have less than ten teaching loads per week are underutilised.

3.2.3. Pupil-Classroom Ratio (PCR)

The average number of pupils per a classroom is an important indicator of rough class size in a school (MOE, 1997:15). It is used to assess the efficiency of classroom utilization.

Except one school in Gololcha-Gasara woreda, that is Dambal, which has reported of operating with double shift (two different groups of students in two sessions), the rest schools have indicated that they teach full-day. In these schools, it means that, there is no high student population

which creates pressure on the available classrooms to operate with double shift.

Table 4. Pupil-classroom Ratios

School	Approximate distance from town (in kms)	No. of students	No. of classrooms	Student classroom ratio
Ela-Bidu	5	363	7	52
Kaso-Manso	10	649	10	65
Ebbisa	5	568	8	71
Lobocha	10	256	6	43
Alloshe	5	263	6	44
Misira	10	574	10	57
Dambal	5	493	10	49
Nake-Nagawo	10	439	8	55

The pupil-classroom ratio of most schools is unexpectedly high, which will be comparable with urban schools. Five of the eight schools have a ratio more than the class size set by the MOE (that is 1:50). These are the three complete primary schools (having grades 1-8) and two schools having grades 1-6. It means that in these schools, there are grades which have class sizes above the national standard. This condition of high class-size seems more serious specially in the case of Ebbisa school (in Ginnir Woreda). This school and Ela-Bidu

(in Agarfa woreda) are the only two schools that have high pupil-classroom ratio being located at a distance of five kms from urban centres.

3.3 Assessment of the Status of Household Demand for Schooling

A good indicator of the level of school participation is the gross enrollment ratio (GER). Due to the lack of school-age population data at the level of consideration that is peasant association, GER at this level could not be analysed. Instead each school's enrollment growth rate was used to assess the trend of the demand for schooling. In addition to this, annual growth rate of new entrants to first grade and drop-out rate (both at school level) were also analysed to assess the status of demand for schooling.

Table 5. Enrollment Growth Rate of Grade 1-4 students (1989-1991 E.C)

	1989-1990			1990-1991		
School	M	F	T	M	F	T
Ela-Bidu	24.0	13.2	19.9	-21.2	-3.1	-14.6
Kaso-Manso	30.9	10.0	22.6	5.0	22.3	10.8
Ebbisa	2.1	-28.2	-7.0	14.1	38.0	19.6
Lobocha	-35.1	-18.1	-30.2	24.2	88.8	46.2
Alloshe	46.3	36.3	41.4	18.8	-17.7	1.5
Missira	7.0	49.2	18.9	21.94	13.0	18.4
Dambal	-15.9	-1.7	-10.7	2.3	41.9	18.1

N.B One school did not have complete data for three years and not included.

Source: calculated from directors questionnaires.

Some four schools had high total enrollment growth rate of 18.9 and above from 1989 to 1990 E.C. (Table 5). But only two of these schools have shown significant enrollment growth rate from 1990 to 1991 E.C.. On the other hand, all schools which had a decrease of enrollment growth rate from 1989 to 1990 had seen increases from 1990 to 1991. The increment is especially impressive in the case of Lobocha school which has

scored high total enrollment growth rate (46.2%) in general and very high female enrollment growth rate (88.8%) in particular.

Enrollment growth rate for three years given on Table 5 in general shows that, except two schools (Kaso-Manso and Misira) which had continuous increment of enrollment growth rate, the rest schools have experienced fluctuations in the number of students enrolled, which could be the result of either the expansion and contraction in the demand for schooling in the areas served by each school or demographic changes in the number of school-age population due to natural population growth (birth and death rates).

To clearly see what the enrollment of girls looks like through these years, the percentage of girls enrollment to the total enrollment for two years is given on Table 6.

Table 6 Girls as a percentage of total Enrollment (1989-1991 E.C.)

School	1989	1991
Ela-Bidu	38.4	41.2
Kaso-Manso	39.6	39.2
Ebbisa	30.2	26.8
Lobocha	28.9	43.9
Alloshe	48.9	38.1
Misira	28.3	33.8
Dambal	36.2	47.9
Nake-Nagawo	n.a	33.5

Source : School directors questionnaire

All schools had male dominated enrollment in both years, although Alloshe in 1989 E.C and Dambal in 1991 E.C. had girls' enrollment approaching fifty-percent of the total enrollment (see Table 6).

Comparison of the proportion of female students as a percentage of total enrollment in 1989 Vs 1991 shows that the enrollment of girls has increased in four schools, while in three of the schools decrease of female students has been observed. On average there is an increase of female students by 2.9 % in 1991 E.C. as compared to 1989 E.C. That means

there was more increase than decrease in the number of female students from 1989 to 1991 E.C.

The actual number of students already enrolled to school is a partial indicator of the demand the community has for schooling (CSAE, 1996). The number of new entrants to grade one in each year can better indicate the immediate decision of the households for schooling or their demand for schooling. For this reason, the number of new entrants to grade one in each of the schools for the recent four years is given on Table 7.

Table 7. Number of New Entrants to Grade One by sex (1988- 1991 E.C).

	1988			1989			1990			1991		
School	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Ela-Bidu	59	37	96	39	23	62	57	25	82	36	26	62
Kaso-Manso	40	28	68	52	40	92	71	54	125	100	51	151
Ebbisa	63	18	81	70	60	130	67	20	87	80	11	91
Lobocha	37	20	57	38	11	49	29	15	44	23	21	44
Alloshe	33	33	66	29	21	50	44	36	80	31	18	49
Misira	35	20	55	40	20	60	60	35	95	43	26	69
Dambal	n.a	n.a	-	n.a	n.a	-	34	31	65	63	65	128

Source: School directors' questionnaires

A continuous fluctuation in the number of new entrants was observed in almost all schools, but Kaso-Manso school in Agarfa woreda is the only school which has experienced continuously high increase of new entrants year after year. On the contrary, Lobocha school in Ginnir woreda has experienced continuous decrease of new entrants.

Comparing new enrollment by sex, except one school that is Dambal, in which the number of female new entrants exceeded that of male by 3.2% in 1991 E.C. The number of new entrant females uniformly lags behind males in all schools.

Other than enrollment, households' demand for schooling can be judged by the decision they make regarding the already enrolled child. While drawing a child from school reflects low household demand for schooling, persistance shows high demand. According to the report of some studies (CSAE, 1996; PHRD,1996), in addition to low enrollment, dropout is another main educational problem in rural Ethiopia. The study of CSAE (1996:213), for example, has indicated that, nearly half the number of children who enroll in grade one do not continue to grade two. It has been also found out that female students are more likely to drop-out than male students.

Table 8. Drop-out Rate of Grade 1-4 Students by Sex (1989 and 1990 E.C.)

	1989			1990		
School	M	F	T	M	F	T
Ela-Bidu	10.5	14.4	12.0	11.5	10.6	11.1
Kaso-Manso	16.0	20.0	17.6	15.0	25.6	18.7
Ebbisa	11.7	25.2	15.8	10.2	40.8	17.3
Lobocha	11.1	55.5	20.0	12.8	25.0	16.9
Alloshe	13.0	13.6	13.3	22.7	20.0	21.4
Misira	22.9	37.3	27.0	29.1	25.0	20.5
Dambal	12.4	23.6	16.5	4.1	8.0	5.6

Source: Calculated from the data obtained from schoo directors; questionnaire.

In general, drop-out rate for both sexes together and separately is high in all schools (exceeds 10%), but Dambal school has experienced drastic decrease of drop-out rate from 16.5% to 5.6% from 1989 to 1990 E.C.

Comparison of drop-out rates for 1989 and 1990 E.C. reveals no uniform pattern of decreasing or increasing. But in agreement with the drop-out trend in the country found by other research findings, the drop-out rate for female is generally higher than for male, except Ela-Bidu and Alloshe schools which had high male drop-out rate in 1990 E.C. .Some schools have registered exceptionally high drop-out rate for females this includes Lobocha (55.5%) in 1989 and Ebbisa (40.8%)in 1990 E.C.

The high drop-out of females could be due to the high demand for female labor at home for the need for marriage. The fact that more females than males drop-out from school also means families prefer more years of schooling for their sons than daughters.

Table 9. Average Drop-out Rate by Grade and Sex (1989 and 1990 E.C)

	Grade 1			Grade 2			Grade 3			Grade 4		
Year	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1989	19.3	30.8	23.3	11.8	21.1	15.0	12.5	21.5	15.9	12.5	15.7	17.4
1990	19.3	29.3	22.5	12.7	24.8	16.5	13.1	19.3	15.2	11.0	14.4	12.3

Source : calculated from the data obtained from directors questionnaire

Drop-out rate analysis through grades indicates that there is a decrease of drop-out for both sexes with increasing grade level. The highest drop-out rate in both years or observed in grade one (see table 9) for both sexes together and separately. This means, the more education the child gets, the higher her/his chance of persistence in school.

