Addis Ababa University
School of Graduate Studies

A Comparative Study on Practice and Problems in the Implementation of Governmental and Non-Governmental ABE programs in Afar

By

Mohammed Tikuye



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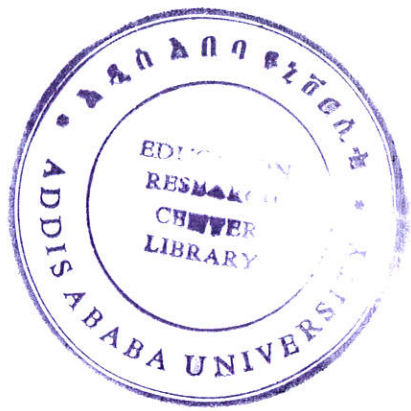
A Comparative Study on Practice and Problems in the Implementation of Governmental and Non-Governmental ABE programs in Afar

Thesis submitted to the school of Graduate studies
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In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Educational Planning and Management

By

Mohammed Tikuye



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Abbreviations and acronyms

1. ABE	Alternative Basic Education
2. ABEC	Alternative Basic Education Center
3. ADB	African Development Bank
4. ADEA	Association for the Development of Education in Africa
5. ANCEFA	African Network Campaign on Education in Africa
6. CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All forms of discrimination Against women
7. EFA	Education for All
8. EMRDA	Ethiopian Muslim Relief and Development Association
9. ESDP	Education Sector development Program
10. ETP	Education and Training Policy
11. FGD	Focus Group Discussion
12. GER	Gross Enrollment Ratio
13. GO	Government organization
14. IIZ/DVV	Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association
15. JRM	Joint Review Mission
16. MDG	Millennium Development Goals
17. MOE	Ministry of Education
18. NER	Net Enrollment Ratio
19. NFE	Non Formal Education
20. NGO	Non-Government Organization
21. PASDEP	Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty
22. REB	Regional Education Bureau
23. UPE	Universal Primary Education
24. UN	United Nations
25. UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
26. UNICEF	United Nations International Children Education Fund
27. WCEFA	World Conference on Education for All
28. WEO	Woreda Education Office

Abstract

The main purpose of this study was to assess the practice and problems of the implementation of ABE. Descriptive survey method was used to undertake the study. In order to meet this purpose, basic questions were raised regarding the contribution of ABE in increasing access to education, best practices of ABE programs run by Government and NGOs, structure and management system of ABE, and *factors affecting the participation of NGOs in ABE programs. The study was conducted at the different levels of the educational hierarchy of the Afar Regional State. Samples were drawn from ABE Centers, Woreda and REB offices. NGO ABE centers and their coordinating offices at various levels were also included in the study. Purposeful and convenient sampling methods were respectively used to select the woredas and the ABE centers for the study. Four Woredas where there are at least one NGO working on ABE were taken in the study. Questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions and documents were used to collect the necessary data. The obtained data were analyzed using statistical tools of percentage, mean, chi-square, and t-test. The results of the study reveal that ABE is playing a significant role in improving educational coverage in the region. However, the rate of its expansion and the issue of efficiency of the program is questionable. The major problems identified by the study in the implementation of ABE include; absence of institutional structure and shortage of budget to run the program, lack of human and material resources, and poor coordination among Governmental and Non-Governmental organizations. The recommendations forwarded to overcome the challenges comprise the creation of appropriate institutional structure and allocation of sufficient resource to run the program, and strengthening net-work among Governmental and NGO partners for better implementation of the program.*

CHAPTER ONE
THE PROBLEM AND ITS APPROACH

This chapter introduces the situation of Alternative Basic Education in Afar Regional State, states the problems encountered in its implementation and shows the significance, methods and organization of the study.

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Development can be seen as the general improvement in economic, social and political conditions of the whole society and reduction or elimination of poverty, inequality, injustice, insecurity, ecological imbalance and unemployment within the context of a growing economy (IIZ/DVV, 2005,p.1).In this regard, education has long been considered as an indispensable weapon in fighting against poverty and a necessary first step in a long march towards socio-economic development of a country through human capital production. In supplement to this, Tekeste (1990, p.86), stated that for education to be an investment in human capital, it should first be appropriate and relevant. Secondly, it is necessary to have a conducive environment where most of those who complete their schooling have some opportunity to put what they have learned into practice. Thus, one can in general say that efficient development of a nation is unthinkable in a situation where every citizen is not equally participating in the social, economic and political life of the country.

In addition to its role in development, the right to education is also a bridge to all human rights. According to Tomasevski (2003,p.172), education is indispensable for effective political participation and for enabling individuals to sustain themselves; it is the key to preserving languages and religions; it is the foundation for eliminating discrimination. It is the key to unlocking other human rights. Children are the easiest victims of abuses of power by their parents, teachers, or governments and hence the role that education plays in combating such abuse is much significant.

Recognizing the double roles that education plays in country's development and in inculcation of Human Right principles among the citizens, Nations of the world on their declaration of human rights include 'the right of education for all" as follows: Every one has the right to education, education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages, elementary education shall be compulsory (The UN Universal declaration of Human Rights/article-26, 1948).

In line with this declaration and other conventions, such as the convention on the rights to child, the convention against discrimination in education and the CEDAW convention, Governments have signed the education for all and the Millennium development agreements through which they promised to devote renewed efforts to provide education for all children, young people and adults so as to enable them meet their basic learning needs in the best and fullest sense of the term: education to know, to do, to live together and to be.

Significant improvements have been observed since the introduction of the EFA and MDGs in improving access to education and reducing disparity in its provision. In this regard, it is worth mentioning that the global net enrollment had risen from 83% to 87% between 1999 and 2005, faster than from 1991 to 1999 and the sub-Sahara is the region with the fastest growth rate (27%) in enrollment during this period (UNESCO, 2008).

Despite the developments achieved so far, there is still a need to go a long way to address the official challenges that stand on the way towards achieving UPE by 2015.According to the 2008 global monitoring report on education for all, with the current trend of enrollment, fifty-eight out of eighty-six countries that have not yet reached universal primary enrollment will not achieve it by 2015. While tracing the challenges in connection to UPE, Tomasevski (2003,p.102), argues that though universal primary enrollment remains the principal means of ensuring basic education for all, it is still limited to those in the appropriate age group, those for whom schools are accessible and ,in many cases, those who can afford the costs of

schooling. Furthermore, economic and social development in the less developed countries is not yet sufficient to allow the provision of free education for all though many countries have been able to legislate for free elementary education. In this regard, firstly, there has not been adequate provision of equal opportunity for women, for different ethnic groups, for rural areas, for back ward regions and for lower income groups. Secondly, the content of education does not, in most cases, conform to the manpower requirements of the less developed countries (Oxfam GB & ANCEFA, 2008, p.8).

According to Tomasevski (2003, p.101), a commitment to specified ends without a corresponding commitment to the means necessary to attain them leaves the ends unattained, reflected in strong nouns and weak verbs. Thus, there is a growing concern that the goal of securing education for all by the year 2015 could also be missed by some countries and may record another failure unless urgent measures are taken to redress the inadequacies inherent in the implementation of UPE programmes (Oxfam GB & ANCEFA, 2008, p.17).

Nomads are socio-economic groups who constantly travel and migrate in large or small groups in search of means of livelihood within a community or across international boundaries(IIZ/DVV,2005,p.5).While some of the nomads are pastoralists, others are fishermen and hunters/food gatherers(Ezeomah in Abinur 2005,p.1). Pastoralism, sometimes used interchangeably with the term 'nomadism', reflects a life style based upon maintenance of herds of animals that depend mainly on natural vegetation for their food. This dependency on the availability of basic survival needs, such as water and pasture and their migration in connection to the shortage of these resources and other pressures determines the seasonal and daily movements of pastoralists. While all members of a 'pure' nomadic pastoralist group will be on the move, there are some groups where a substantial fraction of the group are settled in permanent habitats with perhaps only the younger men traveling with their livestock for periods of several months at a time.

Nomads are among the prominent social groups who are deprived of the benefits of basic services, including Education due to their mobility. Although, an attempt has been made by most pastoral inhabited countries, including Ethiopia, to expand access of basic education through the formal system, it has been hard for pastoralists who are dispersed and mobile to use static schools, and become a serious challenge to national and international targets of achieving Education For all by the year 2015. Emphasizing the weakness of formal education in responding to the pastoralists demand, Swift et.al in Abinur (2005,p.2) reveal that, due to the mobility and sparse population distribution, the importance of child labor, the high cost of schooling and pastoral values antipathy to schooling, pastoralists have low rate of school enrolment. Even where pastoral children go to school, the curriculum usually lacks relevance to pastoralists' experience and concern, because a school curriculum in most cases is developed by sedentary people.

The search for alternative delivery modes outside the conventional school system can be historically traced to the period that followed the rapid expansion of formal education in many of the developing countries in the 1960s.The effort made to develop new approaches during these years was so tremendous that enrollment in these countries increased on the average by 50% in 1968 compared to that of 1960(Ahmed in MOE,2000 p.7).This rapid expansion did not only slow down the capacity of fulfilling the basic educational needs of all school-age children but it also led to a significant sacrifice in the quality and internal efficiency of the formal education system. Above all, it failed to bring the economic growth and national development aspired by the governments of these countries. Consequently, education planners, policy makers and researchers as well as concerned international organizations such as the World Bank and UNESCO began to seek innovative, less costly and more flexible alternatives for providing education outside the conventional school system (MOE, 2000, p.7).

Ethiopia has had considerable experience with alternate models in the not so distant past. For example, during the emperor's reign special mobile schools were developed to provide basic literacy to the nomadic tribes.Non-formal education was given a high priority by the "Dergue" regime and at the Ministry of education a department responsible to run NFE in a country was established during those days (MOE, 2000, p.4).

For a developing nation like Ethiopia, as far as provision of education for nomads is concerned, non-formal education seems more appropriate than the formal one. That is why Befekadu (2006, p.12-13), attributed the following benefits to the successful non-formal education programs:

- They are delivered within a non antagonistic cultural environment and can rely on a human interface strongly sympathetic with the nomadic culture;
- They are highly flexible in structure and content and maintain such flexibility over time ,in order to be able to respond to changing needs;
- The informal settings of the school environment(in the case of primary education) allow parents close surveillance over physical and moral security of children(especially girls),where parents can keep an eye on both what happens to the children during the lesson and what they are taught;
- They are sensible to acknowledge social, economic and political boundaries of the rural community and have the resources to provide skills specifically designed to increase communities' control.
- They interface with existing Government institutions for education and development.

Recognizing the peculiar features associated with non-formal education in expanding access and in overcoming the limitations encountered while using the formal system, the Ethiopian Government has recognized the importance of using ABE as a major modality to provide basic education for the most deprived rural communities and pastoralists in order to achieve

Universal primary education by 2015. Besides, recognizing the role of partnership in implementing the ABE strategy effectively, the second Education Sector Development Program (p.21-22) encourages the community and NGOs to stand by the side of the government to implement the program at a possible lower cost. This study, therefore tries to assess the practices and problems encountered by both governmental and non-governmental organizations while implementing ABE programs in Afar Region.

1.2. Statement of the problem

The World Conference on EFA, in 1990, underlined the need to make primary education universal and ensure that the basic learning needs of all children are satisfied taking into account the culture, needs, and opportunities of the community. The declaration also suggests for the introduction of supplementary alternative programmes that help meet the learning needs of children with limited or no access to formal schooling; provided that they share the same standards of learning applied to schools, and are adequately supported (Douglas in Abinur, 2005, p.9).

In line with this declaration, Ethiopia has launched a new education and training policy in 1994, making primary education one among the priority areas of concern. The country has made significant improvements since the introduction of this policy in providing opportunities for children to access schooling. Accordingly, the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) at primary level has significantly increased from 26% in 1995 to 91.7% in 2007 at national level (MOE, 2006/07).

Despite the remarkable efforts made so far, the education system in Ethiopia is still faced with different problems, including low participation rate of school aged children particularly in the pastoralist and rural areas, regional, and urban-rural disparities, high dropout rates and declining quality of education (Befekadu, 2006, p.2), making the probability of achieving UPE by 2015 questionable. Supporting this, the 2007 EFA Global monitoring report stated that Ethiopia, next to Nigeria, is among the sub-

Saharan African countries that confronted the greatest challenge in achieving UPE because of the huge number of out of school children who still are far away from school. Of these, the prominent one that needs special attention is the case of the pastoral regions of Afar and Somali whose participation remained much below the national average. The distance to address the issue of equity in these regions is still far away creating a strong challenge to achieve the EFA goal with in the specified time.

The provision of education in pastoral areas where the population is constantly on move is more problematic. An assessment conducted by MOE (2002c,p.80-81),indicated that though there has been an increasing trend in enrollment rate between 1987 and 1993 E.C for the country, the situation in the pastoralist regions(Afar and Somali) was not encouraging. Thus it was in response to this practical problem that ABE program was initiated and stipulated as a strategy in the action plan of ESDP-II and the recommendations of the study on the Education of nomadic peoples in East Africa, including Ethiopia jointly conducted by the Ministry of Education, ADB, UNESCO and UNICEF. The program was intended to provide quality basic education that is equivalent to that of the first cycle of formal primary education (grade 1–4) to children of pastoralist and semi-agriculturalist regions, through an alternative mode of delivery suited to the socio-economic and cultural realities of the regions.

The intention of introducing alternative approaches, including ABE in Ethiopia as described above was to overcome the serious challenge that the country is confronting in achieving the EFA and MDG targets ,particularly with regard to the pastoral community. In this regard, though it is not fair to underestimate the contribution of ABE to increase access for the intended community and thereby towards the achievements of the international commitments that the country has entered, the very low enrollment rate still prevailing in these regions needs further attention.

Looking into the regional perspective, the gap in the GER at primary level among regions, even after the introduction of ABE into the pastoral regions, is still very wide. For instance in 2006/07, the GER for Addis Ababa is 146.6 compared to Afar whose participation rate is the least i.e. 22.2% (MOE, 2006/07). On the other hand, the target set for the region in the ESDP III for the year 2010/11 is 90 % indicating the existence of a wider gap between the level of achievement registered and the objective intended to be achieved.

In this regard, a study conducted by the Ethio-Italian development cooperation, ESDP Project Monitoring Unit, has revealed the following as major challenges of ABE implementation, particularly in the pastoralist regions(Befekadu,2006,p.)

- Low students' retention rate, despite the role ABE plays in increasing access due to its flexibility,
- Shortage of text books and facilitators' guides,
- Difference in competency, particularly in Afar, between the performance of those students who join the formal system after completing the three level of ABE and those who stayed from the beginning in the formal system due to variation in the medium of instruction used (Afarigna in the ABE centers and Amharic in the formal primary schools).
- Poor community participation in the management and supervision of ABE centers affecting the sustainability of ABE programs.
- Low retention rate among facilitators, due to mainly, lack of interest ,motivation and incentives to cope with particularly hard living conditions
- Poor management and supervision of ABE centers, particularly in Afar where the government's role in terms of budget allocation and staffing is poor and the involvement of NGOs and the coordination between them and the government is still low.

Since alternative basic education is a new government intervention to provide access of basic education to the disadvantaged groups, the existence of an appropriate organizational structure is also essential for effective planning, management and implementation of the program. Such arrangements should, on the whole, be able to satisfy the needs of planning and management as well as providing technical support for the program at various levels and stages of implementation (Douglas in Abinur, 2004 p.3).

On the other hand, for the implementation of the ABE strategy to be effective and sustainable, there is a need for a genuine partnership to be created among all stakeholders: government, NGOs, and the community. According to MOE (2002a, p.9-10), the need for GO-NGO partnership basically stems from the fact that education, like all other sectors of development, is a collective endeavor that demands the full participation of its various stakeholders.

This research is thus intended to assess the existing state of ABE program delivery, to detect the weaknesses and short comings in its planning and implementation, and provide possible solutions that may contribute for its betterment. The study is basically different from other similar studies made in the region as it tries to consider the practice in both planning and implementation stages and comparatively examine the contribution of NGOs besides the effort being undertaken by the government.

1.3. Objectives of Study

1.3.1 General objectives

The general objectives of this study are

1. To investigate the current practice and major shortcomings in the implementation of ABE program in Afar region by both governmental and non-governmental institutions that affect its proper functioning.
2. To suggest possible solutions that contribute overcome ABE program implementation problems in the region.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

The specific objectives of this research include

1. To compare and contrast Governmental and Non-Governmental ABE programs in their contribution to increase access in basic education.

2. To examine the extent of mutual understanding and partnership created between governmental and non-governmental institutions in the region towards effective implementation of ABE strategy.

3. To investigate factors that affects the participation of NGOs in ABE program in the region.

4. To identify structural, planning and management constraints that limit effective implementation of ABE strategy in the region.

1.4. Basic Questions

In order to achieve the stated objectives, and examine the extent of problems affecting effective ABE implementation in Afar, is taught to be achieved by way of seeking answers to the following research questions.

1. To what extent alternative basic education, run by governmental and non-governmental institutions contribute to the provision of access to primary education in the region?

2. What are the best practices of both Governmental and Non-Governmental ABE programs with a potential to be replicated in the region?

3. What factors affect the participation of NGOs in the region?

4. To what extent the organizational structure of alternative basic education appropriate to carry out duties and responsibilities of ABE to achieve the intended objectives?

5. Is the management system of alternative basic education participatory and competent enough to run the program so as to meet the lifestyle of pastoral communities?

1.5. Significances of the Study

The effectiveness and efficiency of an educational program depends on the thorough understanding of the problems that affect the achievement of its goal and objectives. The challenges and opportunities identified in the process of investigating ABE implementation will help to look for clear and applicable solutions that lead to alleviate the problems identified. Hence, as a result, this study may be useful and help to:

1. Increase awareness of the educational policy makers and planners about the extent ABE is contributing to increase educational access in the region.
2. Suggest alternative measures to tackle major challenges that affected the implementation of ABE in the region.
3. Enable to identify best experiences that can be widely applied in the region in a large scale and encourage the creation of strong GO/NGO partnership for effective implementation of ABE strategy.
4. Develop more effective and well staffed ABE structure with clearly defined duties and responsibilities to scale up the provision of basic education for pastoral children.
5. Give insight into the challenges of ABE and may serve as a reference for those educational planners and other professionals who may have intention to carry out further in-depth study.

1.6. Delimitation of the Study

The study is bound to Afar Regional State and to ABE program of both government and NGOs. In this regard the focus of this study will be delimited to:

- The practice and problems encountered in the process of implementing ABE strategy in the region.
- Selected non-governmental organizations that are directly involved in delivering education to the pastoral children through ABE program.

- The contribution of ABE to increase enrollment in the region. It does not include the role contributed through the conventional system.

1.7. Limitations of the Study

The major problem of the study is that, ABE being a complementary project in most of the sample NGOs, the researcher could not get well organized documents that facilitate the examination of the process of managing ABE programs in NGO-run projects. Data was also unavailable with regard to facilitators' attrition.

Another limitation the researcher encountered is scarcity of financial resource. As some of the ABE centers were located in areas where transport service is not accessible, the researcher had to wait for days until government vehicles come to the woreda town which had an effect in getting reliable data from the concerned respondents.

Moreover, in some ABE centers, most of the community members were moved away from their home in search of water and pasture. Thus, since it was only the facilitators that were available in these centers observing the teaching learning process and undertaking FGD with students and community representatives was not possible.

1.8. Definition of Terms

1. *Basic Education:* The whole range of educational activities that take place in different settings and that aim to meet basic learning needs. It thus comprises both formal schooling (primary) as well as a wide Varity of non-formal public and private educational activities offered to meet the defined basic learning needs of groups of people of all age (Maputu in Abinur, 2005,p.25).

2. *Alternative Basic education*: A flexible mode of delivery that could make basic education accessible to children who could not be served by the formal education system such as low-cost school, one classroom, multi-grade schools and mobile schools (MOE, 2002,p.24).

3. GER is a crude measure of coverage. It is the percentage of total enrolment in primary education, irrespective of age, out of the corresponding primary school age population (7-14).

4. *Government: it* is a term that designates all institutions of the state (ministries, departments, etc) that stretch throughout the administrative (political) structure of a given country (Closson, etal in MOE, 2002, p.19).

5. *Needs assessment*: is a process of ascertaining the learning needs, health needs or other developmental needs of beneficiaries of educational and development programs (Bhola in Kassahun, 1997, p.22).

6. *NGO: institution* that come in between Government and Private (profit making) organizations (Ibid in MOE, 2002, p.19).

7. Pastoralism : is a way of life that refers to pastoralists who mainly live and drive most of their food and income from raising domestic livestock and they do not have a recognized place of residence and move from place to place in reach of pasture and water (ADB/UNESCO, 2005,p.34).

1.9. Organization of the Study

This research thesis is organized in five chapters. Chapter one introduces the background of the study, statement of the problem, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, limitation of the study ,and definitions of key terms. Chapter two presents review of the related literature. The third chapter is concerned with the Research Design and Methodology. Presentation and analysis of data is treated in the fourth chapter. Summary of the main findings, conclusions and recommendations is treated in the last chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Non-Formal Education: concept and scope

In this section, the origin of the Non Formal Education concept and attributes that makes it similar and different to formal education and ABE are reviewed.

2.1.1 The concept and evolution of non-formal education

In the past two decades developing countries have strained to put more and more of their budgets on formal education considering it as a profitable investment and a vehicle for economic growth. According to Bishop (1989,p.50), however, despite the efforts made by these countries ,the report from the world bank in 1974 had indicated that the required economic growth was not achieved and hence formal education system was unable to solve the needs of the developing countries. Based on this report, more and more planners and educators came to realize that more of the same quality and quantity of schooling was not likely to meet national objectives for social equality and mobility, nor the manpower development needed for growth. Thus, they argued for a vast expansion of non-formal education as more likely to deliver the development goods than the traditional panoply of primary, secondary and tertiary institutions.

The evolution of NFE, for Jerop Ruto (2004, p.17), can be said to have occurred prior to the establishment of formal education (schooling). According to him, before the introduction of the current formal education, which is usually modeled along western styles, traditional societies had a distinct education system that took the forms of informal education, non-formal education and formal education. During this period, the major mode of learning was through informal educational strategies and it was a lifelong process where children learn from peers, older children, adults and elders. A variety of learning methods were used ranging from imitation to use of riddles and proverbs.

In the early 1970s, international development agencies announced a concerted effort to address the plight of the 'poorest of the poor' in less developed countries which they assumed was not resolved through formal education. These agencies chose the term NFE to refer to local-level programs for the adult poor. According to Rogers (2004,p.95),while the initial concept of NFE came from western societies, it was in the third world countries that it became elaborated as several of these countries were seeking ways of creating an education which owed less to the west. In this regard, India in particular is known to have produced a large number of writings on NFE during the 1970s and early 1980s where the concept was applied to groups seen as specifically disadvantaged (such as women) or marginal tribes.

The primary target groups for NFE programmes were initially adults who had previously been deprived of formal schooling. The importance of NFE in this era was, therefore, the mass literacy campaign attempted to provide the adults with basic education, mainly skills in literacy and numeracy as well as education, health, economic advancement and development issues (Jerop Ruto, 2004, p.18). Later on, it was made to include children who are not able to get access to formal schooling.

The justification commonly cited for the introduction of NFE programmes as an alternative form to the formal system of educational delivery is the inability of the later to address learner's need and inaccessibility to all children. According to Bishop (1989, p.141), the two principal reasons why the formal systems of education are unable to meet the increasing demands made on them are: the high rate of population growth, and the rising costs of the formal systems of education. Besides, it was believed that formal education with its urban and formal economic sector bias could not meet the need of the new mass target groups for development interventions. However, as pointed out by Tekeste (1996, p.29), the definition given for NFE by Coombs and Ahmed was developed within the context of formal education and as a response to the inbuilt deficiencies of the formal education system. In general, in addition to its role in

transforming and strengthening formal schools, NFE also meets the essential learning needs of millions of educationally deprived rural children and adolescents and help to accelerate social and economic development in rural areas (Rogers, 2004, p.83).Another great advantage of non-formal education is that it is much cheaper than the formal one and this feature makes it particularly important for poor countries as it can serve them achieve most of their educational objectives at a price that they can afford (Bishop,1989,p.141). On the other hand, Torres cited in Rose (2007, p.7-8), argued on the attachment of the term 'alternative' to NFE as it could lead to an assumption that make it intellectually a second-class. Torres further challenges the use of the term 'alternative' for distinguishing between formal and non-formal education, and suggests consideration of the following:

- There are alternatives within FE [formal education];not only alternatives to it;
- The alternative to bad FE is not good NFE [non-formal education] but good FE. (If NFE is the alternative to bad FE, what is then the alternative to bad NFE?);
- NFE is not self-targeted to the poor, the poorest of the poor and to the most disadvantaged of the disadvantaged. It is and must be viewed as an education and learning channel that is needed and that is good for all;
- NFE is not remedial or compensatory in nature, addressed to those who do not have a chance to go to a 'regular' school or who could not do it 'on time'. NFE has value in its own right, and is necessary and useful for both basic and continuing education.

Extending his argument, Torres cited in Rose (2007, p.7-8), suggests that 'Many of the characteristics typically attributed to NFE, when contrasted with FE – such as flexibility, school-community linkages, openness and responsiveness to the needs and possibilities of the learners and to specific contexts and cultures, etc. are characteristics that describe good education, regardless of the specific modality it adopts.

With regard to the initiator of the NFE model as an approach, Ahmed cited in Rogers (2004, p.73), wrote that several writers thought that the concept was taken by educational planners among the donor agencies and in some of the ministries of education in developing countries so as to create a new educational programmes outside the confines of the formal system.Similarly, Jerop Ruto (2004, p.19), has written that it stemmed from three angles:

- Private initiative: Local communities, individuals or organizations who identified an educational gap and tried to fill the void through alternative institutions;
- Educational Planners: International education policy makers who were based within the UN, multi or bilateral organizations. They recognized and tried to face the crisis in the formal school systems;
- International instruments that have continually reiterated the right of education to all. In this regard, the Education for All Summit, Jomtien of 1990 is particularly prominent as it presented an expanded vision of education that envisioned the formal and non-formal sectors working together. This vision was echoed once more in the World Education Forum-Dakar of 2000.

2.1.2 Distinction between Formal and Non-Formal Education Programmes

In trying to investigate the distinction between formal and non-formal education, the first element was recognition of the distinctiveness of programmes which were educational in character from those which were non-educational. This was particularly more important for the non-formal sector than the formal one, for some writers tended to include various non-educational activities such as cultural events or social welfare programmes as part of NFE (Rogers, 2004, p.73). On the other hand, identifying and listing some educational activities as 'formal' and others as 'non formal' depends on some kind of definition, some criteria by which programmes were to be allocated into separate categories. And that has always proved difficult.

Different writers and scholars have tried to point out the distinctive features that make the NFE approach similar to and different from that of informal and formal education delivery models. According to Rose (2007,p.6), there are similarities between formal and non-formal education in as much as they may be organized to augment and improve the informal learning process; as well as differences with respect to their sponsorship and institutional arrangements, and often in their educational objectives, and the groups they serve. Interestingly, these differences and/or similarities do not raise issues of who provides the different forms of education.

Grandstaff cited in Rogers (2004, p.100), suggested that one of the best ways to identify NFE from formal education is to relate the concept of NFE to the concept of development, and in this regard, he went on to suggest that NFE was low-cost, short-duration, need-based, aspiration-accommodating, employment linked, decentralized, and highly distributive in terms of its benefits, do opposite to formal education. Supplementing to this, Brembeck cited in Rogers (2004, p.100), pointed that formal and non-formal education are known to serve different purposes in development. According to him, initiating change and implementing change are two quite different ends; while formal education may best fit the end of conceptualizing and planning change, non-formal education may be better suited to implementing it. In this regard, the capacity of non-formal education to meet specific needs, as for example in public health education, population control, agriculture production, and village improvement, makes it a useful tool for people development.

The most widely used list in making distinction between formal and non-formal education would seem to be that drawn up by Simkins cited in rogers (Table 2.1), in which he contrasted the purposes, the timing, the content, the delivery systems and the measures of control of both formal and non-formal education, always to the disadvantage of formal education and the advantages of NFE (Rogers, 2004, p.100).

Table 2.1-Distictive features of Formal and Non-Formal Education

FORMAL	NONFORMAL
PURPOSES Formal education seeks to reproduce society; it is judged successful if it reproduces itself.	NFE is most successful if it leads to desired social change
Formal education is (in one sense) long-term, that is, it is expected to provide the basis for the future; therefore it is general in character in terms of subjects and participants.	NFE is (in this sense) short-term and specific; it meets the learning needs of individuals; it inculcates specific knowledge, skills and attitudes.
It is credential-based; the end product is often a certificate to enable the individual to obtain specific socio-economic positions in society.	It is non-credential-based; it gives tangible rewards such as immediate improvements in material well-being, productivity& self-awareness.
Formal schooling relies on a system which inherently creates failures. It is socially divisive, increasing social inequalities.	There are no failures in NFE; any one can come back at any time and make further progress along their own line of development; it is aimed at universal participant satisfaction. It can be socially integrative.
TIMING Formal education is long-cycle; usually more than one year, often ten years or more.	NFE is short-cycle; it is rarely more than ten years but it depends for its length on the achievement of learning goals.
Formal education is only for a short period; a participant enters once and leaves once.It is preparatory: child-related and future-oriented; it assumes a static society for which it is preparing the participants for the rest of their lives(Education for certainty)	NFE takes place throughout the whole life. There are multiple entry and re-entry points.It is recurrent: it depends on the individual's role and stage in life, and on the constantly changing nature of society; it is education for uncertainty.
Most formal education is full time; usually does not permit other parallel activities, especially work	NFE is a part-time; its timing is set to meet the needs and convenience of clients.
CONTENTS Formal education (Schooling) is input centred; that is, the basis of the curriculum is a standardized package of knowledge (mostly cognitive) which is imparted to the participants; it is static, often out dated and imported.	NFE is output-centred;it consists of individualized tasks or skills-centred activities;it is not standardized,but related to the needs of participants as individuals or groups.

Formal education is largely academic and compartmentalized into academic disciplines which are seen as separate from each other;it is seen as an outside intrusion into the local context; it is isolated from the immediate environment and discourages social action;it is mostly an uncritical induction into the common(national) culture,a socialization process.	NFE is more practical; it is closely related to the participants' environment (both rural and urban); it draws on all disciplines in an integrated way to solve problems rather than study subjects; it often leads to critical reflection on and social action that environment;it will often seek to legitimate a local culture to the national.
The clientele is determined by set of entry requirements which are related to their existing knowledge;the successful completion of lower levels is required for admission to higher levels.	The entry requirements for NFE are determined by the clientele,not the system;formal entry requirements are not essential.
DELIVERY SYSTEMS Formal education is institution-based; it takes place in 'schools' which are education-specific.	NFE is context-based; it takes place in a variety of settings; its facilities are minimal, low-cost and not education specific.
It is isolated; its participants are removed from their own environments for long periods.	It is community-based; the local environment is functionally related to learning programme.
Schooling is rigidly structured around established parameters of time and the participants' ages and performance; it involves uniform entry points; it is sequential and continuous.	NFE is flexibly structured; a variety of relationships and sequences is possible, it possesses varying degrees and types of structure.
Formal education is teacher-oriented; it uses labor-intensive technology; it emphasizes teaching rather than learning; control is vested in recognized authorities.	NFE is learner-centred; it uses a variety of resources and technologies; it lays emphasis on learning rather than teaching; the staff is facilitators rather than teachers.
CONTROL It is hierarchical; internal control is highly structured and is based on role-defined relations	NFE is democratic; substantial control is vested in the participants and the local community.