Analysis of enrollment growth rates, new entrants and drop-out rate has indicated that the demand for schooling in the areas covered by this study is generally low. this has been depicted by low and fluctuating enrollment growth rates and new entrants, and low persistence (high drop-out rate).

It has been also found out from the fore-going sex wise discussion that female children are the most deprived interms of school participation. They have low school enrollment and persistence. Identifying other characteristics (backgrounds) of the children who are mostly deprived of schooling opportunity is the focus of the next discussion.

3.4 Background of the Children who mostly Deprived of Schooling Opportunity

This, however, also requires identifying the factors that have resulted in the disparity in access to schooling. The survey of the children who mostly lack schooling opportunity is made with respect to such characteristics as gender, age, language group, religion and family social and economic status. This was done by comparing the backgrounds of the households who have and do not have school-attending children with respect to these characteristics.

3.4.1 Gender

It has been identified in the preceding discussion on the analysis of enrollment growth rate and drop-out rate that females in general have low school participation. A look at the proportion of female students as a perce ntage of total sample students also shows the same condition. (see Table 10.)

Table 10. Percentage of female students to total sample Students

School	M	F	T	% of female to total
Ela-Bidu	38	26	64	40.6
Kaso-Manso	30	18	48	37.5
Ebbisa	49	22	71	31.0
Lobocha	30	19	49	38.8
Alloshe	36	22	58	38.0
Misira	39	16	55	29.1
Dambal	44	42	86	48.8
Nake Nagawo	41	25	66	37.9
Total	307	190	497	38.2

The total number of female students who persisted in school and reached grade four is a little higher than one-third of the total sample students (see Table 13). A closer look at the number of female students in individual school also depicts the same picture. Only Dambal school has the number of female students approaching that of male.

Since similarly low number of female new entrants has been observed in all schools, it is possible to say that females are generally under-represented in school participation.

3.4.2 Age

In conformity with the general trend of the age of enrollment in rural schools of Ethiopia, the greater proportion of sample students (80 %) are older for their grade level (grade four).

Table 11. Age of Sample Students by Sex

	AGE					
	Less than 10 yrs		10 years		Greater than 10 yrs	
Sex	feeq	%	freq	%	freq	%
Male	16	64.0	26	40.6	24.6	68.9
Female	9	36.0	38	59.4	11.1	31.1
Total	25	100.00	64	100.00	357	100.00

Out of 446 sample students, the highest majority that is 357 (80 %) are older for their grade. Those who are appropriate for their grade are only sixty-four (14.4%), and the remaining twenty-five (5.6%) are younger for their grade. This shows that, there is a higher probability for older children than younger ones to enroll to school.

Sex-wise analysis of the age of students indicates that, of the over-aged and under-aged students, males were the majority (68.9 and 64 percents respectively). While females exceed males in the case of the appropriate age group students. The prevalence of more over-aged boys than girls could be the result of low enrollment and /or high drop-out of girls of this age either for high labor demand at home and /or marriage. On the other hand, the under-representation of younger girls might be the result of high labor contribution of younger girls than boys. Younger girls can help the household in caring younger children, drawing water and collecting fuel. But the labor contribution of boys of this age could not be more than tending cattle, and will have higher chance of being sent to school.

Among the girls, younger ones seem to have higher chance of enrollment and persistence than older ones. This could be because , as noted earlier, older girls have higher labor contribution for the family and their marriage chance is also higher than younger girls. On the other hand, country to expectation, there does not seem to exist a higher chance for younger boys than older ones to enroll to school, as older boys are expected to have higher labor contribution for the household.

3.4.3 Language Group

To identify children of which language group are mostly deprived of schooling opportunity in the areas of study, it seems reasonable to know the dominant language spoken among the inhabitants using the sample schools. Based on the representative sample household heads identified from the PAs that use the schools, it is possible to describe the dominant language group in the areas of study.

Table 12. Comparison of the proportion of Household Heads and Students by Mother Tongue

	HH heads		Students	
	freq	%	freq	%
Amharic	21	8.4	51	11.4
Oromo Language	229	91.6	395	88.6
Total	250	100.00	446	100.00

As can be seen from Table 12, there are more children from the households who speak Amharic as their mother tongue attending school than the households who speak Oromo Language as their first language when ccompared with the proportion of household heads sby mother tongue. This has been indicated by the fact that, the proportion of the households who speak Oromo Language

as their first language is (91.6%) while the proportion of students from this language group is (88.6%), while the households who speak Amharic as their first language is (8.4%) and the proportion of students from this language is (11.4%).

This implies that, there are more children from the households who speak Oromo Language as their mother tongue who do not attend school than the children from Amharic mother tongue households. In other words, Oromo Language speaker households' children are the relatively schooling-deprived groups.

3.4.4. Religion

Investigation of the religion of the communities in the study areas is beyond the scope of this study. Any way from the representative sample households it is possible to infer the dominant religion in the areas of study.

Table 13. Comparison of the proportion of Households and Students by Religion.

	HH heads		Students	
Religion	freq	%	freq	%
Christian	113	45.2	212	47.5
Islam	137	54.8	234	52.5
Total	250	100.00	446	100.00

From table 13, it is seen that, there are more Muslim households than Christians and the same is true with the students. But households of each religion are not represented by equal proportion of students from each religion. Muslim households exceed Christians by 9.6% but Muslim students are greater than Christian students by only 5.0%. This means, there are more Christian children than Muslim children attending school , as compared to the proportion of the households by each religion. Therefore, children from Islam households are the ones who relatively lack access to schooling opportunity (deprived of schooling).

It is also very interesting to see sex-wise school participation of children from each religion, and Table 14 shows this.

Table 14. Students' Religion by Sex

	Christians		Islam	
Sex	freq	%	freq	%
Male	119	56.1	170	72.6
Female	93	43.9	64	27.4
Total	212	100.00	234	100.00

As can be observed from Table 14,in general, there are more males attending school than females. Religion-wise comparision of females shows that there are more Christian females than Islam females attending school. That is, out of the Christian students, 43.9% were females, while the proportion of females from Muslim students was only 27.4%.

Studies in the Islam Arab countries have indicated that, the social role of women is to be prepared for marriage and home life, because Muslims have a strong concern for the modesty and safety of girls and women (Finn, Dulberg and Reis; Smok and Youssef, both cited in King and Hill, 1993:151). Because of this, in these countries females are enforced to be at home, and this reduces their chance of school attendance. In this regard, the finding of this study is in complete agreement with the general trend in Arab Islam Countries.

It has been also reported by some researchers who have studied the schooling preference of Muslim families in these Islam Arab countries that, religious education is preferred to secular education. On the basis of these finding, some quest+ions related to the schooling preference of their childr en have been forwarded for Muslim household heads. One of the questions was"which school do you prefer your child to attend,

religious (Koran)school or government school ?" In responding to this question, there was a marked difference between the responses of the Muslim household heads having and not having schooling children. While about (52%) of the Muslim household heads having no schooling children have indicated their preference for religious (Koran)school, only about 4% of the Muslim household heads having schooling children said so (see Table 15).

Table 15. Comparison of Schooling Preference of Muslim Household Heads Having and Not Having schooling Children.

	Muslim HH heads having schooling children		Muslim HH heads having no schooling children	
School preferred	freq	%	freq	%
Government	46	95.8	26	48.1
Koran	2	4.2	28	51.9
Total	48	100.0	54	100.0

The preference for government school to Koran school by muslim household heads having schooling children might be because they have already enrolled their children to this school, or already decided their schooling preference. But in the case of the household heads having no schooling children, it seems that they are just deciding their schooling

preference according to their religion, or else they do not value government school as that of religious school, and these households are expected to enroll their children to religious school (if they enroll) than government school. Hence, it is reasonable to state that Koran schooling is competing with government schools in the schooling opportunity of Muslim children.

Tracing back of the pre-government school schooling background of Muslim students can also give a good picture of the extent to which Muslim households value religious education more than secular education in the areas of study.

Table 16. Schools Attended by Students Before Enrolling to Government School

	Students	
School attended	freq	%
None	157	35.2
Literacy Program	28	6.4
Priest School	40	8.9
Koran School	221	49.5
Total	446	100.0

About half of the sample students (i.e. 49.5%) have reported of attending Koran school before enrolling to

government school (see Table 16). This is about (94.4%) of the Muslim students. Although it is hard to believe this much proportion of Muslim students have attended Koran school, it is possible to accept that majority of the Muslim students have attended religious (Koran)school some time before enrolling to government school. Similar finding was reported by USAID (1994:72),if not this much exaggerated, in that, of the students surveyed in four zones covered by the study, the students of Bale are the highest in their attendance of religious or Koran schooling (36% of the 443 students in Bale).

In the present study, of 94.4 % of the Muslim students reported of attending Koran school before enrolling to government school, 74.7 % were males.

In addition to their past schooling background, Muslim students were also asked if they were attending other school besides government school, and (18.6%) of them have indicated that they are attending Koran school. This has been confirmed by some teachers when they give the attendance of some Muslim students in Koran school as a cause for tardiness and drop-out of students.