Source: Rogers, 2004, p.106

2.1.3 Programmes labeled as NFE

NFE, in general, has been an expression of the desire to provide education and facilitate learning through alternative modes of delivery for children and youngsters who have been unable to access formal educational opportunities (ADEA,2001,p.5).The term non-formal education has gained common currency, with the definitions coined by Coombs and Ahmed continuing to be adopted by international agencies (See Box 1 below).It has peculiar features which make it distinct from the formal and informal education delivery models.

Box 2.1 Defining non-formal education

Informal education...is the lifelong process by which every person acquires and accumulates knowledge, skills and attitudes and insights from daily experiences and exposure to the environment – at home, at work, at play; from the example and attitudes of family and friends; from travel, reading, newspapers and books; or by listening to the radio or viewing films or television. Generally, informal education is unorganized and often unsystematic; yet it accounts for the great bulk of any person's total lifetime learning – including that of even a highly 'schooled' person.

Formal education...is, of course, the highly institutionalized, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured 'education system,' spanning lower primary school and the upper reaches of the university.

Nonformal education...is any organized, systematic, educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular sub-groups of the population, adults as well as children. Thus, nonformal education includes, for example, agricultural extension and farmer training programmes, adult literacy programs, occupational skill training given outside the formal system, youth clubs with substantial educational purposes, and various community programs of instruction in health, family planning, cooperatives and the like.

Source: Coombs and Ahmed,cited in Rose(2007,p. 6)

Many writers view NFE as a collection of discrete but identifiable programmes. For some, it is reserved for short-term classes, systematic problem-oriented training activities and teaching of social and political skills. Others consider it as covering all adult basic and vocational education and training outside the school system.

They did not, however indicate how much basic or vocational education lay inside the formal system and what terms they would give to the many other forms of education (e.g. Religious education) outside of the formal system if they could no longer be called NFE(Rogers,2004,p.81-82).

Carron and Hill cited in Tassew (2007, p. 17), classify NFE into four major areas:

i. Para formal education: which intends to re-focus on school dropouts by programs such as evening classes, functional literacy programs or distance education.

ii. Popular education: such as community development skills, cooperative training and adult literacy programs.

iii. Personal development: which includes a short term training given by club centers, language institutions etc?

iv. Professional training: aimed at training of professional skills of various types, such as vocational training organized by firms, trade unions, private business institution etc.

2.1.4 Alternative basic education as one form of NFE

Different efforts have been undertaken to provide alternative educational opportunities for the millions of children and youths who did not get chance for formal education especially in developing countries of Africa and Asia. NFE has, in general, been an expression of the desire to provide education and facilitate learning through alternative modes of delivery for children and youngsters who have been unable to access formal educational opportunities. Alternative approaches are applicable to both formal and non formal learning situations and in time could be the means to harmonize the two in an integrated system of education, which brings both formal and non formal together with parity of esteem, and with due regard to diversity in a life-long learning framework (Befekadu,2006,p.2-3).

2.1.4.1 What is an alternative basic education?

Alternative Basic Education refers to a system of learning which is characterized by flexibility, capacity to recognize and creatively utilize diversity, and transparency in terms of the degree of openness – open access, open learning, and limitless opportunities to release the creative potential of the learners(ADEA,2001,p.5).

The current forms of alternative approaches are firstly, the direct results of the dysfunction of a de-culturated mainstream formal education; secondly, the desire of communities and groups to decide what and how their children must learn; thirdly, the developments at the regional and global levels e.g. the *Education for All Initiative* and other regional initiatives which have implications for education and lastly, the impact of educational philosophical thoughts (Befekadu, 2006, p.13-14).

2.1.4.2 ABE in Ethiopia

A shift from NFE to ABE in Ethiopia

ABE as a program has been introduced in Ethiopia through NGOs. The first major initiative was by Action Aid, a large international NGO committed "to help children, families, and communities in the poorest areas to overcome poverty and secure lasting improvements in the quality of their life". Drawing on its international experience, Action Aid proposed the adaptation to the Ethiopian context of an alternative approach first developed in Bangladesh by the Bangladesh Rural Action Committee (BRAC).This approach establishes small schools for girls in isolated rural communities, using locally educated women as paraprofessionals to reach a curriculum specially designed for local context. A flexible schedule, intensive instruction using innovative student-centered methods, and high quality guidance and support from knowledgeable supervisors enable this approach to provide the equivalent of four years of the official curriculum in three years. Action Aid introduced most of these initiatives to several features of North Omo Zone in 1992.Lator, the Action Aid initiative has been imitated by several other NGOs since then (MOE, 2000, p.5).

In 2000 the Ministry of Education of Ethiopia conducted a study on "Alternative Routes to Basic Primary Education" to investigate and assess the contribution of this non-conventional approach towards achieving UPE. Based on the findings of the study, the Ministry of Education saw the need for innovative and flexible approaches and special programmes to reach millions of hard to reach Ethiopian children including the pastoralist children. As a result, the three-year ESDP II that ran from 2002/03 to 2004/05 outlined clearly the need for ABE as a strategy to be adopted by all regions.

Since then, ABE is being integrated in the educational plans of the Regional Educational Bureaus. National Guidelines were issued for mainstreaming alternative basic education (ABE) graduates into the formal primary schools. A Task Force that specifically coordinates the implementation of ABE in pastoralist and semi-agriculturalist regions was set up in the Ministry of Education in 2004.

The Ministry of Education defined ABE as a form of basic primary education for school aged children, who are not enrolled in the formal education system. Four subjects(Mother tongue, English, Mathematics and Environmental science) are taught from level 1 to level 3 for three years. This is a condensed version of the first cycle of the primary school curriculum. The objective of the programme is stated as: "to provide good quality basic education that is equivalent to that of the first cycle of formal primary education (Grades 1-4) to children of pastoralist and semi-agricultural regions through an alternative mode of delivery suited to the socio-economic and cultural realities of the regions" (MOE, 2002b,p.4).

Main Features of the Programme include the following:

- A curriculum based on the formal curriculum for the first cycle of primary education (Grades 1-4), compressed into three years of three levels and is localized.

- Three consecutive levels each of which have duration of one year. Children who successfully complete the three-year programme can enter Grade 5 in the formal primary school.
- A flexible school day and academic calendar whereby children and community determine when and where to have classes.
- Facilitators, who are paraprofessionals selected by the community from the locally available educated manpower. The selection criteria include being versed in the mother tongue, the culture of the beneficiary community and a minimum of Grade 8 primary education. Preference is given to females.

Rationale for a recent focus on ABE

Ethiopia is one of those sub-Saharan African countries with the least participation of school age children in primary schools. To provide basic education to all citizens and achieve Universal Primary Education by the year 2015, the government has launched different programs especially in the rural areas. Non-formal and alternative basic education is the ones which received high attention by the government (Befekadu, 2006, p.1).

If alternative basic education is to play a more central role in universalizing primary schooling, it will need to be financed by the government, and the centers will need to be made an integral part of the whole system rather than left to continue as ad hoc experiments. In the process it will be important to retain the features that make alternative basic education highly relevant in the first place, particularly in rural contexts:—a flexible school day and academic calendar use of teachers from the community, simple classroom facilities, proximity to children's homes, strong in-service teacher support, and reliance on community participation (World Bank ,1988).

Recognizing the short comings of the ESDP I in bringing significant improvement in enrollment rates of the marginal areas of the country, ESDP II proposes a focus on ABE. In this regard the document states the following:

- Parallel to formal basic education, special attention will be given to non formal education to promote basic education.
- Different modes of delivery of primary education will be practiced in order to promote education in regions like afar and Somali where the gross enrollment rate is very low and the people's way of living is Nomadic(MOE,2000,p.3)

A review of ESDP-II identified the fact that about one-third of the school age children (over 4 million) were still out of school. The burden of over aged children who missed out of schooling due to inaccessibility of education services was also noted. ESDP-III therefore emphasised the need to strengthen NFE and other alternative modes of delivery to address these out-of-school children and so combat the problem of adult literacy and build up the human resource for development. The country's main guiding planning document, the PASDEP, also emphasises the need to strengthen ABE. It is recognised that without ABE the country will not achieve the EFA goals adopted in Dakar and the MDG targeting universal primary education.

2.2 Nomadic Pastorals Education and Development

The development of education for nomads is usually related to their mobility. The following section presents the historical origin of the term nomadism and the introduction of alternative learning models to enhance educational participation of the pastoral community.

2.2.1 Who are nomads/pastorals?

Lack of studies in the area of nomadic people makes it difficult to give precise definition to Nomads. A synthesis report of the study on the education of nomadic people in six east African countries reveals that there were differences on the definition of nomads even after the presentation and extensive discussion of the six country study reports (ADB/UNESCO, 2005, p.33). Thus, the definitions found in the limited available literature often relate nomadism to mobility (Ayalew et.al. cited in Abinur, 2005, p.25).

Nomads are socio-economic groups who travel and migrate in large or small clan groups in search of means of livelihood within a given area. The Greek word 'nomos' refers to a group of people who wander with their herds over a traditional route or area for a period of time in search of pasture (ADB/UNESCO, 2005).Because some nomadic groups are not attached to live stock breeding, a contemporary definition of the word "nomadism" refer to any type of existence characterized by the absence of a permanent homestead (IIZ/DVV, 2005, p.6).

Pastoralism is a subsistence (economic) pattern in which people make their living by tending herds of large animals, which depend mainly on natural vegetation for their food(UNICEF,2006). It is most often an adaptation to semi-arid open country in which farming cannot be easily sustained without importing irrigation water from great distances. This means that pastoralism could be the most efficient way of using resources in dry land and marginal areas. Pastoral nomadic societies can comprise nations, sharing a common culture, language, and what they perceive as equal citizenship and access right to a common territory. They are not necessarily bound to particular states (IIZ/DVV, 2005, p.6).Amidst the more than six billion people in the world, 200 million are pastoralists. Of this, Ethiopia is home to the largest group of pastoralists in Africa, estimated at 12-14 million, comprising over 15 percent of Ethiopia's population (Pastoral Forum Ethiopia cited in Pact-Ethiopia, 2006, p.7).

The pastoralists like any group are not a homogenous one. There are three main modes of pastoralist livelihoods: nomadic pastoralism; agro-pastoralism and; transhumant pastoralism (Wolde Michael cited in Abinur, 2005, p.25). Moreover in the attempt to make distinction between nomadism and pastoralism, Ezeomah (cited in IIZ/DVV 2005/p.6) classifies nomads in to three groups namely; hunters, food gatherers, itinerant workers and the pastoralists. An elaborated classification given by ADB/UNESCO (2005, p.34-35), is also discussed below:

Nomadic pastoralists: refer to pastoralists who mainly live and derive most of their food source and income from raising domestic stock; these do not have a recognized place of residence as they move from place to place. They are mainly found in very harsh arid and semi-arid environments. Matching the highly limited seasonal pasture supply with the constant feeding requirement of livestock is quite a challenge in these environments. Management of the animals therefore entails nomadism. Nomadic pastoralists move as a team (generally at the household level or may be two to three households) with varying degrees of co-operation and hostility among them. It is here where most of the pastorals living in Ethiopia belong to.

Agro- pastoralists: these are segments of pastoral husbandry society who promote opportunistic crop farming integrated to their livestock husbandry practices; these live in semi permanent settlements. The system develops from nomadic systems when livestock keepers settle around permanent sources of water and grow crops to supplement livestock production. An agro pastoral system is defined as one in which between 10% and 50% of household revenue is obtained from livestock and its products.

Transhumant pastoralist: are pastoralists who have a permanent home place and move over more or less regular routes.

Nomadic hunter-gatherers: refers to a nomadic group whose livelihoods depend on collecting wild fruits, honey, roots and hunting.

Transhumant hunter-gatherers: are hunter-gatherers who have temporary base camps and are mobile along some routes

Nomadic pastoralism has been a dominant feature among the Afars and Somalis living in Ethiopia. But with modernization and the opening up of these areas, these three types of pastoralism (nomadism, agro-pastoralism and transhumant) now exist (UNICEF, 2006). The Afar region has an estimated population of 1.9 million of which about 80% relies on transhumant animal husbandry for subsistence, while the remaining have established sedenterized

communities along the Awash river banks or along major transport routes. The Somali region has a population of about 4.2 million in which the major type of pastoralism for the rural population is nomadic, followed by Agro-pastoralism.

The key issue is that no matter the category, the pastoralist life is shaped by many socio-cultural factors. Their resources and economic assets and production relations are related to a cultural framework with certain values and traditions regarding the use of resources, property ownership and the division of productive roles. Similarly, their social institutions are shaped by certain cultural elements that define the basis of their social relationships by identifying resources, activities, actors and roles. The basis of pastoral organization almost everywhere in the world is the clan, a set of patrimonially related households traced in theory to an apical ancestor. Such groupings can be small, and the ancestry stretch back for only a short time span, or so great that the working kin group is a lineage. The preservation of these genealogies is very important (UNICEF, 2006).

The main economic activity of the pastoralists is livestock breeding-cattle, camels, goats and sheep. This economic pattern persists for a number of reasons: first, most macro-economies do not provide pastoralists with opportunities to improve the quality and quantity of their herds, and this being the case many pastoralists cannot afford to commercialize or diversify into other occupational areas. Secondly, pastoralists are not provided with marketing facilities that ensure adequate profits from animals and their produce. Thirdly, pastoralists have not been educated and trained to improve the animal husbandry sector (IIZ/DVV, 2005, p.8-9).

2.2.2 Pastorals education and development

Access to basic education lies at the heart of development. According to Rose (2007, p.4), lack of educational access, and securely acquired knowledge and skill, is both a part of the definition of poverty, and a means for its diminution. Sustained access is critical to long term improvements in productivity, the

reduction of inter-generational cycles of poverty, demographic transition, preventive health care, the empowerment of women, and reductions in inequality. When compared to other geographic locations, Nomadic pastoral areas have the highest rate of poverty and the least access to basic social services as they are living in areas which are less desirable to other groups; pastoralists receive the least proportion of investment in basic services.

Throughout history human progress has depended on access to clean water and on the ability of societies to harness the potential of water as a productive resource. Water for life in the household and water for livelihoods through production are two of the foundations for human development." (UNDP Human Development Report cited in pact Ethiopia, 2008, p.47). It is also cited in the report that an estimate of 40 billion hours per year will be needed to collect water in sub-Saharan Africa which is equivalent to a full year of labor for the entire workforce of France. One can easily deduce from this that the scarcity will affect more the pastoral community both in terms of survival and getting basic services.

Recognizing the role education plays in improving nomadic life, Ezeomah cited in VerEecke (1989, p.8), has identified the following as the benefits of nomadic education:

- They will learn to stand up for their grazing rights and to improve the land they do own;
- They will learn how to better feed and manage their herds;
- They will learn how and when to sell their livestock and how to increase milk production, that is, to maximize their profits;
- They will know more about health care for their families and animals;
- They can also be taught leadership abilities so that they can participate actively in the development programmes;
- They will also become aware of avenues of settlement should they decide to settle.

Though, there have been many attempts to establish educational services to meet the learning needs of nomadic pastoralists, on the whole, they are failed. For some, this is because pastoralists are unable to develop beyond traditional economic practices. For others, pastoralists are a minority community whose way of life and values are poorly understood and threatened by dominant social and political forces. Explaining this failure from the other perspective, anthropologists, such as Horowitz and Bennett cited in VerEecke (1989, p.4), have argued that many of the development programmes for nomads have failed because they have been based on generalized, unsubstantiated assumptions. These include the assumption that pastoralists are destructive of their natural environment; that a uniform model of pastoralists' economy is applicable to most African ecosystems; that all requirements, including land, capital, and pastoralists' cooperation, could be readily obtained; that restricted freedom of select peoples would not have negative social, cultural and economic repercussions; and that there would be no aberrations in environmental conditions (i.e. drought) during the development programmes.

The development of nomadic pastoral is usually associated to sedenterization.This is due to the fact that, for many, the only way that pastoralists can 'develop' is by seizing their nomadic way of life and becoming settled or sedentary. One of the arguments for trying to get the pastoralists to settle is that they are over grazing in the sense of covering wide tracts of land, so that there is insufficient land for already settled communities and they are unable to limit the number and range of movement of their animals. Moreover, it is presumed that increasing productivity through more efficient use of land can solve all deterioration of pasture or desertification (ADB/UNESCO, 2005). Development programmes, including those encompassing pastoralists, are best viewed as political phenomena. In reality, however, Policy formation and implementation is a process that entails a complex dialogue among administrators and planners, with the stakes including development funds and control over the target population (VerEecke,1989, p.4).

Nomadic and pastoralist children still do not enjoy their right to a basic education. It is estimated that there are between 25 million and 40 million children of school age living in nomadic or pastoralist households of whom only between ten per cent and 50 per cent attend school. Between 15 million and 25 million of the estimated 100 million of out-of-school children are probably nomads and pastoralists. While rates of participation and completion of basic education for pastoralist boys are very low, the rates for girls are far lower. There is little evidence, however, that pastoralist education has been addressed through major national initiatives in any country, with the exceptions of Uganda and Mongolia, since the World Education Forum in 1990 (Oxfam GB/ANCEFA, 2008,p.45).In Ethiopia, Pastoralists are among the populations with the lowest enrollment in education. In many of these communities, there is no school available at all, and in other areas, enrollment is only 20% or 30%. As Ethiopia is reaching 91 % gross enrollment nationally (Ministry of Education, 2007), it is evident that meeting the Education For All (EFA) targets must entail direct specific, and targeted attention toward enabling pastoral children to access to quality education(Pact-Ethiopia,2006,p.7).

It has been recognized that mere expansion of formal education provision, based on a model of what works in urban situations, is not enough to ensure that Education for All reaches nomadic and pastoralist children. Projects which have focused on getting nomadic boys and girls to adapt to the formal system, have not also been successful(Kratli, 2006, p.25).Supplementing to this, the UN Nomad study found that, across East Africa, when attempts were made to adapt the school calendar and timetable, the scale of adaptation was often insufficient to meet the needs of the pastoralists (ADB/UNESCO, 2005).Thus, there is a need to address the issue of education of the pastoralist community through an alternative strategy which is compatible to their mode of life .It also needs to be sensitive to issues of safe and accessible water supplies and food security, which have a huge impact on schooling opportunities for children in pastoralist zones.

2.2.3 Alternative learning models for pastoral children

The World Conference on EFA, in 1990, underlined that primary education must be universal, ensure that the basic learning needs of all children are satisfied, and take into account the culture, needs, and opportunities of the community. Supplementary alternative programmes can help meet the basic learning needs of children with limited or no access to formal schooling; provided that they share the same standards of learning applied to schools, and are adequately supported(Douglas in Abinur,p.9).

National education systems have provided primary education to the great majority of school-age children in developing countries, but in many cases have failed to reach historically underserved populations, including pastoralists. Across the developing world, the children not in school are often poor, isolated, and victimized by historic patterns of discrimination. Traditional education models hold little promise for meeting Education for All (EFA) goals of achieving access, completion, equity, and learning outcomes (USAID, 2001, p.1).

Though making basic education facilities accessible to all children is the basic requirement for achieving the goals of universal primary education, the attempts made to address pastoral children in the conventional schooling did not show any progress from the demand side. The reason behind little demand for schooling usually related to the socio-cultural factors characterizing the society, and there are also school related factors which tend to inhibit enrolment of pastoral children. To address this specific issue, several innovative initiatives are being implemented which are mostly non-formal in their nature. In this regard, some of the educational models and approaches that are being practiced in Ethiopia include the provision of education through: Alternative basic education, Shade of trees, Mobile schools, Quraanic schools, Multi grade model, distance learning, Boarding schools (Pact-Ethiopia, 2008).A brief description of each is given below:

Alternative basic education: Alternative basic education is a specific model of non formal education. In this program, learners cover the equivalent of the first four grades of primary school in just 3 years, and are then able to transit into the formal system. Alternative basic education is characterized by low-cost construction, community contribution to construction and school management, teaching in the local vernacular language, selection of a facilitator from the local community, accelerated learning and active, learner-centered teaching methodologies and focus on underserved populations (girls, disabled, the remote, rural). Alternative basic education targets children of ages 7-14, but practically, youth, and even adults, attend the classes. Alternative basic education has been useful in opening up access to education for a number of rural, poor, remote and other vulnerable groups. The model has been particularly useful for pastoral groups.

Trees Shades: Tree shade schools may take various approaches. Some tree shades are permanent venues for-longer term, less formal types of learning. One form of tree shade school is the mobile school, discussed further below, in which a community uses the tree, only for the time that it dwells in a particular locality. Other tree shade schools are temporary arrangements; until such time that more formal school are built. The difference between tree shade schools and mobile schools is that tree shade schools serve a large number of children who are usually somewhat settled and usually agro-pastoralist. But mobile schools serve the purely mobile pastorals. Studying under shade trees has a long history with various kinds of educational modalities, using the gathering point of the tree's shade for hundreds of years. Historically, Q'uranic schools, as well as Christian-based religious schools, have used the shade of trees as one of their primary educational venues.

Mobile schools: include schools on wheels, tent schools and various types of collapsible schools that are being used to bring education to the pastoralist people. The 'school' is either under a tent, temporary shade or a makeshift thatched structure to provide some shade during lessons. The premise is that

being a member of the community, the teacher will understand the sensitivities and culture of the community and live and move with them during migration or movement (APDA, 2007, p.16).

Quraanic schools: Q'uranic schools are a little known but an omnipresent education activity in Muslim communities across Ethiopia. Arabic language is learned and used in Q'uranic schools, as well as the local language of the participants. The Quran teacher almost always speaks the language of the students because he is recruited from the local community or a nearby community. Learning is conducted in a multi-grade fashion, with each student learning at their own pace, memorizing the verses of the Q'uran in sequence and coming to the teacher for another lesson when the previous verse had been mastered. Some *madrasa*s, larger religious schools, function in the same formal school buildings, while some communities built separate structures to ensure greater control and some function in homes. Many Q'uranic schools also occur just outside the mosque or under shade in the vicinity of the mosque.

Multi grade model: Most pastoralists are located in remote areas where a shortage of classrooms and shortage of teachers obliges learners of different levels to study in the same classroom. The UN Nomad study found that the training of nonformal education teachers, particularly in strategies for teaching multi-grade classrooms, was one of the most effective factors in reducing dropout in pastoral areas.Multi-grade pedagogy has not been systematically adopted in Ethiopia, though multi-grade teaching seems to be occurring in a piece-meal approach in regions, where this is the viable practical option. However teachers are not receiving any formal training in this approach and basic education implementers have not adopted this as a primary strategy.

Distance learning: While electricity, computers and internet are hard to come by in pastoral regions, Ethiopia has 90% coverage of the nation with radio education programs. Some report that pastoralists used to own radios much

more than highlanders .However few distance education initiatives have been found that target pastoral children. In recent years, the Education Development Center had designed a curriculum to reach formal and out-of-school children in Somali language. The program catered to children in multiple educational modalities. Q'uranic school teachers were often the facilitators of the program. The radio instructions were clear and sequential and so allowed the teachers to participate without further training.

Boarding schools: Approaches like mobile schools and alternative basic education move the school to the child. Boarding facilities move the child to the school. Boarding facilities in all pastoralist regions exist, be they managed by government, NGO, religious institutions or the students themselves. The traditional boarding school model results in offering a high quality education to only a few. This approach may be useful when the target is to create a cadre of educated pastoralists who can later move into positions of leadership. However, it leaves out the vast majority of pastoralists who were already left out and remain left out. According a report by APDA (2007, p.15), one major challenge of using such an approach is reluctance of parents to give their children to people they do not know, to whom they are not related, and whose moral integrity they often doubt.

2.3 The role of partnership in implementing ABE strategy

Access to basic education lies at the heart of development. Lack of educational access, and securely acquired knowledge and skill, is both a part of the definition of poverty, and a means for its diminution. Sustained access is critical to long term improvements in productivity, the reduction of inter-generational cycles of poverty, demographic transition, preventive health care, the empowerment of women, and reductions in inequality. Thus, the role of the state in basic education service delivery is considered relevant both given education's strategic importance in national identity formation(Rose, 2007,p.3).

At no point in time has development been a one-man (group) -Job. Rather, it has always been a collective endeavor of civil society and its various institutions as well as government and non-government organizations. The development of the education sector could be no exception (USAID, 2002,p.34).The need for GO-NGO partnership basically stems from the fact that education, like all other sectors of development, is a collective endeavor that demands the full participation of its various stakeholders. This is particularly true in a poor and developing country like Ethiopia where the problem of access to basic education is chronic ,the scarcity of resources is acute, rate per anum of population growth is alarming and settlement of the rural population that accounts for over 85% is dispersed.Thus,the aforementioned facts make it obvious that the goal set in the country's Education sector strategy to universalize primary education in 2015 cannot be realized by the sole effort of the government and through the conventional school system alone(MOE,2002,p.9-10).

2.3.1 Definition of partnership

The prince of Wales Business Leaders Forum, cited in MOE(2002,p.16), defines partnership as: a formal relationship between individuals or groups in which expectations and commitments are agreed beforehand and which has, at its heart, a shared profit, risk element and a relationship built upon fulfilling an obligation or completing a task. Although the definition given above appears to have its roots in business, it also applies to the education sector. The only change that needs to be made is in respect to the shared goal that is at the heart of partnership, which in the case of education would be attaining a certain set of educational objectives.

The term "partnership" has become an increasingly popular term in NGO-government relations. It signifies an admission that, whatever NGOs and governments believe their responsibilities to be, they do need to work together (USAID, 2002, p.20).On the other hand, though the notion of partnership reflects a certain admission of mutual dependence, it does not signal an end to

tension. Thus different to the notion of partnership given in the above definition, "Partnership" in the discourse and actions of government officials often means regaining control for the government and often a compromise in what NGOs wish to implement. In this regard, Partnerships can also provide a means for controlling NGO activities.

2.3.2 Characteristics of good partnership

Partnership has the following major attributes (MOE, 2002,p.17-18):

- It takes at least two parties to establish a partnership. When it comes to education, the potential partners are many. They include "teachers, head teachers, and local educational officials; parents and members and leaders of the local community; community associations, government and non-government organizations (NGOs); private enterprises and universities.
- A partnership is not a spontaneous relationship that comes casually on its own accord. It is rather a deliberate, formal and legitimate relationship mutually worked out by the partners involved.
- A partnership necessitates pooling the resources of partners and jointly working for the attainment of agreed upon (shared) goal(s) which they cannot fully realize through their individual effort.

For a partnership to be sustainable, it should be based on genuine collaboration of its actors. Mark Bray cited in MOE (2002, p.18), defines genuine partnership as the willingness to respect the viewpoints of other partners, identification of common tasks, and collaboration in pursuit of ways to accomplish the task. On the basis of the findings of his study on government-community partnerships in realizing the goals of EFA, Bray further underscores, that partnerships should abide by several principles:

- Partnerships need trust on both sides.
- Partnerships need long term commitment.
- Partnerships need clear and mutually accepted roles.
- Partners must focus on each other's big and small picture.
- Partnerships need nurturing.

2.3.3 Partnership in education

Education is a particular key service sector given it is the largest; most wide spread and visible state institution in the country, evident even in remote regions. Thus, the state is prominent actor in expanding educational access to citizens as it is a key for ensuring its legitimacy (Rose, 2007, p.3).On the other hand, it is also one of the most difficult institutions to govern and manage given its size, as well as its cultural, social and economic dimensions. Thus, even where legislation stipulates the state's responsibility to free and compulsory basic schooling, it is often not possible to provide universal access through state provision alone. Moreover, where state provision has been inadequate to fulfill demand, non-state provision has grown by default to fill the gap (USAID, 2002).

Magnifying the need for partnership in order to achieve the sacred goals of EFA, Article 7 of the declaration had underlined the necessity of new and revitalized partnerships at all levels i.e. partnerships among all sub-sectors and forms of education, partnerships between education and other government sectors; and partnerships between government and non-government organizations. In addition, the findings of a study conducted by the World Education Forum (Miller cited in MOE, 2002, p.25), attest that NGOs have proved to be worthy partners of EFA by providing innovative and alternative non-formal basic education especially in disadvantaged and remote areas where the institutional and financial capacity of African governments can no longer serve the most difficult to reach areas of the countries (USAID, 2002).

NGOs focus most of their activities in underserved communities not only because this is an area where they are less likely to compete with government, but also because it is where they believe they should be operating. Thus, what has come to define their niche in the education sector is partly the product of where they have seen an absence of government .In this regard, their proximity to a community have served as a conduit through which resources from

donation programs can flow directly to the community. Besides, NGOs bring their skills and experience into communities, shaping experiences of change in ways that can provide models for future community activities (UNICEF, 2006). Generally speaking, the reasons that make genuine GO-NGO partnerships an indispensable strategy to promote basic education can be summed-up in the following points (MOE, 2002, p.25-26):

- GO-NGO partnership will be instrumental to mobilize more resources, and consequently, increase the accessibility and quality of basic education.
- Both partners can share their experiences and expertise and employ them to serve the cause of EFA better.
- The education system will have more diversified modes of delivery and hence will be more capable of meeting the basic educational needs of society.
- Some of the virtues of the innovative non-formal basic education programs (such as cost-effectiveness, flexibility, and high community participation) can be injected into the conventional school system to expand access and improve quality and efficiency and vice-versa.
- NGOs will have a more favorable legal environment to run their programs.

Recognizing the contribution of the afore mentioned facts for better implementation of EFA goals at a country level, considerable attention has been given to the role of partnership in the education and training policy that is being currently under implementation in Ethiopia. In this regard the policy states that NGOs, in collaboration with MOE, will take part in organizing Non-formal education and training programs in the country. In addition to this, the education sector development program (ESDP) emphasizes the participation of the community at all stages of the development and execution of educational projects (MOE, 2002, p.36).

In relation to the government role to facilitate a conducive environment for the participation of NGOs and private sponsors in the education sector, the ESDP II states the following: with the efforts made by NGOs and investors to participate in education, support will be provided in giving them licenses, accreditation and respect for the right as stated in the proclamation: and involving them in educational sector is very essential. To actualize the above stated condition, that is to facilitate the efforts made by NGOs and investors in expanding and obtaining quality education, they will be provided with ample support in obtaining relevant information and guidance, appropriate preconditions to obtain land, work licenses, and supervision services (MOE, 2002,p.37).

2.3.3.1 Types of partnership

i. Partnership between government and non-governmental organizations

With renewed focus on expanding primary schooling particularly since the 1990 Education for All (EFA) commitments and in line with the education Millennium Development Goals (MDG), greater attention is being paid by some donors and governments to the role that non-state providers could play in supporting the state in achieving targets, while continuing to view the state as the main provider. This invites consideration of the changing role that the state needs to play in supporting basic education service delivery in situations where it is not the direct provider, while maintaining its legitimacy, where legitimacy is understood as the ability of the government to work in the interest of the public and demonstrate fairness to all groups in providing security and services (Rose, 2007, p.3).

NGOs play different roles in supporting education service delivery. Some NGOs are primarily involved in lobbying and advocating for educational reform, working individually and through networks to participate in policy dialogue in many African countries aimed at putting pressure on governments fulfill their commitment to ensuring access for all children to an education of acceptable quality (USAID, 2002). Some NGOs, on the other hand are involved directly in

provision, primarily with respect to providing education to the excluded. Educational exclusion can take many forms, including those 'hard-to-reach' with respect to gender, street children, orphans, child soldiers demobilized children in post-conflict areas, pastoralists, indigenous groups, language, faith, disability, refugees, child laborers etc (UNESCO, 2001).