3.4.5 Family Socio-economic Status

Earlier studies have indicated that, measuring the social and economic status of rural households in Africa is a discouraging task (USAID, 1994:68). Furthermore, lack of range and variation interms of occupation tend to make comparisons regarding social status difficult. In addition, previous research experiences have highlighted the difficulty in obtaining cooperation on even the most evident measures of household wealth.

3.4.5.1. Family Economic Background

In a situation where there is no constant monthly income, the main wealth in rural societies is the domestic animals they own. As indicated in the limitation part of this study, the households were not voluntary to give the number of domestic animals they own, and even their types in some instances. As a result, other weak indicators of the level of family wealth were used. These were: house roof type, engagement of household heads in trading activities in addition to farming, and size of farm land owned.Only insignificant proportion of the households(11.5%)have reported of having tin-roof house. Out of this, only 13% were

households having at least one schooling child. This means that, there is no that much income difference between the majority households which will enable them to build tin-roof houses, and owning of tin-roof house has not helped to indicate difference in income and hence difference in schooling between the households.

According to some local informants, most peasants in the areas of study accomplish trading activity during the seasons of no agricultural activity, and these households are relatively better off the households who do not trade, economically.

To know whether there was this kind of income in the family or not, household heads having schooling and non-schooling children were asked if they trade certain items during the time they are free of agricultural activities. A significant proportion of the households who have at least one schooling child (i.e. 33.8 %) have indicated that they perform buying and selling of certain items in their local market some time in the year , while only 12.7% of the household heads who do not have schooling child reported so. But from both groups of household heads, only 4.2% have indicated their occupation to be agriculture and trading. This implies that eventhough

they earn some amount of income from the trading they carry out , most household heads do not consider it as their main occupation. In general, although other additional factors might have contributed for sending their children to school, it is possible to conclude at this point that, those households who accomplish trading in addition to agriculture (farming and cattle raring)have relatively good income. As a result, they are in a good position to send their children to school. This indicates the positive relationship between family wealth and household education consumption.

As per the information obtained from some PAs administrative committee members, farm land size ownership in the areas of study is based on the number of family members, that is large families will have large farm land and vice-versa. This means, unless there is a difference in the use of fertilizer, method of farming and difference in the natural fertility of the land, which will result in difference in yield and then family income, there will be no difference in income obtained from crop cultivation as a result of farmland ownership.

In addition to the formal farm land distributed by the PAs, according to these informants, some capable farmers rent farm lands from poor farmers which will enrich their income. Those farmers who have this type of additional farm land are expected to have better wealth and send their children to school than the others who do not have this type of farm-land. But none of the household has reported of owning this kind of farm land probably because they consider it as illegal land ownership.

3.4.5.2. Parents' Educational Level

It has been confirmed by different research findings that, in general, educated families tend to value education and hence send their children to school, more than an uneducated families.

The educational status of the households in this study is generally low (see Table 17).

Table 17. Educational Level of Household Heads

	HH heads of Schooling Children		HH heads of non-schooling children		HH heads of dropped out children		Total (HH heads three groups))	
Educational Status of HH heads	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
Illiterate	42	42	54	54	35	70	131	52.4
Literate	16	16	18	18	1	2	35	14.0
Grade 1 to 4	21	21	16	16	8	16	45	18.0
Grade 5 to 8	15	15	9	9	4	8	28	11.2
Grade 9 and above	6	6	3	3	2	4	11	4.4
Total	100	100	100	100	50	100	250	100.00

More than half (that is 52.4%) of the total household heads have not attended any form of schooling and as a result they are illiterates (cannot read and write). There is a difference, however, in the proportion of illiterates between household heads having and not having schooling children (42% and 54% respectively). That is, there were more illiterates in the case of the household heads having no-schooling child.

The number of household heads who have attended school for one and more years also differ in the two groups of household heads. There were more household heads who have attended schooling for one year and above from household heads having schooling children (42%) than from the household heads having no-schooling child (28%), (see Table 17).

Pearson's correlation coefficient calculated separately for the two groups of household heads between the household heads' years of schooling and household education consumption indicates the existance of moderate positive relation between the two.

Table 18. Summary of Pearson's Correlation Coefficient Between Household Heads'Educational Level and Family Educational Consumption

	Household Heads having schooling children	Household Heads having no schooling children
R	0.2684	0.2893

Although the educational attainment of most of the household heads is generally low for pearson's correlation

coefficient to predict the influence of family (household head)educational level on the chance of schooling of their children, from R value obtained, it is possible to forward some conclusions.

There seems to be a limited probability for the child from educated family (household heads) to attend school than for the child from an uneducated family. Although not shown by this study, it is also expected that the longer the years of schooling of the household head, the longer the child's years of schooling will be. This is because, according to some studies (PHRD,1996), families who have more years of schooling will value education more than the families who have few years of schooling.

3.4.5.3 Number of children in the Family

To see the impact of the number of children in the family on the probability of parents sending their children to school, separate pearson's correlation efficient was calculated for households having and not having schooling children between the number of children in the household and the family educational consumption, that is the aggregate number of years children of the household attended school.

Table 19. Summary of Pearson's Correlation Coefficient Between the Number of Children in the Household and Households Educational Consumption.

	HH heads having schooling children	HH heads having no-schooling children
R	0.0139	0.0326

Very weak or insignificant positive correlation has been found between the number of children in the household and household educational consumption in both groups of household heads. This means, as the number of children in the household increases, so does the educational consumption of the households,but negligible. In other words, as the number of children in a household increases, there is a very rare likelihood that the number of years the children in a household have attended schooling increases.

The existance of insignificant relation between the number of children in the family and household's educational consumption, can be attributed to two factors. First, large family size in the rural subsistance society may result in

much sever shortage of money for purchasing cloths and school materials for schooling even a single child. Secondly, most households having large number of children have low income, and as a result every child in a household may be required to engage in different income generating tasks rather than attending school.

3.5 Factors Influencing the Demand of the Households for Schooling

It is difficult and practically impossible to exhaust all the factors that are responsible for influencing the demand for schooling. Because it encompasses all the factors related to household and individual-child characteristics, school conditions, and social and cultural conditions of the society. In this study, an attempt has been made to trace only some of the most significant household factors that are expected to affect household's demand for schooling in the research area.

3.5.1 Direct and Indirect Costs of Schooling

In order to know the returns (benefits) the households expect from their schooling children, household heads having schooling children were asked what benefit(s) they expect from their schooling children. As might be expected, economic

return was given by most household heads (61%), as the main reason for sending their children to school (see Table 20).More specifically, they have indicated that they expect their schooling children to enjoy employment opportunity after completing schooling (if that is possible).

Table 20. Reasons for Households for Enrolling their children to school.

	HH heads number	
reasonsfor enrolling	freq	%
employment	61	61
learn reading and writing	10	10
know about the world	13	13
to be a good person	13	13
other	3	3
Total	100	100

According to Gould (1993:18), education is an investment in human capital with long-term benefits both to the individual who is educated and to the public at large. Describing parents' decision pattern in schooling, he states,"parents

decide to bear the cost of schooling their children if they perceive that the returns from schooling (such as higher income in the future, a more productive household overall, or greater prestige) justify the expense." In the finding of this study too, expectation of future benefit in the form of increased life-time earning, i.e. employment, is the main reason behind the parents for sending children to school.

Contrary to other research findings, only 10% of the household heads gave the learning of reading and writing as their main reason for schooling their children. In this particular finding it seems that, the household heads might have not considered the learning of reading and writing as the main goal of schooling rather which comes in the way of attaining the other mainly cited benefit.

In order to compare the factors that induce households 'to send' and 'not to send' their children to school, household heads having no schooling child were asked why they did not send their children to school.

Table 21. Reasons for Households for Not Enrolling Children to School

	Household Heads	
reasons for not enrolling	freq	%
child labor	63	63
economic problem	29	29
other	8	8
Total	100	100

The overriding majority of the household heads (63%), have responded the need for child labor as the main reason for not enrolling their children to school. They have indicated that, boys are required for farm activities and tending cattle, while girls for home duties. Similar finding was reported by the household schooling demand study conducted by PHRD(1996). Strengthening this finding, Psacharopoulos and Woodhall(1991) have explained that, "... in an economy dominated by agriculture, the most important cost of schooling may be the opportunity cost of a child's time."

Economic problem is the second reason indicated by 29% of the household heads as a major factor of non-enrollment. They have explained the shortage of money to purchase cloths and school materials as well as inability to feed as their hindrance for schooling their children.

The remaining household heads have described such factors as distance of school illness of parents and /or children, marriage and fear of harassment on the way to school as their main reasons for not sending their children to school.

Teachers were also asked to rank the reasons that are thought to affect school enrollment of boys and girls separately. The average rank order given by all teachers is given on Table 22.

Table 22 All Teachers Average Rank Order of the Factors Affecting Parents Not to Send Their Sons and Daughters to School.