NGO provision is, however a relatively recent phenomenon. It has grown significantly in the context of the international policy agenda of the 1980s and 1990s associated in particular with the Washington and Post-Washington Consensus. The international agenda have directed attention towards economic liberalization and democratic governance, one implication of which is a growing trend by donor agencies since the 1990s to channel aid to developing countries through international NGOs (USAID,2002).While NGO provision is often associated with non-profit motivation, with the terms NGO and non-profit sometimes used interchangeably, it can take many forms. Motivations of NGOs can vary depending on whether they are established as 'beneficiaries', 'mercenaries', 'missionaries' or 'revolutionaries' (Rose,2007,p.4-5).

Major Characterstics, of Government and NGOs pertinent to partnership

The government, with all the state apparatus at its disposal is indeed a vital force that can direct the destiny of a given country in a positive or negative way. The same holds true with regard to partnership formulation. Supplementing to this, Shaeffer cited in MOE (2002, p.21), pointed out that the role government plays could be encouraging or discouraging depending on its political line underlying philosophy, legitimacy and strength.Thus,a government that is democratic and adheres to the bottom-up approach of development will encourage a multi-sectoral endeavor that demands the concerted and collective effort of various stakeholders while the one which is an autocratic and upholds a top-down mentality will resist, discourage or actively prohibit partnership.

Whereas NGOs are generally characterized as people-centred, flexible, responsive, creative, democratic, non-hierarchical and cost-effective, there are instances where they may also have rigid and bureaucratic structures, inadequate staff and inefficient management, and narrowly defined target groups and agendas closely tied to political and organizational ends(Shaeffer cited in MOE(2002,p.22).

Factors affecting GO/NGO partnership in the education sector

The underlying differences between Government and NGO beliefs generate actions, which define their interactions and there by the kind of partnership to be crated between them. One major problem Shaeffer cited in MOE (2002, p.22-23), is related to the suspicion and fear one party holds over the other. According to him, Governments tend to believe that NGOs:

- Create discord between government and the people;
- Criticize the policies and programmes of the state severely and consequently weaken its relationships with foreign countries and donor agencies;
- Undermine the state's models and frame works of development.

On the other, NGOs tend to believe that:

- Increased funding of NGOs may lead to the withdrawal of the state from its social responsibilities;
- Increasing co-ordination of NGOs by the government may undermine their decentralized and community based initiatives;
- More frequent government legislation and regulation concerning NGOs in developing countries may hinder rather than promote their activities;
- Linkage with the government may erode their role as creative and responsive actors in their own right.

A study conducted on "partnership" by USAID in 2002 has also strengthened shaeffer's assumption. In this regard, the study suggested legitimacy, efficiency/capacity and motivation to be the areas of perception difference that makes one party suspicious of the other. A brief discussion on each of these, supplemented by diagrammatic representation, is given below:

(a) Perception on legitimacy:

This is related to the tensions between government assumptions about its rights and responsibilities and NGO beliefs about its responsibility to intervene where governments fail to meet these obligations. Each acts according to a perception of what they should be doing, which molds NGO roles as well as the interactions between NGOs and government.

Governments generally believe that it is their legitimate right and responsibility to control everything that happens in their country. As a consequence, when NGOs work in this sector, they inevitably require some sort of accommodation with government. The amount of space allowed to NGOs in any given country is determined by political considerations as well as by any calculation of the contribution of NGOs to economic and social development. NGOs, on the other hand, believe that they have a legitimate right to intervene where governments have failed to meet their commitments to communities. In this regard, most international and local NGOs prefer to work close to communities, especially disadvantaged communities, because that is where they see the most need for their assistance.

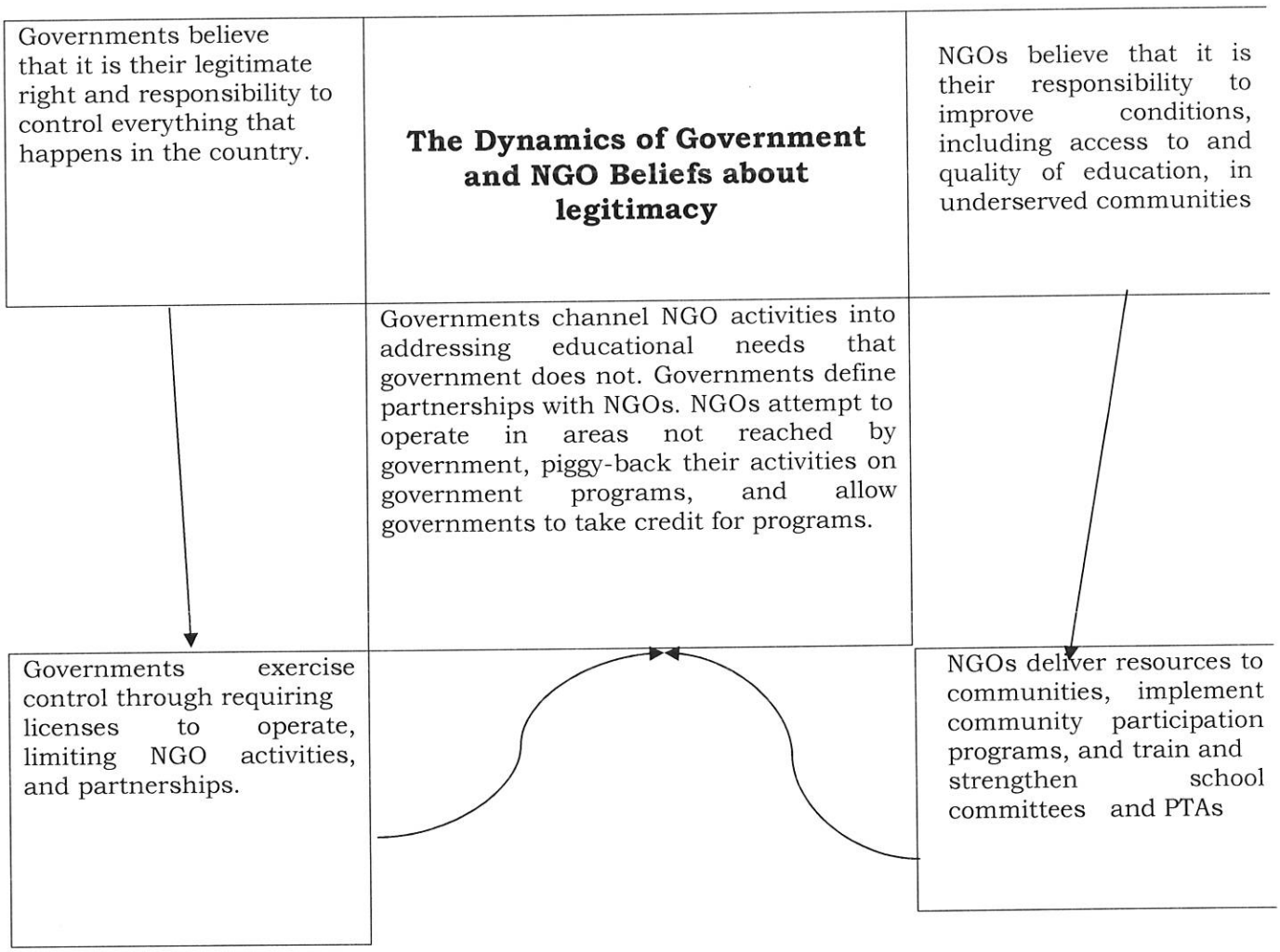


Figure 1. The Dynamics of Government and NGO Beliefs about legitimacy

(Adapted from, USAID, 2002)

(b)Perception on efficiency/capacity:

NGOs working in education in Africa tend to believe that governments are inefficient in providing access to quality education for all members of the society. They believe that education statistics that demonstrate the failures of governments to adequately supply quality schooling in most African countries are in support to this conclusion. Because it is more difficult and expensive to reach marginal populations or communities on the periphery, government has most often failed to meet access and quality needs in these areas. To fill this gap in schooling, NGOs have frequently stepped in to supply education.

Governments, however, say that they are not inefficient; rather, they are unable to do what they were supposed simply because they do not have enough resources. Thus, they argue that they would be as efficient as NGOs if they had as much money to spend.

Some of the continuous pressure put on NGO-supported alternative schooling lies in government perceptions of NGO capacity. Government believes that it has hired individuals with training and experience in education to design and manage the country's education system. The MOE runs teacher training colleges, writes curricula, selects and hires teachers, and sets standards for the entire system through its policies. The MOE perceives local NGO personnel as individuals with no training or experience in education. The government sees international NGOs as one who takes experienced teachers from the education sector and this issue is raised, especially when government staff has been hired by the NGOs. Plus, international NGOs frequently employ local NGOs to implement their programs without supplying what the government considers sufficient monitoring and supervision. Thus, government believes that local education offices must supervise the local NGO activities, a situation frequently described as a partnership by the government and a proof of sustainability by the donors; Governments believe that its responsibility is to maintain quality, standards, and uniformity and often feel that NGOs deliberately ignore government policy. In general, all governments require continued legitimization through effective provision of services, yet they fear that NGOs could undermine government legitimacy if their provision of education services is seen as superior.

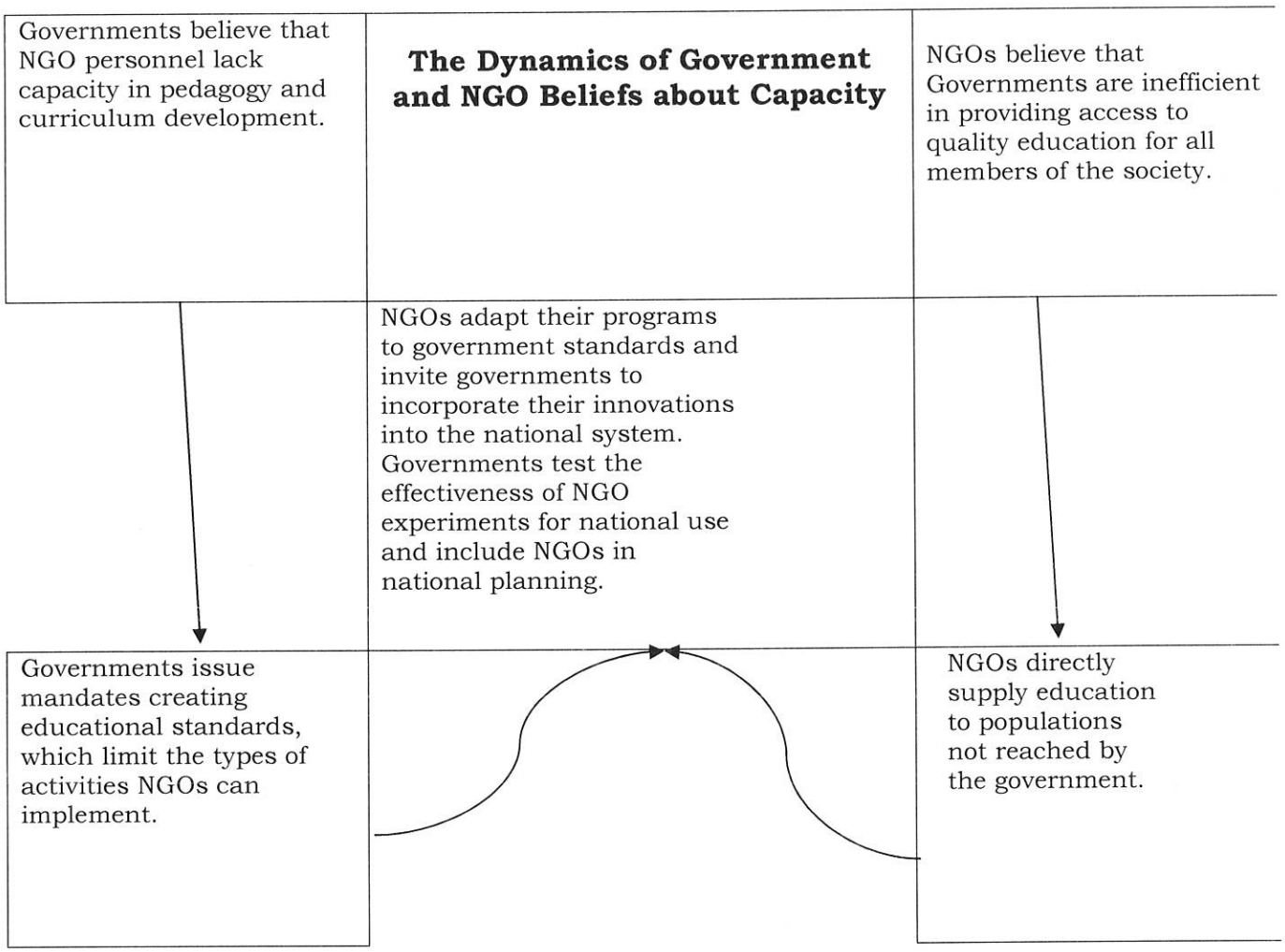


Figure 2. The Dynamics of Government and NGO Beliefs about Capacity

(Adapted from, USAID, 2002)

(c)Perception on Motivation:

Governments question the motives of NGOs. The basic concern stems from the fact that NGOs are not government—they are private organizations and need to attract funding to survive. Governments believe NGOs' role should be to deliver the plans created and monitored by the government. Governments do not see NGOs as a resource to experiment and test new approaches. Indeed, government officials are concerned with "duplication" of NGO programs. Although governments often say that they would experiment with innovative programs if they had the resources to do so, they generally do not. One

obstacle is that governments almost always implement change on a national level. Where governments have attempted to pilot innovations,they have had to carefully locate the programs at sites in all geographic areas for political reasons.

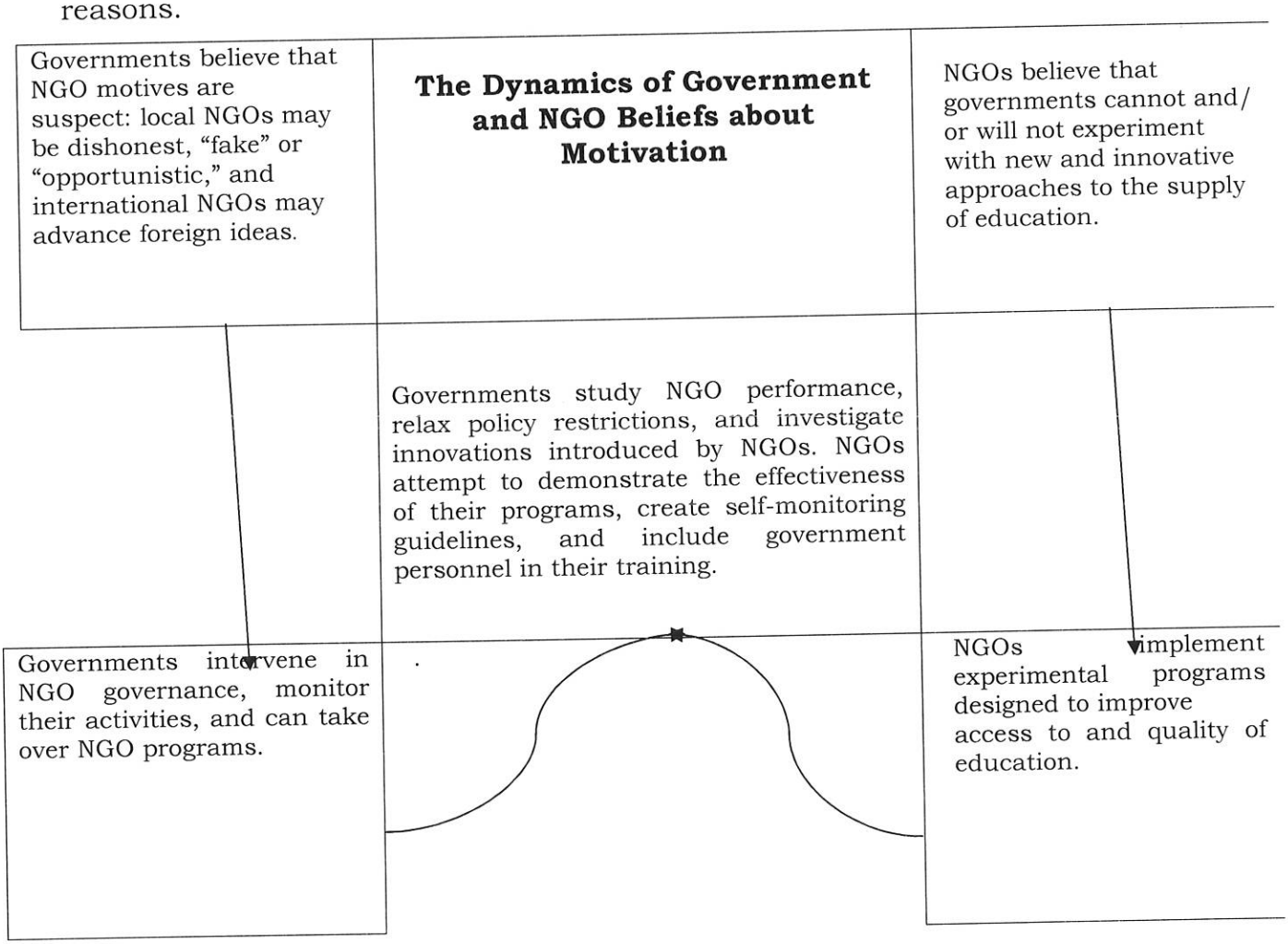


Figure 3. The Dynamics of Government and NGO Beliefs about Motivation (Adapted from, USAID, 2002)

While there is some similarity in characteristics of non-formal education programmes provided by NGOs, there may be differences in the ways in which they adapt pedagogical approaches, depending on whether they intend to develop particular skills, or provide accelerated learning for basic literacy and numeracy (Rose, 2007, p.10).

ii. Partnership between the Community and Government and non-governmental organizations

In the context of global development initiatives such as the millennium development target, low-income countries are under increasing international and domestic pressure to meet these goals through encouraging stake holders' participation. The World Bank cited in *Morgan (2006, p.340),* describes participation as "a process through which the stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and resources which affect them". Considered in educational context, the central idea behind this notion is while the State retains responsibility for setting national objectives, mobilizing resources and maintaining educational standards, NGOs, community groups, religious bodies and commercial enterprises can all contribute, making education a more vital part of the life of the whole community.