Reasons	Average Rank Order for Boys	Average Rank Order for Girls
A. inability to pay school expenses	2.3	2.4
B. lackof knowledge of the value of education	5.3	6.1
C. the need for child labor	1.4	1.8
D. lack of school places	5.6	5.2
E. fear of lack of employment opportunity	3.1	2.9
G. disinterest in language of instruction	6.9	6.4
G.long distance to school	7.4	4.6
H. others, if any	7.8	5.9

Based on the average rank order of all teachers, there is no difference in the factors given to constrain the school enrollment of boys and girls (see Table 22). The need for child labor, economic problem and fear of lack of employment opportunity were the three reasons ranked high as the reasons for parents not to send children of both sexes to school. Long

distance to school was significantly ranked for girls, that is fourth, while it was not seen as having significant contribution for boys' enrollment , and hence ranked seventh.

The first two reasons (child labor and economic problem) were similarly listed by most school directors as hindrances for school participation. Future employment opportunity was the third common factor given for boys' non-enrollment. In the case of girls, marriage was cited as the third main reason.

In the responses given by the household heads having no schooling children to the question "when do you send your child/children to school? or what do you want to be fulfilled to send your children to school?" indirect and direct costs of schooling were still the commonly stated ones. Specifically, most of the respondents have replied that they will send their children to school if they obtain one who would help them in agricultural activities and home duties, and if their economic condition improved (they get good harvest). Some household heads have also indicated that they will enroll their children to school if the duration students stay at school is reduced to half a day. In most rural schools of Bale where the number of students is low, students attend school for two sessions: from

8:00 to 12:00 in the morning and from 7:00 to 8:30 in the afternoon. This school time has been mentioned also by the household heads of schooling and dropped-out children as a problem they have faced in schooling their children, in that their schooling children could not help them in household duties because of this long duration they stay at school.

Teachers and school directors have also confirmed this long school time as a reason for students to drop-out from school and as the main complaint of some parents of schooling children.

3.5.2 School Distance

To see how far school distance has influenced school enrollment, the time taken to reach the nearest school from the residence of household heads having no-schooling child and the time taken for students to reach school from their residence have been compared (see Table 23).

Table 23 Time taken to Arrive the Nearest School from the Residence of Household Heads having No schooling child and Students to reach school (single trip)

	Household Heads having no schooling child		Students	
Time taken to reach school	freq	%	freq	%
less than 30 min.	33	33	313	70.2
30 min to 1 hr	28	28	108	25.2
1 hr to 1 1/2 hr	30	30	25	5.6
1 1/2 hr to 2 hrs	7	7	0	0
more than 2 hrs	2	2	0	0
Total	100	100	446	100

Studies have demonstrated that distance from school is a critical factor in determining whether or not children, especially girls attend school(Lockheed and others,1991).

Observation of the distance of the residence of sample students of this study from school indicates the same reality. That is, there were more students residing near school than those who reside far away from school, i.e. most of the students (70.2%) reside at a distance of less than thirty

minutes travel time from school (see Table 23). As the travel time between school and students' home increased to between thirty minutes and one hour, the proportion of children attending school dropped to 25.2%. Similar decrease in the number of students was observed as the distance between school and their home increase successively, until no school attending child exists beyond a travel time of more than one and half an hour.

While observing the distance of the homes of the household heads having no schooling child from school, most of them reside at a travel distance of more than thirty minutes from school. A distance of more than thirty minutes (one hour in double trip) is naturally difficult for a child of primary school-age, especially in the rugged terrian of the research areas. It is therefore reasonable to say in this case that, majority of the households having no schooling child have not sent their children to school due to school distance, although most households have not indicated this factor as a reason for not enrolling their children to school.

Factors Related to Drop-out

In an attempt made to increase primary school participation, the first step (measure) to be taken should be identifying the factors that are responsible for the drop-out of children from school, to take corrective mechanisms. In the present study, in doing so, several questions related to direct and indirect costs of schooling were raised for household heads of dropped-out children regarding the reasons that have obliged them to draw their children from school.

Similar to the factors cited for non-enrollment, opportunity (indirect) and direct costs were once again the two main reasons frequently mentioned by the household heads for drawing-out their children from school. They have explained that, they have pulled their son or daughter from school because they did not have one who would help them in agricultural activities and home duties.

An equally frequent reason mentioned for drawing-out their children from school was lack of money to buy cloths and school materials. Some household heads have specifically cited "harvest was not so good" and "cattle have been died of

epidemics" as the causes for dropping-out their children from school, and as a result of these they have indicated that they were not in a position to supply them even with food.

Few household heads, however, described marriage, immaturity of the child, and fear of lack of employment prospect after school completion as the reasons for drawing their children from school.

Teachers were also asked to rank the reasons thought to be responsible for students' drop-out , and their average rank order is given on Table 24.

for girls' drop-out. The other highly ranked causes for boys drop-out were lack of money to support schooling and lack of employment prospect; while for girls the need for child labor and economic problem were the second and third highly ranked reasons of drop-out.

School directors have mentioned similar reasons for students drop-out from school. In addition, they have indicated that forced marriage (abduction) for girls and long school time for both sexes are causes for school drop-out .

Household heads of dropped-out children were asked to comment what they want to be fulfilled to re-enroll their dropped -out children. Their responses were again almost similar to the responses given to similar question raised for household heads having no schooling child. They have explained that, they will change their mind to school their children if they find one who would support them in different household duties for which they want the labor of the schooling child. Others have cited the improvement of the economic condition of the family as a prerequisite for returning their children back to school. Still the remaining have indicated that they will

re-enroll their children, if school time becomes half a day so that the children can help them in the other shift.

3.5.3 Language of Instruction

The widely spoken language in the areas of study has been found out to be Oromo Language, which is also the medium of instruction at the educational level considered. So, the households are expected to be in agreement with the language of instruction. In order to be sure of this analogy, household heads of schooling and non-schooling children were asked about their attitude toward the language of instruction stated as "how do you see Oromo Language being the language of instruction?"

Table 25 Attitude of Household Heads Toward the main Language of Instruction

	HH heads of Schooling Children		HH heads of non-schooling children		Total	
Attitude	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
like	95	95	95	95	190	95.0
do not like	2	2	5	5	7	3.5
indifferent	3	3	0	0	3	1.5
Total	100	100	100	100	200	100.0

The great majority of household heads (from both groups) 95% each have expressed their agreement with the main medium of instruction, that is Oromo Language (see Table 25). It seems reasonable to observe this much high agreement with the language of instruction as the bulk mjaority of the population of the survey areas have indicated the language of instruction to be their mother tongue. The small proportion who expressed "do not like" and "indifferent" could be the speakers of the language other than the language of instruction (that is Amharic). Even these households are exepected to communicate in Oromo Language, as it is the widely spoken language in the survey areas.

Since equal proportion of household heads (95%), from both groups, have indicated their agreement with the language of instruction, it is possible to say that the demand the households of non-schooling children have for schooling is not affected by the language of instruction.

3.6. Factors contributing for Difference in Schooling Between Sexes

To find out the decision basis of the households for determining the child of which sex to send to school, several questions related to the labor contribution of children of both sexes to the household, and the expected benefit (return) from the schooling of children of both sexes, have been raised for households during the interview.

The first question raised for household heads of non-schooling children in connection with the sex of the child most parents prefer to enroll to school was, "if conditions permit, a child/children of which sex do you want to enroll to school?" In responding to this question, although most household heads (81%) have indicated their aspiration for schooling children of both sexes, in the case of the remaining household heads, there were more who have indicated preference for schooling boys than that of girls (see table 26).

Table 26: Preference of Household Heads Having No schooling child for the child of which sex to send to school

	HH heads having no schooling child	
Child's sex	freq	%
Male	13	13
Female	3	3
Both	81	81
None	3	3
Total	100	100

The preference of more household heads for schooling boys to the schooling of girls has been shown by 13% as opposed to the contrary, which was only 3%. This could be because girls will marry and leave their parents to live with their husbands' and the benefit of their schooling will go to their husbands' parents. Surprisingly, an equal proportion of household heads to those who indicated preference for the schooling of girls to that of boys (i.e. 3%) have indicated reluctance to school any child. These could be the household heads who consider government school as a threat to the preservation of their culture or religion, and want their children to attend religious schools.

3.6.1. Labor contribution of children by sex

Since the need for child labor was cited by most household heads as the major reason for not schooling their children, they were asked the labor contribution of a child of which sex they think is more useful to the household.

Table 27: Household Preference for Labor contribution of Children by Sex

Whose Labor contribution is more useful?	freq	%
Male child	80	32.0
Female child	22	8.8
equal	148	59.2
Total	250	100

Despite the fact that most of the household heads (59.2%) have replied the labor contribution of children of both sexes to be equal for the family, significant proportion of the household heads (32%) have indicated that the labor contribution of boys is greater than that of girls for the household (see Table 27). Boys are fit for agricultural activities than girls, and the response of household heads

in valuing the labor contribution of boys more than that of girls seems to correspond with the labor requirement for agriculture.

In the survey of household duties of non-schooling girls and boys of primary school- age (7 to 14 years), it has been observed that girls were more burdened by different tasks than boys. Girls have reported of carrying out many activities such as cleaning house, preparing food (few of them), fetching water, collecting fuel, caring small siblings, and tending cattle. While boys have mentioned of accomplishing only few tasks: tending cattle, farming (few of them) and fetching water (few of them).

Just simply from the number of tasks (duties) they accomplish, with out considering the difficulty of the task and its importance to the household, it is possible to judge that girls are the ones who have high labor contribution to the family.

3.6.2. Expected Return

It has been found out by researchers in the field that parents mostly bear the cost of schooling their children if they perceive the expected return from their education (Gould,

1993:18). Similar finding was obtained in the present study in that for most of the households, their main motive for sending their children to school was earning employment opportunity. Therefore, parents' perception of difference in the employment prospect between sexes may affect their decision of a child of which sex to enroll to school. In this regard, in order to know parents' perception of employment opportunity of educated male and female, household heads of schooling children were asked, ' a child of which sex do you think has high employment opportunity after completing school?'

Table 28: Household Heads' Perception of the employment Opportunity of Educated Males and Females.

	HH heads having schooling child	
Who has high employment opportunity?	freq	%
Male	47	47
Female	4	4
No difference	49	49
Total	100	100

According to Table 28, more than the household heads who perceive the employment opportunity of educated females to be high (4%), there are those household heads who think educated

males' employment opportunity is good or high (47%), although most household heads (49%) have indicated that there is no difference in the employment opportunity of educated males and females. This implies that, there is more fear of girls' unemployment than boys' unemployment among the household heads, and this may constrain parents' decision of sending girls to school. Similar findings was reported by UNESCO, cited in Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1991: 114). That is , limited employment possibilities for girls due to tradition leads to low demand for girls' education, but an increase in employment opportunities for women will lead to an increase in demand for education, as was demonstrated in an experimental project in Nepal.

The fact that girls marry and leave their maternal family to live with their husbands' family may also reduce parents' willingness to pay for their education. This has been surveyed, if parents consider the marriages of girls as a criterion in deciding the school enrollment of girls or not. In doing so, households of schooling children were asked to whom they think the schooling return of educated girls mostly goes to.

Table 29: Household Heads' Perception of to whom the return of educated Girls mostly Goes to.

return of schooling girls mostly goes to	HH heads of schooling children	
	freq	%
maternal parents	7	7
husband's parents	40	40
equal for both	53	53
Total	100	100

There seems to be disagreement between what majority of the household heads responded and what logically seems to be right. That is, girls are expected to live longer with their husbands' parents. Because of this, the benefits (returns) from the schooling girls will accrue largely to the family into which they are married. Seen in this perspective, it is not clear why majority of the respondents (53%) have replied the return from educated girls is equal for both parents. 40% of the respondents, however, have indicated that the return to their husbands' parents is greater (see Table 29). In this case, it is reasonable to ecpect low demand of the households for schooling their daughters.

CHAPTER FOUR

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Summary and Conclusions

The main purpose of this study was to identify the major factors that influence the demand of the household for schooling in rural Bale Zone, and it was specifically aimed at the identification of the factors that determine school enrollment and drop-out (school participation) in primary schools.

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, basic questions were raised regarding the extent to which the resources of the primary schools are utilized, the background (characteristics) of the children who mostly deprived of schooling opportunity, the major factors determining school participation in general and between sexes in particular. Question was also raised about what parents expect from the schooling of their children.

The study was carried out in eight rural primary schools that were selected through purposive sampling method and 17 peasant associations that use these schools. 250 household heads (100 household heads each from those having and not having schooling child and 50 household heads of from school dropped-out children) selected on the basis of random stratified quota and availability sampling methods; eight school directors, 98 teachers and 497 students selected based on availability and purposive sampling methods were sources of information. 50 (fifty) non-schooling primary school-age children selected by availability sampling were also additional sources of information. Household heads' and non-schooling children's interviews and teachers', directors' and students' questionnaires were the instruments used to gather information for the study.

The data obtained were analyzed using qualitative methods, percentages, correlation coefficient and average rank order. Based on the analysis made, the following major findings were obtained and conclusions drawn.

1. A significant proportion of teachers have low teaching load which indicates the under utilization of teachers in the surveyed schools.

2. There is high pupil-class room ratio which is an indication of crowdedness of the existing classrooms in some of the schools which can constrain future enrollment.

3. There is a low demand for schooling in the areas covered by this study, and this was indicated by low and fluctuating enrollment and low persistance (high drop-out). Despite the fact that some schools have seen significant enrollment growth at one time or another, there had been no continuous increase in the number of the children enrolled to all schools. There had been a continuous fluctuation, indeed, indicating lack of a uniformly increasing demand for schooling.

   3.1 Drop-out is high in all schools, and it is more severe in the lower grades than higher grades, and higher for females than males at all grade levels.

3.2 Females have low school participation (low enrollment and high drop-out) than males, which is due to low demand of the households for schooling females.

The households have been found out to have low demand for schooling females because of the following reasons:

a) Parents' perception of low employment prospect for educated females than males- The main motive of the households behind sending their children to school was identified to be for earning employment opportunity. But they have low expectation of the employment opportunity for educated females than males, and this determines their demand for schooling their daughters.

b. Marriage of girls- The fact that girls marry and leave their maternal parents to live with their husbands' parents will make the return of their schooling to accrue largely to their husbands' parents. Because of this, the households are not

willing to invest in the schooling of their female children.

In addition to the two reasons mentioned for the low demand of the households for schooling their female children, high burden of household duties on females than males has been found out to be the major factor for difference in schooling between the two sexes. The high labor contribution of females for the household seems not to be acknowledged (even not recognized) by the households. As a result, most household heads put males as if they have more labor contribution for household duties than females.

4. The highest majority of students are older for their grades. Of the over-age students, males are the majority. Younger females than older females have higher probability of enrolling to school due to their low labor contribution for the household.
5. Children from the households who speak Amhaic as their first language (mother tongue) have a relatively higher school attendance than the children from the households who speak Oromo Language as their first

language as compared to the proportion of the household by mother tongue.

6. There are more Christian children than Muslim children, in general, and much more Christian females than Muslim females, in particular, attending school. In other words, Muslim children (in general) and Muslim females (in particular) are the groups who mostly deprived of schooling opportunity.

Although it is not clear from the study whether the under-representation of Muslim children in school participation is attributed to religious (Koran) schooling or not, it has been found out that there is more preference among Musilm household heads for their children to attend Koran school than government school and there is high Koran school attendance among Muslim children. Due to this, Koran schools seem to be competing with government schools in the schooling opportunity of Muslim children.

7. Economic conditions are the major factors that determine the demand of the households for schooling. Parents send their children to school in expectation of

employment opportunity as a return for their schooling, and they do not send their children to school or draw them from school for the need of child labor and due to lack of enough money to purchase school materials .

In connection with the need for child labor, long school time (full day schooling) in the surveyed schools seems to largely have influenced the schooling decision of most household heads in that it has enforced them to pull their children from school and /or not to enroll to school, because of the short time available for the children to support them in household duties.

8. Household heads' educational attainment has weak positive relation with family educational consumption. In the households where by household heads accomplish trading in addition to agriculture, there is a higher probability for children to attend school than in the households who do not, which indicates the positive contribution of family income for school participation. It has been also found out that, the distance of the residence of household heads from school is an important factor determining school attendance. However, most

household heads have not indicated it as a cause for not enrolling their children to school.

4.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the findings obtained and conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are made.

1. In general, there is a pressure on the existing classrooms of most of the schools which can constrain future enrollements. Therefore,additional enrollmentin these schools must be preceded by the construction of some more classrooms or the expansion of the existing classrooms. Operating with double shift is also the other potential alternative to be exploited as only one school has reported of operating with double shift.
2. There seems to exist trade off on the length of the time students stay at school.Except it burdens teachers since they teach for two sessions,long school time(full day teaching)has the benefit of giving good schooling for students.On the other hand,long school time will create high opportunity cost on the part of the students'time,

because the need for child labor is the single most important factor for low school enrollment and high drop-out in rural Ethiopia in general, and the study area in particular. Therefore, the reduction of the time students stay at school to only one session inorder that they can help their parents in home duties in the second session seems to be the appropriate measure to retain those children who have already enrolled to school and to make parents send their children to school. This is because, at the present low level of primary school participation in Ethiopia, priority should be given for raising school participation, and imparting of quality education is something to be thought of after (if possible simultaneously with) the expansion of school participation.

3. Household factors are responsible for determining school participation and to raise school participation, these factors need to be tackled.

a) As repeatedly noted, the need for child labor is the major reason for the households not to send their children to school and for pulling the enrolled children from school.