In education, the formation of partnership has become a central concept in planning and managing education, especially in situations where significant numbers of children are deprived of education. Thus, community engagement in schooling delivery and management is emerging as a "best practice" thought necessary to achieve universal primary enrollment while improving the quality and relevance of teaching and learning. Besides its role in improving schooling, community participation is also believed to democratize top-down, colonially imported education systems. *In this regard,* the kind of participation that is likely to be the most sustainable and effective in increasing both educational access and quality is one based on balanced partnerships between the state and communities (MOE, 2002, p.9).

Many current theories regarding the relationship between community involvement and increased school efficiency and student learning are based on the premise that in traditional society, the community is the primary provider of children's education. Besides, it is now believed that though the state has

significant role for the expansion of educational opportunity in developing countries, centralized thinking will also impede understanding of local needs and the distribution of resources in a way that favorably influence school outcomes (Cummings & Williams cited in *Morgan, 2006, p.346).Thus, it is now believed on the necessity of including the community in development initiatives. So the question is then what should be the area of participation?*

International institutions and governments in developing countries often use community participation to mean locally driven reform. While these institutions have concluded that community participation is important for educational access and quality, few studies offer empirical evidence to indicate how exactly parents and other community members are involved in supporting schools, and whether that support is related to school management, finance, teaching and learning, or other aspects of schooling. *According to Morgan (2006, p.339), a large portion of what is characterized as community participation ,particularly exercised in developing countries now a days, is monetary contributions rather than involvement in decision making or teaching and learning. She also shows that there are particular challenges for the participation of women and the poor, and in the provision of financial incentives and technical assistance that encourage broad-based decision making so as to create incentives for broader community participation.*

The question of the financial contribution of the community has given rise to controversy: Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948) stipulates that "Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages". The Jomtien Declaration, on the other hand, advocates on the need to mobilize existing and new financial and human resources, public, private and voluntary (UNICEF, 1999).One of the main arguments in favor of community contributions is when community contributions cover a major part of the operating budget, it will encourage partnerships between the two actors and lead communities to become more fully involved in the system.

Others argue that to enhance the expansion of state-supported primary education, getting parents and other community members actively engaged — such as by advocating for greater government support or by contributing material and financial resources — may yet be an essential strategy for extending access to schooling to the world's children who are still deprived of basic education. Conversely, there are those who point out that, at present, communities do not usually have much control over the education system, even though they contribute to it in a major way. In a number of governmental programmes, community financing is considered to be an alternative to direct taxation, and communities have no more control over their funds than they would have over tax revenues. Also, communities may have only a limited role in programmes organized by donors (*Morgan, 2006, p.340).*

State-community partnership models:

The primary model of community-school partnerships as represented by Bray (2000) is one in which education provision and decision making are shared between the government and the community. Other partnership models, such as William's (1997), emphasize that the relative power of these partners can vary greatly, as can the roles each partner plays. According to William's model, Partnership arrangements range from the division of labor between partners (e.g., governments provide the teachers, the communities provide the teacher housing) to nearly complete community responsibility for the delivery and management of schooling (community provision of school buildings and teacher salaries, government provision of curriculum) (*Morgan, 2006, p.346-347).*Each of these analytic models depicts the community as a willing and able partner to the state in schooling, and they offer two key principles. First, when communities have the space and opportunity to enter into a dialogue with the state, education interventions are likely to take local contexts into consideration, making them more effective. Second, while contributing supplemental material resources can be an important part of a community's

role in supporting schooling, the most effective partnerships retain strong state financial support for key schooling inputs and strike a balance between community and state ownership of the school with regard to both finance and decision making (*Morgan, 2006, p.347).*

The basic partnership models, however, are limited in that they do not seek to demonstrate the education *domains* in which the community may be involved. The question of domains of action is critical to understanding the process through which community participation might actually effect positive change in school efficiency and school-based teaching and learning. Models, explaining the different areas in which communities can become partner, include six domains for community participation in schooling: infrastructure and maintenance, management and administration, teacher support and supervision, pedagogy and classroom support, student supervision, and student recruitment. In addition to studying the domains of participation, several theorists have developed schemas categorizing the extent to which communities are involved in education. Shaeffer in *Morgan(2006, p.347),* describes that range as a ladder with seven rungs, the lowest of which represents the weakest form of community involvement in education, the mere use of a service such as a school. The highest rung represents true responsibility and power, described as participation in real decision making at every stage, such as problem identification, feasibility study, planning, implementation, and evaluation. The scale of participation is also a question of who in a community is participating. Is a "community" participating if only its officials are involved? If only men have contact with the school? If only the rich have the voice, time, and means to participate? *(Morgan, 2006, p.346).*

In Ethiopia, the government explicitly and officially states that community participation is intended to cover a number of domains and lead to "local ownership" of schools. The policy documents and testimonies of local education officials, however, are also clear that this ownership is intended to translate

first and foremost into cost-sharing arrangements between the state and parents of students. In this regard, the 1994 Education Sector Strategy stated: schools will be strongly linked with the community, which will take responsibility in its well-being and upkeep. They will be made to be responsive to the local needs and requirements and shall act as centers for all educational activities of the community. The management of each school will be democratized and run with the participation of the community, the teachers, the students and the relevant government institutions (Transitional Government of Ethiopia, 1994, pp. 16–17).

The FDRE's subsequent ESDP I and II Program Action Plans also underline the role of the community in education delivery and management. The Program Action Plans of ESDP II give specific examples of ways communities can participate, including "policy formulation, project implementation and problem solving," as well as "construction of new school buildings..., school maintenance, and mobilization of parents to increase enrollment, especially that of girls" (MOE, 2002). ESDP II also greatly emphasizes the role of communities in helping to fund the education sector program, aiming to have "mechanisms designed so that community will voluntarily and directly contribute to the financing of education based on its capacity." This strategy also intends to "promote a sense of ownership and thereby raise the community's own role in the management of schools" (MOE, 2002).

Although some research indicates that decentralization could be a way to increase local-level participation in governance, decentralization alone is not a sole guarantor of such participation (World Bank cited in *Morgan, 2006, p.341).* Theoretical questions of partnership, domain and, scale have important implications for decentralization reforms such as those in Ethiopia. Centralized management systems have often been criticized for the fact that their rigid, hierarchical structures constrain community involvement in decision making. On the other hand, while decentralization intends to transfer decision making

power and resources to a wide popular base at the community level, it also often also places additional responsibility for finance and service delivery at the local level. In this regard, some reports characterize the Ethiopian system as highly hierarchical, meaning that higher levels of government still made important management decisions regarding policy and resource allocation and then passed down these decisions as orders to the lower levels (Girishankar, Alemayehu, & Ahmed cited in *Morgan, 2006, p.342).*

2.4 Managing ABE programs in governmental and NGO projects

The origin of theories of educational management is traced to the development of management theory in industrial and business environments. Management in any organization has a core role to play because, without it people in the organization would go-off on their own and work towards their own objectives independently of others. According to Murugan (2005,p.3), management consists in guiding human and physical resources into dynamic, hard-hitting organization unit that attain its objectives to the satisfaction of those served and with a high degree of morale and sense of attainment on the part of those rendering the service.

Traditional approaches to management are essentially oriented to management of industriai organization involved in production activities with well-defined structure and functions. In contrast, in education, particularly in alternative mode of deliveries such as Non-formal education programs that consist of field based activities, people oriented management approaches which are dynamic, flexible and adaptive to quickly changing settings are demanded (UNESCO, 1994 cited in Abinur, 2005, p.45).The major managerial activities in the education system, in general include three stages: planning, implementation and monitoring and evaluation.

2.4.1 The process of planning

Planning is a process through which managers determine goals and device the means for utilizing resources to accomplish them. In other words, planning is the process of defining organizational objectives and then articulating strategies, tactics, and operations necessary to achieve those objectives (Forojalla, 1993, p.89). It is important to note that even though the scope and complexity of planning may differ from one institutional level to another, the planning process is essentially the same. It is an intellectual exercise resulting in making decisions about courses of action to be taken in the future. According to Cunningham (1982, p.4), the purpose of planning is to provide a bridge between useful knowledge and purposeful coordinated action.

Educational planning is defined as the process by which an analysis of the present condition of an education system is made in order to determine and devise ways of reaching a desired future state. He further elaborate that, this process involves the assessment of existing situations including institutional structure and financial and human resource, and the evolution of a strategy of action (Forojalla, 1993:38).

2.4.1.1 Approaches to Educational Planning

There are various approaches to educational planning. Balani, et.al in Abinur (2005, p.31) identifies four basic approaches; these are (i) social justice approach, (ii) social-demand approach, (iii) man-power approach and (iv) cost-benefit or rate of return approach.

They further justified that, mostly more than one approaches are utilized for taking meaningful and appropriate decisions, in educational planning. For example, social justice approach can be used in elementary education; social demand and social justice approaches in the case of secondary education and man-power and cost-benefit approaches in tertiary education.

Generally, the central task of educational planning is to recognize inadequacies in the present condition that point to the need of change. Dissatisfaction with current goals, programs or activities encourages planning as a way to achieve improvements (Forojalla, 1990:39). Thus, planning is needed to find solutions to problems and to give the organization its forward direction.

Furthermore, Cunningham(1982,p.48),states that the planning process to meet basic learning needs of a certain community should include (1) identifying the learning needs of the community (2) diagnosing the societal resources and requirements in order to define the basic levels of learning suited to its context. He further elaborates that, such diagnosis requires analyzing the community or national background, characteristics, financial constraints, current educational effects and effects and present conditions of societal development.

2.4.1.2 Characteristics of education planning

Planning in general and educational planning in particular has essential features. Forojalla (1993,p.39-40), identifies three features of planning.

(i) Planning is concerned with the future and with development. Starting with understanding of the present, it goes on to consider the likely future conditions. It requires the skill of anticipating, influencing and controlling the nature and direction of change.

(ii) It deals with the consequences of active interventions with actions that will influence the present to change into something better in the future. In this case, planning is beyond forecasting and predicting the future, it involves such policy measures that will direct future development towards more desirable ends.

(iii) Planning is closely linked not only with policy making but also with making decisions because decisions are translated into systematic programs of action for implementation through planning.

2.4.1.3 Types of Planning

Plans are classified on the basis of the scope of activities to be covered. The following three types are common:

Strategic planning

Strategic planning is the process through which managers determine the organizations basic mission and the set of means for achieving the mission. Strategic planning is prepared by the top level executives. Strategy defines the basis for all the further steps in planning after policy formulation and objective setting. It can be thought of as the overall approach which an organization selects to move it towards its objective (Forojalla, 1990,P.93).

Tactical Planning

Tactical planning is the process through which managers design coherent groups of activities to accomplish a strategy. It is a means of translating strategies into short-term tactics. Middle-level managers are responsible for formulating the tactical plans of the organization.

It is important to distinguish between strategy and tactics in educational development planning. Strategy is a general course of action which an organization pursues in order to achieve its goals, whereas tactics refers to specific programs which must be carried out for the successful implementation of the strategy (Forojalla, 1990,P.95).Tactics attempts to indicate the kind of procedures to be chosen in a particular given situation. As it is always being subordinate to strategy, it helps educational administrators in implementing the goals envisaged in a strategic plan.

In general, tactical plans:

- Facilitate objectives, because they are prepared as a performance targets.
- Translate the strategic plans into measurable tactical objectives tend to be short term, usually not more than two years.

- Prepared by middle managers who are responsible in directing departments, divisions or other similar sub units of the organization.

Operational Planning

Operational planning is the process through which managers design specific activities and steps to accomplish objectives. Whereas strategic and tactical planning has time horizons of a number of years, operational planning has a very short time frame, usually a few months.

2.4.2 Implementation

Once the plan has been formally adopted as an act of parliament, it now passes from the planning technicians to the administrators for implementation. Bhola cited in Kassahun (1997, 16), defines implementation as a process of putting what has been planned into action. The implementation of policies and strategies is concerned with the design and management of systems to achieve the best integration of people, structures, procedures and resources, in reaching organizational purposes (Steiner & Miner cited in Harvey, 1982, p.237).

- Public information- The priority function of the administrators in the process of implementation is to organize an efficient system of information. According to Forojalla, in most African countries the generality of the population who were supposed to be involved in the formulation of development programmes are often requested for their co-operation at the implementation stage.

  In this regard he suggests that education administrators need to educate the population on the objectives and targets, as well as the rationale behind the choice of priorities, so as to enlist their support and generate enthusiasm for the successful implementation of the plan. It is important to pay particular attention to innovations which are likely to affect children and allay the fears of parents over them.

- Participation of other organizations-This is related to determination of ways and means through which local, religious or private agencies who have stake in the education system are ensured to take part in plan implementation.
- Process of implementation-The third administrative function in plan implementation is to organize the process of implementation itself. In a situation where more than one governmental or non-governmental agency has a special role in the realization of the plan targets, then machinery for coordination and liaison among them should be organized.
- Plan elaboration-This is normally a joint task involving the planning unit and the administrators as it entails a lot of detailed work. Basically, it consists of reducing the plan into component units for action in a program or project form.
- Evaluation and revision-such evaluation can be considered in terms of internal output and external efficiency. While internal output or productivity looks at the rate of progress made in realizing the targets set in the plan, the efficiency of the work done will be considered in terms of such factors as minimum cost, maximum utilization of facilities and maximum benefit to the public.