Change of school schedule according to local situation in order that students will be free to help their parents during the months of high labor requirement by the households (mostly harvesting seasons) is one possible mechanism for reducing the opportunity cost of students' time.

b) Economic problem has been also found to constrain school participation. Therefore, the improvement of the level of income of the households is a requirement to increase school participation. In doing so, the current agricultural extension program need to focus on the relatively poorer households.

c) In addition to decreasing the opportunity cost of schooling and improving the economic condition of the households, persuading the community about the importance of schooling so that the society understand the value of education and send its children to school is the other strategy for increasing school participation. This can be done by school directors and teachers at different public meetings, and by forming strong school-community relations. Peasant association administrative committees can also play important role in encouraging parents to send their children, especially girls,to school.

d) Initiating literacy program can also help to increase school participation in at least two ways. First, by attending the literacy program, parents can develop an interest in education and there by willing to send their children to formal school. Secondly, aged children and those children who can not attend formal schooling due to household duties will have the opportunity of participating in this program and attaining basic literacy, and may enroll to formal school there after to satisfy their schooling appetite that might develop as a result of attending the informal literacy program.

In addition to the afore mentioned suggestions to increase school participation in general, to improve the participation of females in particular, the bias in the recruitment and training of females for teachers of primary school need to be encouraged, as they may act as motivators or role-models for girls to enroll to school. Besides, giving priority for females in the provision of job opportunity (employment) also helps to avoid parents' perception of low employment prospect for educated females and can encourage them to send their daughters to school.

Future research studies should carry out detail investigation on the factors that influence the schooling decision of Muslim and Christian households for their daughters. The impact of school-related factors such as school facilities, teachers' characteristics (qualification, teaching experience, language ability) on the household demand for schooling also need to be studied.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX- A

Questionaire tobe filled by primary schmol Directors.

Give short and brief answers for items requiring supply type of answers while put an "X" markfor those with alternatives on the space provided.

Wereda_____Name of the school_____

year of establishment____ ___Grades taught in the school_____

1. Sex: Male_____Female_____ 2. Age_____

Oromifa _____

3. Mother tongue: Amharic 4. Religion christian Islam_____

Other_____

5. Educational level

Grade 12 _____

12+TTI _____

Others, if any _____

6. Total Years of work experience

11 Years and above_____

6 to 10 years _____

5 years and below _____

7. Years of experience as a director

11 years and above _____

5 to 10 years _____

below 5 years and below_____

8. Tenure in the present school

less than 3 years_____

3 to 5 years _____

more than 5 years _____

9. Where is your place of residence ?

with in school compound_____

less than 2 kms from school_____

2 to 5 kms from school_____

more than 5 kms from school_____

10. The official age of entry to grade one is 7 years. Do you follow this rule in admitting new enttants?

yes_____ No_____

..//

11. What is the common age of the new entrants to your School?

11.1. For boys: below 7 years_____

7-10 years _____

11-14 years _____

above 14 years_____

11.2. For girls: below 7 years _____

7-10 years _____

11-14 years _____

above 14 years _____

12. In aditting new entrants, was there a time when more children than the space you have had been registered?

yes_____ No _____

13. If your response for question No. 12 is "yes", how did you determine which child to accept?

you accepted those who came first_____

you selected randomly _____

you accepted all _____

other, if any _____

14. Are there registration fees?

yes_____ No _____

15. If your answer for question No. 14 is "no", when did you abolished registration fee? (give the year)

_____E.C.

16. Did enrollment increase since then?

Yes_____No differnce_____decreased_____

17. Is there any kind of money contribution that students are asked?

yes_____ No_____

18. If your response for question no.17 is "yes", specify the type of contribution (for what purpose) and its amount per student.

..//

Kind of contribution	amount
a)	
b)	
c)	

19. Give your sources of income for the different activities of the school.

a) _____ c) _____

b) _____ d) _____

20. For how many hours are the students at school in a single shift? _____hrs.

21. In how many shifts are you teaching?

single_____double _____

22. If your answer for question No 21 is other than double how many groups of students learn in one shift?

One group_____two groups_____

23. Is there any complain from parents of the students regarding the duration they stay at school?

yes_____No _____

24. If your answer for question No.23 is "yes",give the complaints.(specify) _____

_____

25. In which months of the year do you think students mostly come to school late?

a) _____ b) _____ c) _____

26. In which months of the year do you think students mostly absent from school?

a) _____ b) _____ c) _____

27. In which months of the year do you think students mostly drop-out from school?

a) _____ b) _____ c) _____

28. which group of students do you think mostly drop-out from school?

Boys_____Girls_____ No difference ____

29. Which group of students do you think mostiy drop-out from school?

younger ones_____

Older ones_____

No difference_____

30. Give 2 to 3 reasons you think responsible for students':

30.1. Coming late to school

a) _____

b) _____

C) _____

30.2. being absent from school

a) _____

b) _____

c) _____

30.3. dropping-out from school

a) _____

b) _____

c) _____

31. Do you think that most children of primary school-age in the school locality are attending school?

yes _____ No _____

32. Which group of children do you think are mostly deprived of educational opportunity?

Boys _____ Girls _____ No difference _____

33. Give 2-3. reasons you think responsible for non enrollment of girls and boys separately.

33.1. For boys	33.2. For girls
a) _____	a) _____
b) _____	b) _____
c) _____	c) _____

34. Did the school make any effort inorder that parents enroll their children to school?

yes _____ No _____

35. If your answer for question No 34 is "yes", specify.

a) _____

b) _____

C) _____

36. What do you suggest to increase school enrollment in general?

a) _____

b) _____

c) _____

37, What do you suggest to attract more girls to school in particular?

a) _____

b) _____

c) _____

38. What do you suggest to minimize drop-out?

a) _____

b) _____

c)

39. Do you think that most of the parents of students as well as the local community support Oromo Language being the medium of instruction?

yes _____ No _____ Idon't know _____

40. Does the local community support the school?

yes _____ No _____

41. If your answer for question No 40 is " yes", do you think the support is willingly or forced ?

It is voluntary _____

It is forced _____

42. In what form does it support the school?

in labor _____

in money _____

in kind _____

Other, if any _____

43. Who constructed your school?

NGOS _____

Government _____

Local community _____

44. After its construction, is there any expansion made on the school buildings ?

Yes _____ No _____

4 5. If your answer for question No 44 is "yes ", who has constructed the additional tooms?

NGOs _____

Government _____

Local Community _____

The school itself _____

46. What is the distance of the nearest secondary school from the primary school (your school) ?

less than 5 kms _____

6-10 kms _____

10-15 kms _____

15-20 kms _____

more than 20 kms _____

47. Is there parent committee or school administration committee in your school?

Yes _____ No _____

48. If your answer for question No 47 is "yes",

48.1. who are the members (what are) _____

..//

48.2. What is their major responsibility?

_____

48.3. What is their schedule of meeting ?

_____

Direction:- For items in the following part, consult your school record and try to give genuine information as much as possible.

49. Total number of teachers with years of teaching Experience.

		Years of teaching experience			Total
sex	1-3yrs	3-5yers	6-10 yers	anove 10yrs	Total
Male					
Female					
Total					

50. Teachers with educational status

	Educational status			
sex	10+2	Gr.12	12+TTI	Other
Male				
Female				
Total				

51 Number of students in each grade (in 1991 E.C)

	Grades				
sex	1	2	3	4	Total
Male					
Female					
Total					

52. Age of students by grade and sex (in 1991 E.C)

	Grade 1				Grade 2			
sex	7yrs	7-10yrs	11-14yrs	14yrs	7yrs	7-10yrs	11-14yrs	14yrs
male								
Female								
TOtal								

	Grade 3				Grade 4			
7yrs	7-10yrs	11-14yrs	14yrs	7yrs	7-10yrs	11-14yrs	14yrs	

53. Give the number of new entrants to grade 1 in different years.

sex	year (E.C) 1988	1989	1990	1991
Male				
Female				
Total				

54. Number of students enrolled and dropped out in different years

Year	sex	Grade1 enrolled	Grade1 drop out	Grade2 enrolled	Grade2 drop out	Grade3 enrolled	Grade3 drop out	Grade 4 enrolled	Grade 4 drop out
1989	Male								
	Female								
	Total								
1990	Male								
	Female								
	Total								
1991	Male								
	Female								
	Total								

55. Total number of rooms in the school _____

56. Total number of classrooms _____

57. Put a tick mark (✓) infront of the rooms that exist, and an "X" mark for those that donot exist in the school.

Directors'office _____ Library _____

Staff room _____ staff latrine _____

Store room _____ student latrine _____

Pedagogical centere _____

58. Put a tick mark(✓) infront of the materials that exist in adequate number and an "X" mark infront of those which donot exist in a dequate number.

Student seats _____

Books _____

Chalk _____

Black board _____

APPENDIX - B

Questionnaire to be filled by primary School Teachers.

Give brief answers for items requiring short answers, while for those with alternatives put an "X" mark on the space provided.