Effective policy implementation is also related to the considerable care taken at the planning stage. Misjudging ease of implementation is perhaps the most frequent error in policy planning. According to Haddad (1995, p36), implementation is the time when one discovers that schedules are unrealistic and programs are over ambitious. Thus, the occurrences of such problems need to be solved by taking a flexible approach during implementation. In this regard, Haddad argues no matter how well anticipated during planning, policy implementation always brings some surprises. To address this, one of two ways could be used:

- Designing the implementation in stages; if anticipated problem arises at a given stage, reevaluation of the plan for implementation and the decision itself will be made.
- Conducting a well-designed pilot studies before full implementation of any projects

2.4.3 Monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring and evaluation go hand-in-hand because good monitoring lays a foundation by collecting and providing data/information that is required to conduct an evaluation. Accordingly, Casley and Lury cited in Kassahun(1997,p.16), defined monitoring as the provision of information, and the use of that information to enable the management to assess progress of implementation and take timely decision to ensure that progress is maintained according to the schedule initially planned.

Different people mean different things when they use the word "evaluation". They might also do evaluations in different ways, use it for different purposes, or even use different standards to decide on what good evaluation should look like. One well-known definition, originated by Ralph Tyler, perceives evaluation as the process of determining to what extent the educational objectives are actually being realized (Tyler cited in Kassahun, 1997, p.18).

Evaluation can be of two kinds, formative and summative. While evaluation is used for the improvement and development of an ongoing activity or program in its formative function, it is used for accountability, certification, selection or continuation in its summative function.

With regard to the aspect of an object to be evaluated, earlier approaches had focused mainly on results or outcomes.Thus,to evaluate an educational object(e.g., a work shop)would mean to evaluate the quality of the results of its functioning(e.g., participant's achievements).In recent years, some interesting attempts have been made to extend the scope of evaluation variables in various evaluation models.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The research design of this study was as follows.

3.1 Methodology

Descriptive survey method is used in this research since it specifically focuses on investigating the issues, practices and problems in the management and implementation of Alternative Basic Education. Moreover, a descriptive survey method was preferred on the assumption that it could help to gather a large variety of data related to the subject under investigation and allows the researcher to explore exemplary collaborations as well as typical bottle necks that need to be tackled in order to enhance partnership among Government and ABE providing NGOs of the region.

3.2 Source of Data

Alternative basic education is an approach used in the Afar Regional State, particularly to reach the unreachable. In this regard though very few in number, a number of NGOs are playing their own role in supporting the regional government in expanding children educational access to children through this mode of delivery. As the study intends to assess the comparative contribution of these NGOs with Government's effort, all the 3 NGOs; namely Care-Ethiopia, Ethiopian Muslims Relief and Development Association (EMRDA) and Kelem Education and Training Association, which are involved directly in ABE provision, are taken as source for this study. Besides, Government ABE centers were also taken from Woredas in which these NGO are working.

Primary and secondary sources of data were consulted to obtain information about the subject under study. Primary data was gathered through questionnaire, interview, and focus group discussion. Besides, relevant documents were analyzed to secure secondary data. Data was collected from REB Education officials, Woreda Education officials, NGO ABE program heads, alternative basic education facilitators and coordinators, community representatives and students.

3.3 Samples and Sampling procedures

The Afar Regional State has five zones and 32 woredas. Purposeful sampling technique was used to select four woredas, out of the 3 zones taking into consideration the availability of at least one NGO working directly on ABE program. Woredas included in the sample were Addar, Fentale, Dulecha, and Telalak. Within the four sample woredas, there are a total of 48 Government and NGO ABE centers; of which 16 (8 Governmental and 8 Non-governmental) were selected based on their relative accessibility. The following table shows the sample woredas and ABE centers selected in this study.

Table 1.1 Sample woredas and ABE centers included in the study

Region	Zone	Sample woredas	Total No. of ABEs	Sample ABESs	
				Governmental ABE centers	NGO ABE centers
Afar Regional State	one	1	11	2	2
	Three	2	24	4	4
	five	1	13	2	2
Total		4	48	8	8

With regard to the sample size, a total of 135 respondents were included. Of these, eight WEO officials i.e. the educational program and supervision head and the educational support desk (section) head and four NGO Woreda ABE program heads were purposefully included in the study. Besides, two heads of the planning department and the curriculum department, one NGO coordinator at region level, and one ABE expert who is coordinator of the program at the REB were included in the study with similar sampling technique. In addition, all facilitators of the sample ABE centers (16 Governmental and 16 Non-governmental), 8 Woreda coordinators of NGO providers, 40 community representatives, and 40 students from the sample ABE centers were included in the study using availability sampling method. Summary of the population participated is given below.

Table 1.2 Sample populations

No.	Samples	Number	Total
1	REB and WEO officials/experts	-2 respondents from REB, -4 x 2 respondents from WEO	10
2	NGO ABE program heads	-1 respondents from Region office -4x1 respondents from woredas	5
3	Facilitators	-4 x 4x2 respondents from NGO and Government ABE centers	32
4	Coordinators	-4 x 2 respondents from woredas	8
5	Community representatives	-4 x 2x5 respondents from woredas	40
6	Students	-4 x 2x5 respondents from woredas	40
		Grand total	135

3.4 Instruments and Procedure of Data Collection

It is well known that selecting appropriate methodology depends upon the type of research and its purposes. In this research, both quantitative and qualitative methods of data gathering techniques were employed. Accordingly, three types of instruments were used for collecting qualitative data: structured interviews, focus group discussion, and observation. Moreover, questionnaire and document analysis were also used for obtaining quantitative results **(see Appendices 1-5).**

To begin with, the researcher visited the Regional Education Bureau to get a clear picture of the general involvement of NGOs in the Regions' ABE program and to select sample out of them. Then, he also consulted the sample NGOs to gather back ground information about their organization and the ABE programs they run.

The next step was the preparation of data collection instruments. In this regard, detailed study of the literature review was first carried out to identify the areas of concern. Based on this initial investigation, questionnaires were prepared and pretested in the nearby woreda to test the clarity of each questionnaire and assess how long it will take the respondents to fill it. Besides, structured interview guide, focus group discussion guides, and observation check lists were separately prepared based on the research questions.

Questionnaire with both close and open-ended items was used to collect data from the ABE facilitators' and coordinators/supervisors. The questionnaire was administered to 40 facilitators and coordinators of which, 35(87.5 percent) were returned. It was particularly useful to get information from the direct actors of the program, the facilitators, which could otherwise be difficult to get information of a wider scope using another data collecting instrument within the limited time available.

Information from the Regional Education Bureau, WEO and NGOs ABE program heads was collected using an interview guide. Interviews provide opportunities to respondents to express their opinions on issues raised in a wider context than questionnaire. It also provides opportunity to collect data from illiterates and respondents in lower grades. On top of this, it enable the researcher get more clarification on ambiguous responses. To this end, 15(100 percent) target groups were interviewed.

Community representatives and students were also consulted using focus group discussion guide lines. An observation check list was used to collect data during the field visit for this study.

3.5 Techniques of Data analysis

The collected data were analyzed through quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods. The data obtained through questionnaire were first computed using Excel and SPSS to generate frequencies and percentages, and then narratives were written describing the results that emerged. Comparative analysis of some variables of the two ABE providers-Government and NGO, were employed using non-parametric and parametric tests based on whether the data type to be analyzed is nominal or scale. The qualitative data obtained from interview, observation and focus group discussion were grouped and analyzed in terms of the type of the information they supplement in the questionnaire.

Hence, the following descriptive statistical methods were used to analyze the study:

1) Frequency counts and percentages were employed to analyze the characteristics of the sample respondents. These statistical methods were employed to determine and describe respondents' characteristics such as: sex, age, educational level, and work experience of the respondents.

2) Different statistical tools such as mean, standard deviation, grand mean, chi-square, and t-test were employed to analyze the data. These statistical tools were used to quantify, and describe similarities and differences between different groups of respondents.

3) Mean and standard deviation were used to analyze and compare the availability of human, financial and material resources for the ABE programs in Government and NGO sponsored ABE centers.

4) Chi-square(X^2) test at 0.5 level of significance was used to determine the difference between two sets of categorical data based on frequency counts.

5) The t-test was used to check whether there are significant mean differences between the responses of the two groups with regard to functions performed by Government and NGO sponsors in the planning and implementation of ABE.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

This chapter deals with presentation and analysis of the data that are obtained from the sample population of both Government and NGO respondents through questionnaire, interview, observation, and document analysis. It is categorized into six major parts.

The first part (4.1) deals with the profile of the sample respondents in terms of their age, gender, qualification, and relevant work experience.

The second part (4.2) presents and analyses the current status of ABE program in Afar Regional State and in the sample woredas in relation to access and coverage.

The third part (4.3) probes deep into the analysis of the state of stake holders' participation, institutional and resource capacity, and partnership and networking in the planning and implementation of the program in the region.

The fourth part (4.4) deals with issues of curriculum, learning facilities, facilitator's training and supervisory services.

The fifth part (4.5) treats the issues of monitoring and evaluation and impact assessment.

The last part (4.6) summarizes the good practices of both providers with potential to be replicated and major problems encountered in the implementation of ABE program in the region.

4.1 Characteristics of Respondents

Under this section, the background of the sample population of the study is presented and analyzed. It includes the background characteristics of REB and WEO Officials/Experts, NGO Program Officers, ABE facilitators and coordinators/Supervisors.

Both NGO and Government respondents were asked to indicate their back ground information through an interview. The Facilitators and Coordinators were also asked the same information through questionnaire.

4.1.1 Sex and Age of Respondents

The respondents for the study were composed of 35 facilitators and Coordinators whose age ranges between 20 and 35.Of these, 8 were females. In addition, 15 Government/NGO Officials and Experts from the Region and the sample woreda offices, of which one is female, were purposefully interviewed to capitalize on the information gathered through questionnaire. The age range for this group was between 26 and 50. Summary of these characteristics are found below.

Table 4.1. Sex and Age of Respondents

No	Item	Respondents							
		Facilitators		Coordinators /Supervisors		NGO program Officers		Education Officers/Experts	
		No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
1	**Sex:**								
	A. Male	23	82.1	7	100	5	100	9	90.0
	B. Female	5	17.9	-	-	-	-	1	10.0
	Total	28	100	7	100	5	100	10	100
2	**Age:**								
	A. 20-25	23	82.1	1	14.2	-	-	-	-
	B. 26-30	5	17.9	3	42.9	2	40	2	20
	C. 31-35	-	-	3	42.9	1	20	4	40
	D. 36-40	-	-	-	-	2	40	2	20
	E.Above 40	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	20
	Total	28	100	7	100	5	100	10	100

Table 4.1 clearly indicates the distribution of sex and age of respondents. All NGO program officers, all coordinators/ supervisors, 9(90 percent) of education officials/experts, and 23(82.1percent) of facilitators were male, while only 1(10 percent) of education officials/experts and 5(17.9 percent) of facilitators were female. The participation of females, in this regard is said to be lower than their male counter parts indicating the existence of a challenge to bring more females to the system.

In terms of age distribution,23 (82.1 percent) of the facilitators and 1 (14.2 percent) coordinators/ supervisors were between the age range of 20-25,and 5(17.9 percent) of the facilitators,3(42.9 percent) of coordinators/ supervisors ,2(40 percent) of NGO project officers and 2(20 percent) of educational experts were between the age range of 26-30.While 3(42.9 percent) of coordinators/ supervisors ,1(20 percent) of NGO project officers and 4(40 percent) of educational experts were between the age range of 31-35, 2(40 percent) of NGO project officers and 2(20 percent) of educational experts were between the age range of 36-40,and 2(20 percent) educational experts were above 40.

In general, the maturity of most educational experts and NGO project officers, accompanied by their relatively longer years of experience, has enabled the researcher to secure more detailed information in an interview which could otherwise be difficult to rely on the data collected through questionnaire alone.

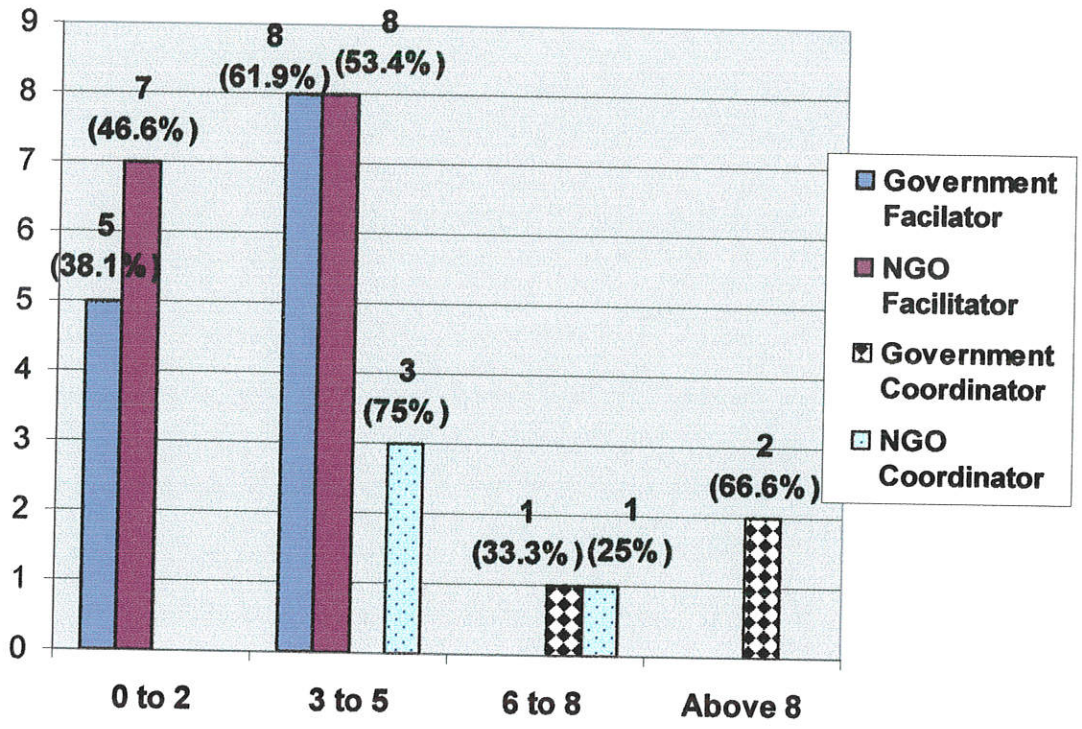
4.1.2 Educational Level and Work Experience of Respondents

The effectiveness of any educational delivery, among other factors, is determined by the qualification, experience and training of the personnel involved in running it. This sub-section is therefore, intended to assess the educational level and work experience of the sample respondents. Accordingly, both NGOs and Government respondents were asked to indicate their educational level and work experience through interview. The facilitators and coordinators/supervisors were also asked this information through a questionnaire.

4.1.2 A. Work Experience and Educational Level of ABE facilitators and coordinators/supervisors

The minimum standard set for a teacher to be recruited in the first cycle primary is a TTI certificate. Recognizing the difficulty of finding people who can speak the mother tongue (Afargna) and fulfill the above qualification, the ABE guideline prepared by the Ministry of Education in 2000 set grade 8 completion as criteria for the recruitment of facilitators in pastoral regions. The following figures compare the educational status and work experience of Government facilitators and coordinators to that of NGOs.