Wereda_____Name of School_____

1. Teacher's age _____
2. Sex: Male_____Female_____
3. Mother tongue _____ 4. Religion_____
5. Educational level
   - grade 12 _____
   - 12+TTI _____
   - Others, if any _____
6. Years of teaching experience:
   - 11 years and above_____
   - 6 to 10 years _____
   - 5 years and below_____
7. Tenure in the present s chool
   - less than 3 years _____
   - 3 to 5 years _____
   - more than 5 years _____
8. Where is your place of residence?
   - With in school compound_____
   - less than 2 kms from school_____
   - 2 to 5 kms. from school_____
9. During this semester, how many periods do you teach per week?
   - more than 25 periods_____
   - 20-25 periods _____
   - 15-20 periods _____
   - 10-15 periods _____
   - less than 10 periods _____
10. In which months of the year do you think students mostly absent from school? (give the name of three months)

    a._____ b. _____ C._____
11. In which months of the year do youthink students mostly drop-out from school?

    a._____ b._____ c._____
12. In which months of t he year do you think students mostly come to school late?

    a. _____ b._____ c._____
13. Which group of students frequently absent from school?

    Boys_____Girls_____No difference_____

.. //

14. Which group of students do you think mostly drop-out from school?
Boys_____ Girls_____No difference_____

15. Which students mostly dropout? Younger ones_____Older ones_____
no difference_____

16. Which group of students do you think mostly come to school late?
Boys_____Girls_____No difference_____

17. Which group of students mostly ask and answer questions in the class?
Boys_____Girls_____No difference_____

18. When you consider all students in a class in general which group of students do you think are educationally more capable ?
Boys_____ Girls_____No difference_____

19. Do you think most children of primary school age in the school locality (7-10years) are attending school?
Yes _____ No _____

20. If your answer for question No 19 is "no", put according to their importance the factors you think are responsible for parents not to send their children to school for boys and girls separately.

	Rank for male	for female
A. inability to pay school expenses	_____	_____
B. Lack of knowledge of value of education	_____	_____
C. the need for child labor	_____	_____
D. Lack of school places	_____	_____
E. Fear of lack of employment	_____	_____
F. disinterest in language of instruction	_____	_____
G. Long distance of Schools	_____	_____
H. Others, if any	_____	_____

21. Put according to their importance the factors you think responsible for the drop-out of students for boys and girls separately.

	Rank for boys	girls
A. Lack of money to support scheeling	_____	_____
B. need for child labor	_____	_____
c. Long distance from home to school	_____	_____

..///

D. Lack of employment prospect _____ _____
E. Pupils' health problem _____ _____
F. Early marriage _____ _____
G. Others, if any _____ _____

22. Give 2 to 3 reasons you think responsible for students to come to school late?

a. _____
b. _____
c. _____

23. What measures do you suggest to enroll more children to school?

23.1. Boys: a) _____
b) _____
c) _____

23.2. Girls a) _____
b) _____
c) _____

24. What measures do you suggest to reduce drop-out of students from school?

a) _____
b) _____
c) _____

APPENDIX - C

Questionnaire tobe filled by primary school pupils.

Give brief answers for items requiring short answers, while for items with alternatives put an "X" mark on the space provided.

Wereda_____Name of the school_____

1. Age_____2. Sex: Male_____Female_____

3. Marital status

unmarried _____married_____divorced_____engaged_____

4. Mother tongue:

Amharic_____Oromo Language_____Other_____

5. Religion: christion_____Islam_____Other_____

6. Family occupation

Farming_____trading_____both_____cattle rearing only _____

7. Number of children in the family

Male _____Female_____

8. Family educational status

8.1. Father: Cannot read and write_____

Can read and write _____

Grade _____

8.2. Mother: cannot read and write _____

can read and write _____

Grade _____

9. Do your parents live together?

Yes _____No_____

10. With whom do you live now?

with both parents_____

with only one of them_____

With other relative orguardian_____

11. Before you entered primary school, in which of the following did you attend?

Church school_____

Koranic school====_____

Literacy program_____

Attended none _____

F

12. How long does it take you to walk from home to school?
    More than two hours_____
    Two Hours _____.
    One and a half ½ hours_____
    Half to an hour _____
    Less than half an hour _____
13. How often do you help your parents in working at home?
    Always _____
    Sometimes _____
    Never _____
14. Put in order of the time you spend with in aday, starting with the one which @@ consumes the highest time.
    Doing household duties_____
    Time in the classroom _____
    Travel to and from school_____
    Studying outside th e school_____
15. Put a mark (✓) infront of the activities you accomplish and an "X" mark for activities you donot accomplish, during your out-of- school time.
    cooking food_____
    fetcheng water _____
    collecting fire wood_____
    cleaning house _____
    trading _____
    helping in farmactivitees_____
    taking care of younger siblings_____
    looking after cattle _____
16. Do you have enough time to study during your out of school t ime?
    yes_____No _____
17. Is there an erderly person in the household?
    Yes_____ No_____
18. Are you attending any other school besides government school?
    Yes_____ No _____
19. If your answer for quwstion No 18 is yes, which school do you attend?
    priest school_____
    koranic school_____
    Literacy program_____

..//

20. Which school do you like most to attend?
    Government school_____
    Prcest school_____
    Koranic school_____
    Literacy program_____
21. Do you get enough amount of money for clothing and schooling from your family?
    yes_____ No _____
22. Do your parents encourage you in your schooling?
    yes,they do_____
    No,they don't_____
23. How often do you absent from school?
    Always_____
    Sometimes _____
    Never _____
24. What is the reason for your being absent from school?
    To help parents for work_____
    You don't like learning_____
    You lack money for schooling_____
    Other, it any _____
25. What is your main reason for going to school?
    You like learning _____
    To Learn reading and writing_____
    To get employment _____
    You don't really know why_____
26. Have you ever dropped out of school?
    Yes_____No _____
27. Do you like learning in Oromo Language ?
    Yes_____ No_____
28. If conditions permit,up what level do you want to learn?
    end of primary school (grade 4) _____
    end of high school (grade 12) _____
    up to university level _____
29. If conditions permit, what do you want to be ?
    Give the list of ~~there~~ three professions
    a) _____ b) _____ c) _____
30. Who Supports your learning?
    Your father_____
    Your Mother _____
    Both of them support your learning_____
    both of them dontt support_____

..//

31. Teacher of which sex do you prefer to teach you?
male_____Female_____ Any of the sexes_____

32. Is there any payment or contribution you are asked at school?

Yes_____ No _____

APPENDIX-D

An interview schedule to be answered by house hold heads having at least one school-going child

were da_____peasant association_____

For items requiring short answers, give brief answers while for those with alternatves, put an "X" mark on the provided space.

wereda_____peasant Association_____

Occupation; farming_____trading_____both_____cattle raring only _____

1. ~~Father~~ Relation with the house hold

   Father_____Mother_____Other_____

2. Age_____

3. Sex: Male_____Female_____

4. Religion: christian_____Islam_____other_____

5. Ethnic group: Amhara_____Oromo_____other_____

6. Language spoken at home

   Amharic_____

   Oromiffa_____

   Other_____

7. Educational status

   Illiterate(cannot read and write)_____

   Can read and write_____

   Grade_____

8. Total number of the family members_____

9. Number of children: Male_____Female_____

10. Family members and their educational status; ~~illiterate~~ _____

    Grade 1_____Gr.2_____Gr.3_____Gr.4_____Gr.5_____Gr.6_____

    above grade 6_____

11. Type of house:tin roof_____thatch roof_____

12. Livestock holding (If doesnot own,put"X" mark umder the "number")

Kind	Number
a. Cattle	_____
b. sheep	_____
c. Goat	_____
d. horse	_____
e. donkey	_____
f. Mule	_____
g. other	_____

..//

13. Do you think education is useful ?
Yes_____ No_____

14. Do you think education helps to be a good farmer?
Yes_____ No_____

15. What benefit(s)do you expect from the education of your son/daughter? (you can give more than one answer)
To get employment_____
To be able to read and write_____
To know about the world_____
To be a good person_____
Other_____

16. Do you think educational expenditure is apriority like other household expenses ? Yes_____ No_____

17. Whose school materials do you think are costy?
Boys'_____ Girls'_____No difference_____

18. Whose clothes do you think are costy ?
Boys'_____ Girls'_____ No difference_____

19. Which school expenses are difficult?
clothes_____shoes_____exercise books and pens_____

20. Who do you think contributes much to the household if educated ?
Boys_____ Girls_____ No difference_____

21. For whom do you think the benefits of the education of girls mostly go to ?
For you(the parent)_____
For the family of their husband_____
Equal for both families_____

22 In the job employment of educated people,who do you think has high employment opportunity ?
Males_____Females_____ No difference_____

23. In the job employment of educated people,who do you think will get more salary ?
Males_____Females _____No difference_____

24. For which activities do you need the help of the schooling child? (Put in the order of their importance)
Farm activities_____
Howehold duties_____
Looking after cattle_____
Taking care of younger children_____
Other if any_____

//

25. In which months do you need the help of your schooling child mostly ? 1._____ 2._____ 3._____

26. What do you suggest regarding the school program inorder that your child could help you during chore seasons while learning?_____

_____

27. Is your child attending other school other than government school? (for muslim house holds)

Yes_____ No_____

28. If your answer for question No 27 is yes. which school?

is he/she attending?

Koranic school_____

Priest school_____

Other (specify)_____

29. If your answer for question No28 is any one of the alternatives, which one do you prefer for your child to attend ?

Government school :_____

Any one of the alternatives in Q.28_____

30. How do you see the learning of girls with boys in one class ? (for muslim house holds of female students)

I Don't like it_____

I don't care it_____

I like it _____

31. If your response for question No 30 is "I don't like it" what do you suggest ?_____

_____

32. A teacher of which sex do you prefer to teach your schooling child ?

Male_____ Female_____Any of the sexes_____

33. How do you see Oromo Language as a language of instruction?

I Like it_____

I don't like it _____

I don't care _____

..//

34. If your answer for question No 33 is " I don't like it" what is your reason ?_____

_____ _____

35. What are the problems you encountered in educating a child in general ?

a._____

b._____

c._____

36. Whose responsibility do you think is the duty of supporting the school ?

Community around school_____

Parents of schooling children_____

Government_____

37. Are you voluntary to support school ?

yes_____ No_____

38. If your response for question No 37 is yes, in what aspects can you support ?

In cash_____

In kind (Material)_____

In labor_____

In all aspects_____

APPENDIX-E

An interview schedule to be answered by household heads having no school-going child.

Wereda_____peasant association_____

For items requiring short answers, give brief answers while for those with alternatives,put an "X" mark on the space provided infront of your choice._____

Relation occupation ; faming_____trading _____both_____

cattle raring only_____

Relation

1. with thechousehold:

Father_____Mother_____ Other _____

2. Age_____3. Sex:Male_____Female_____

4. Religion:ch ristian_____Islam_____other_____

5. Ethnic group- Amhara_____Oromo_____other_____

6. Language spoken at home:

Amharic_____Oromiffaa_____Other_____

7. Educational status

Can not read and write (illiterate)_____

can read and write_____

Grade _____

8. Total number of the family members _____

9. Number of childern: Male_____female _____

10. Family members and their educational status: illiterate _____

Grade 1 _____Gr.2_____Gr.3_____Gr.4_____Gr.5_____Gr.6_____

Above grade 6_____

11. Type of house: tin reef_____thatch roof_____

12. Livestock holding (If does not own,put an "X" mark under the 'number'.

Kind	Number
a) Cattle	_____
b) Sheep	_____
c) Goat	_____
d) Horse	_____
e) Donkey	_____
f) Mule	_____
g) Other	_____

13. Do you think education in useful?

Yes _____ No _____

....///

14. If your answer for question No 13 is "yes",what is/are the uses of education? (you can give maore than one answer).

For employment_____

To be ableto read and write_____

To know about the world _____

To be a good person _____

Other _____

15. Do you think education helps to be a good farmer?

Yes_____ No_____

16. If conditions permit, a child of which sex do you want to send to school?

Male_____Female_____Both of them _____none of there

17. Do you think the education of girls is appropriate?

yes _____ No _____

18. If your answer for question No 17 is "No", give the reason_____

19. Do you have any fear in the education of girls?

yes_____ No_____

20. If your answer for question No 19 is yes,give(tell) your fear._____

21. Whose labor contribution is more useful to the house hold?

Boys' contribution _____

Girls'contribution_____

No difference _____

22. Which school do you prefer to enroll your child?(for muslim households)

Givernment school_____

Koranic school _____

23. How do you see the learning of girls with boys in one calass? (for muslim households)

you like it _____

you don't feel anything_____

you don't like _____

24. A teacher of which sex do you prefer to teach your son/daughter if you enroll to school?

Male teacher_____

Female teacher_____

Any of the sexes_____

..//

25. How do you see the education of girls in contrast with their role in marriage?

    It helps them_____

    It doesn't help them_____

26. Do you think education contradicts with girls' chance of marriage?

    yes_____No_____

27. How many hours do you think it takes to reach the nearest primary school?

    Less than half an hour_____

    Half an hour to one hour_____

    One hour to one and half an hour_____

    Greater than two hours_____

28. Do you like oromo Language as a medium of instruction?

    Yes_____ No _____

29. Tell me two to three reasons why you didn't enroll your son/daughter to school.

    a) _____

    b) _____

    c) _____

30. What do you suggest inorder that you enroll your child to school? Tell me two to three of them.

    a) _____

    b) _____

    C) _____

APPENDIX-F

An interview schedule to be answered by household heads of dropped-OUT Children.

Wereda_____Peasant association_____

Give brief answers for questions requiring short answers and put an "X" mark on the space provided for those having alternatives.

Occupation: Farming_____trading_____both_____cattle raring only_____

1. Relation in the household:
   Father_____Mother_____other(Specify)_____
2. Age_____ 3.Sex:Male_____Female_____
4. Religion: Christain_____Islam_____Other_____
5. Ethnic group: Amhara_____Oromo_____Other_____
6. Language Spoken at home
   Amharic_____Oromiffa_____Other_____
7. Educational status
   Illiterate/cannot read and write/_____
   can read and write_____
   Grade_____
8. Total family members_____
9. Number of children: Male_____Female_____
10. Family members and their educational status illiterate ____
    Grade 1_____ Gr.2_____Gr.3_____Gr.4_____Gr.5_____
    Gr.6_____Above grade 6 _____
11. Type of house: tin roof_____thatch roof_____
12. Livestock holding(If doesnot own,put an "X" mark under the "number".

Kind	Number
a) Cattle	_____
b) Sheep	_____
C) Goat	_____
d) horse	_____
e) donkey	_____
f) Mule	_____
g) Other	_____

13. What benefits did you expect when you enroll your child to school?

../

To be able to read and write_____
To get employment_____
To know about the world_____
To be a good person_____
Other_____

14. Which child do you think has greater labor contribution to the house hold activities ?

Boy_____Girl_____No difference_____

15. For which activities do you want the help of your child ? (put inorder of importance)

Home duties_____
Farm activities_____
Caring children_____
Cattle tending_____

16. In which months of the year do you have high farm activities for whech you need the help of your child ?

Activity	month
Ploughing	_____
Harvesting	_____
Threshing	_____
Other	_____

17. In which months of the year do you get enough money to purchase school materials ?

a._____ b._____ c._____

18. Tell me two to three reasons for which you drawn your son/ daughter from school.

a._____
b._____
c._____

19. What suggestions do you have regarding the school time inorder that your child will help you in chores without dropping out from school ?

_____
_____

20. What would change your decision of with drawing your son/ daughter from school ?

_____
_____

APPENDIX- G

An interview schedule to be answered by non-schooling children. put an "X" mark in front of the item of your choice for questions with alternatives give short answers for those requiring supply answer. wereda_____PA_____

1. Age_____2. Sex: Male_____Female_____
3. Have you attended any type of school ?

   yes_____ No_____
4. If your answer for question No 3 is "yes" which type of school have you attended ?

   priest school_____

   koranic school_____

   Literacy program_____

   Government school_____
5. Can you read and write?

   yes_____ No_____
6. Do you think education is good ?

   yes_____ No_____
7. Have you asked your parents to enroll you to government School?

   yes_____ No_____
8. If your answer for question No 7 is "yes" what was their response ?_____

   _____
9. Why don't you go to school ? (you can give more than one answer)

   Shortage of money to purchase school materials _____

   To help parents at work _____

   School is too far _____

   Lack of interest in education _____

   You want to be a farmer _____
10. Who supports if you learn ?

    Your father_____

    Yomr mother_____

    Both support_____

    Both do not support_____

..//

11. What are the activities in which you help your parents? (You can give more than one answer.)

Farm activities____

Looking after cattle_____

Taking care of younger siblings_____

Fetching water_____

Gathering fire wood_____

Cooking food_____

cleaning house _____

Other _____

12. What do you intend to be in the future ?

To be a farmer_____

To join school

To be a merchant (trader)_____

Other_____

Appendix-H

School to School-Age Population ratio of Each woreda in Bale zone

No	Woreda	Rural	Urban	Primary school-age population in rural areas (7-14 years)	School t School-ag populatic ratio
1	Ababa	26	2	19748	705
2	Agarfa*	20	2	13484	613 (4)
3	Berbere	11	-	7794	709
4	Dodola	29	3	25628	801
5	Ginnir *	38	2	19816	495 (1
6	Gololcha-Gasara *	39	2	24138	575 (3
7	Goba *	18	6	12112	505 (2
8	Goro	15	2	14398	847
9	Gura-Damole	2	-	3836	1918
10	Kokosa	22	-	17922	815
11	Lega-Hida	1	-	7676	7676
12	Mada-Walabu	10	-	12494	1249
13	Mana-Harana	22	1	16391	713
14	Nensebo	19	-	13129	691
15	Raytu	7	-	6271	896
16	Sewena	3	-	7215	2405
17	Sinana-Dinsho	31	5	27867	774
	Total	**313**	**25**	**246,496**	

* **Sample woredas**