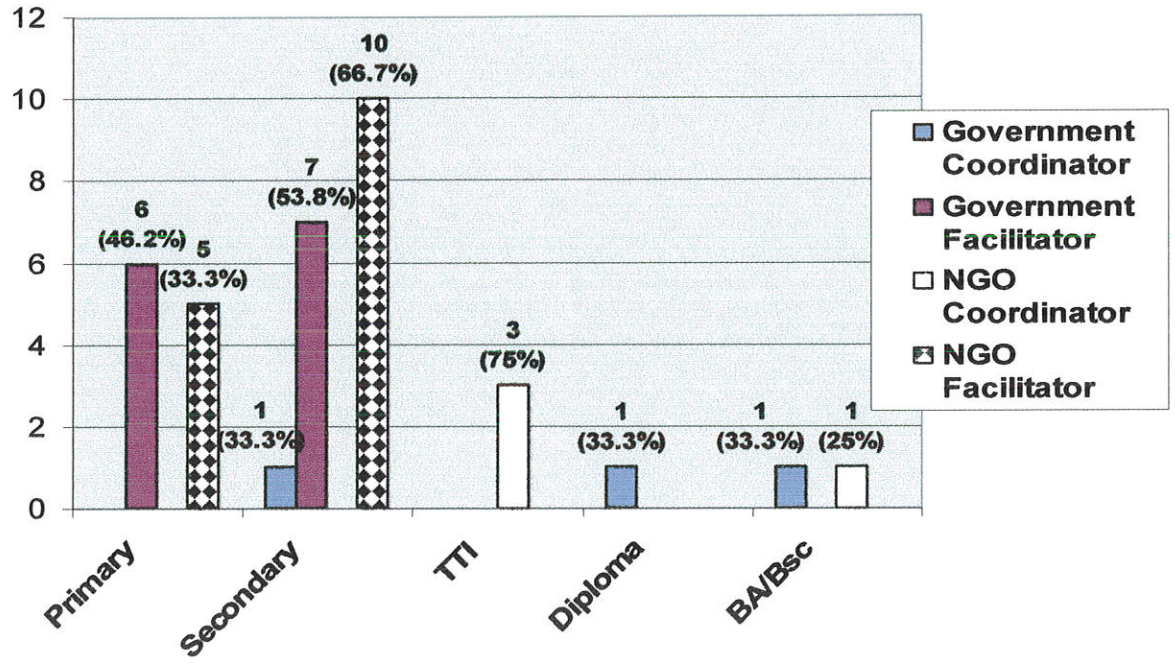
Fig 4.1 Graphic summary of the work Experience of ABE facilitators and program coordinators/supervisors



As shown in the graph, 75 percent of the NGO supervisors/coordinators have less than 5 years of relevant experience to their current position. Comparatively, almost all the supervisors/coordinators in government offices have relatively higher experience.

With regard to facilitators, there is no significant difference in service year between the two groups. This could be accounted for ABE implementation being a recent phenomenon in the region.

Fig.4.2 Graphic Summary of the Educational Level of ABE Facilitators and Coordinators/Supervisors



As depicted in the graph, about 67 percent of the Coordinators/Supervisors in the Government offices hold a college diploma and above compared to their counter parts at NGO offices where the majority (75 percent) have only a TTI certificate. The finding also revealed that one of the samples among the WEO was found not having a supervisor at all.

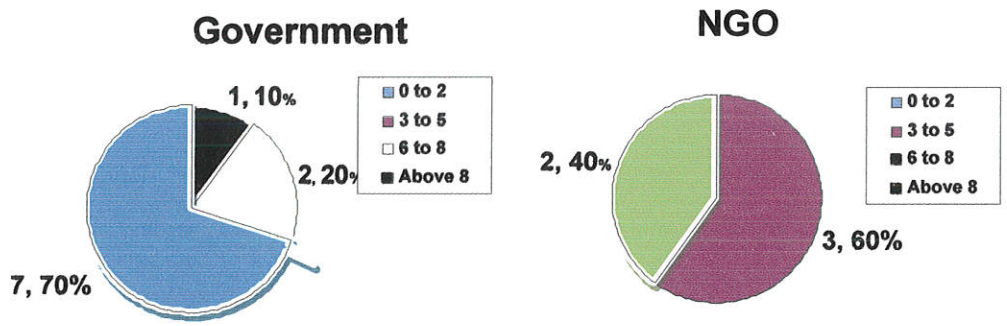
On the other hand, compared to about 67 percent of the facilitators in the sample NGO ABE centers whose educational status is a secondary level; it is only about 54 percent of the facilitators in Government ABE centers that possesses the above education status. About 46 percent and 33 percent of facilitators in Government and NGOs ABE centers are at primary education level respectively.

This implies that, though the policy guide line previously mentioned set a minimum criterion to be grade 8 for facilitator selection, it remains still a challenge for the region to recruit a facilitator who speaks the mother tongue (Afargna) along with the aforementioned qualification.

4.1.2 B. Work Experience and Educational Qualification of REB and WEO Officials/Experts and NGO program officers

Managing educational programs is a complex task that needs capable leaders who have general knowledge about the education system and certain technical skills of the teaching learning process that has been acquired through experience and training. In this regard, the following figures show the status of the respondents from these two parameters.

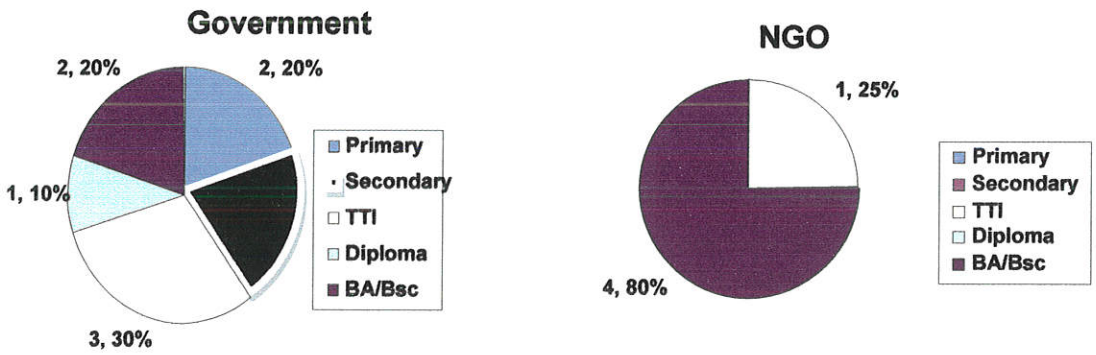
Fig 4.3 Graphic Summary of the Work Experience of REB and WEO officials/experts and NGO project officers



The finding, as shown in the above figure, has shown a possession of ample experiences by the REB and WEO officials/experts; while 7 (70 percent) of them have a work experience of more than 8 years, 2(20 percent) of them have worked 6-8 years and only 1(10 percent) has a work experience of between 3-5 years. When we look at the NGOs' program officers work experience, 2 (40 percent) of them have an experience ranging between 6-8 years and 3(60 percent) have job experience in the range of 3-5 years.

In general, most of the personnel working in the Government Education Offices seem to have higher (above 5 years) relevant experience compared to the personnel working in the NGOs' offices. Thus, existence of experts with such relatively longer year of experience in the field of education, at least theoretically, is expected to enable the region and the respective Woreda Education Offices to facilitate effective implementation of the program.

Fig 4.4 Graphic Summary of Educational Qualification of REB and WEO officials/experts and NGO project officers



The summary graph shows that about 80% of the respondents in the NGO offices hold BA/BSc compared to 20% of Government Officers/experts who held similar qualification. This implies that the educational level of NGOs personnel is fairly high compared to their Government counterparts. It has to be recalled from the previous discussion that this proportion is almost the reverse for what has been found for coordinators/supervisors. Moreover, though it could be accounted for lack of skilled man power in the region, the study as depicted in the above table has also revealed the existence of officials at WEO with only primary education.

4.2 Analysis of the Contribution of ABE to Improve Access and Coverage in Afar Regional State and in the sample woredas

Afar is one of the regions in Ethiopia having the least participation of school age children at primary level. To improve basic education access to pastoral children, various policy measures and strategic interventions have been made so far. The introduction of Alternative Basic Education program is one among these interventions that received high attention by the government to raise the participation of primary education and bridge the gap between emerging regions and the relatively developed ones. Hence, an attempt has been made in this study to review documents to analyze the contribution of ABE in improving access and coverage in the region and in the sample woredas.

4.2.1 The Contribution of ABE to Improve Access and Coverage

ABE program in Afar Region was started in 2004 in three pilot woredas (Abala, Amibara, and Elidar) with 14 ABE centers (MOE, 2006, p.30) .The major objective was increasing access to basic education for pastoral children whose opportunity for formal education is limited. Accordingly, it is found that a total of 24,424(16,471 male and 7,953 female) students were enrolled in 303 ABE centers and the number of facilitators were 387(364 male and 23 female) for the year 2007/08 academic year. In 2007/08 the primary school (1-8) GER at national level has become 95.6 percent while the regional comparison shows a large gap between Addis Ababa with 114.3 percent and Afar with 26.2 percent GER (MOE, p.7). It was with the intention of narrowing such a gap that ABE has been introduced to reach the unreachable since 2000.Moreover, to follow up the progress and its contribution, ABE data has also been included since 2004/05 in reporting regular education status of the country. Accordingly, GER and NER reflect the contribution of ABE to primary education. The following table shows the situation in Afar from this perspective.

Table 4.2:- Contribution of ABE in the increment of GER in Afar region

Year	School age Population (7-14)	Enrolment				Total	
		Primary (1-8)		ABE			
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
2003/04	249,408	36890	14.8	-	-	36890	14.8
2004/05	251,991	44761	17.8	7910	3.1	52671	20.9
2005/06	254,690	47855	18.7	7949	3.1	55804	21.9
2006/07	260,324	49,490	19.0	8,432	3.2	57922	22.2
2007/08	316,692	58,594	18.5	24,424	7.7	83,018	26.2

Source: Ministry of education, 2008, unpublished

Table 4.2 shows that the GER at primary level increased by 11.4 percentage points between 2007/08 and 2003/04. On the other hand, the GER in Primary and ABE between these years has shown respectively 3.5 and 7.7 percentage point's growth. Therefore, it is clear from the trend observed that ABE has shown an increasing rate of contribution to the growth of GER in the region even better than the primary level. Though the progress registered in GER at regional level is encouraging and the contribution of ABE program seems a good start, the rate of expansion of the program is not comparable to the 90% target set in the ESDP III for the region for 2010 and the significant number of children who are still out of school. Besides, as depicted in the 2007/08 MOE Annual Abstract, Afar, next to Somali, is a region with highest average annual growth rate(22.5 percent) implying the need for specific efforts to be made to increase the rate of expansion proportionally to the increasing annual enrollment rate.

On the other hand, there is also a need to do a lot to retain its efficiency and improve the quality of the program along with the expansion efforts. In this regard, though the researcher is unable to get data that separately capture the extent of ABE efficiency in the region, it is worth mentioning that the observation he conducted to the ABE centers during data collection for this study made him insist on whether the number reported in educational abstracts is actually available on ground. Another important point to be raised

here is the extent of reliability and consistency of enrollment data which is collected at Federal and Regional levels. For instance, the GER for Afar Regional State in 2006/07, as is shown in the above table, is 22.2 percent while data for the same year according to Afar REB 2005 annual abstract is 30.45 percent. The reason for this difference could be the inclusion of literacy program data of some NGOs in the regional abstract considering it as ABE which actually is not.

4.2.2 ABE share of Government and NGOs by Woreda in 2006/07

In order to increase educational coverage and close the disparity among regions, improving the effectiveness and efficiency of ABE delivery is very important. In this regard, a concerted effort is needed from all actors-governmental and non-governmental institutions running the program. Currently, a total of four NGOs namely; Afar Pastoralist Development Association (APDA), CARE Awash, Ethiopian Muslim's Relief and Development Association (EMRDA), and Kelem Education and Training Association (KETA) are directly involved in ABE program delivery in the region. The following table compares the share between government and NGO ABE programs to improve access and coverage in the region.

Table 4.3:-Students Enrolment in Governmental and Non-Governmental ABE programs by Woreda by 2006/07

Zone	Woreda	ABE Enrollment (Total)	Government ABE	%	NGO ABE	%
One	Aysayta	1289	905	70.2	384	29.8
	Afambo	551	551	100	0	0
	Elidar	1292	701	54.3	591	45.7
	Mille	1275	958	75.1	317	24.9
	Dubti	1388	408	29.4	980	70.6
	Chiffra	474	421	88.8	53	11.2
		6269	**3944**	**62.9**	**2325**	**37.1**
Two	Abala	525	525	100	0	0
	Koniba	695	695	100	0	0
	Afdera	468	158	33.8	310	66.2
	Berhale	1202	1202	100	0	0
	Megale	597	597	100	0	0
	Dalle	1026	1026	100	0	0
	Erebti	483	483	100	0	0
		4996	**4686**	**93.8**	**310**	**6.2**
Three	Fentale	1063	1063	100	0	0
	Amibara	690	690	100	0	0
	Gewane	1242	814	65.5	428	34.5
	Dulecha	2013	915	45.5	1098	54.5
	Argoba	335	335	100	0	0
	Bure-mudaitu	489	489	100	0	0
		5832	**4306**	**73.8**	**1526**	**26.2**
Four	Gulna	675	675	100	0	0
	Yallo	346	346	100	0	0
	Teru	437	437	100	0	0
	Awra	1044	50	4.8	994	95.2
	Ewa	1658	164	9.9	1494	90.1
		4160	**1672**	**40.1**	**2488**	**59.8**
Five	Semurobi	530	530	100	0	0
	Fursi	376	376	100	0	0
	Telalek	570	0	0	570	100
	Dewe	651	214	32.9	437	62.1
	Dalfage	160	160	100	0	0
		2287	**1280**	**55.9**	**1007**	**44.1**
Total		**23544**	**15888**	**67.5**	**7656**	**32.5**

Source: - *Afar Region Education Bureau Planning Department, 2008*

As shown in Table 4.3, the total number of students enrolled in ABE was 23,544 in 2006/07. Among these, a large number of them, 6239 (26.5 percent) and 5832(24.7 percent) were enrolled in zone one and three, respectively. When seen comparatively,the above table indicates Dulecha with 2013(8.5 percent) from zone three and Ewa with 1658 (7.0 percent) from zone four had enrolled the highest number of students. In contrast, the lowest number of students' enrollment 160 (0.68 percent) was in zone five Dalifage in the same year. In general, zone one and three have relatively high enrolment rate compared to zone two, four and five. Perhaps, the reasons for better enrolment in these zones are; first, the international highway that connect the country to Djibouti pass through zone one and three, secondly big plantation farms are also found in these zones, particularly in Amibara, Dubti and Aysayta woredas. Hence, it is expected that these zones can have better access to modern social services, including education that could enable them develop good attitude towards the value of education.

The same table also compares the number of students enrolled in government and NGO ABE programs for the year 2006/07.Accordingly, 15888 (67.5 percent) and 7656 (32.5 percent) were enrolled in government and NGO programs respectively. In general, though they are very few in number and their program areas are limited to very few woredas; NGOs contribution to improve educational coverage in the region seems significant. In this regard, it is also found that even the pioneers in introducing ABE program in two of the sample woredas (Dulecha and Tellalak) of this study are NGOs.

On the other hand, compared to the very poor educational coverage still persisting in the region, the participation of NGOs in the program is said to be low. An interview was conducted, in this regard, to identify the limiting factors that affect NGOs participation in the region. Accordingly, most of the respondents related the problem to the harsh climate prevalent in the largest portion of the region and availability of poor infrastructure in most of the woredas. Besides, it is also mentioned that the advocacy made both at national

and regional level to attract more NGOs to the region is very low. Absence of commitment and lack of capacity in the REB and WEOs to manage the existing NGOs and loose coordination among the NGOs are another challenges mentioned by the respondents.

4.3 Analysis of the State of ABE planning and implementation

Implementation of a strategy can be effective if the stake holders are part of it from the very inception of its initiation. Besides, appropriate institutional structure and sufficient resource has to be in place. In this regard, the following section discuses the responses gathered on issues of participatory planning, and availability of conducive environment enabling effective implementation of the ABE strategy in the region.

4.3.1 The extent of stakeholders' participation in Planning and implementation of the program

The central task of educational planning is to recognize inadequacies in the present condition that point to the need for change. This process involves assessing the existing situation and designing a course of action through the involvement of concerned beneficiaries. In light of this, the planning process of ABE program in the sample woredas of the Afar region was examined.

4.3.1.1 Target group participation in need assessment

Education is a service that plays a great role in social development and transformation. To provide this service effectively and efficiently as demanded by the beneficiaries, it needs the participation of all stakeholders from planning up to implementation. In this regard, this sub-section discusses issues related to the existence of learning need assessment and the extent of target group participation in planning and implementation before ABE was launched as a strategy in the region. The summary of responses gathered from the respondents is shown in the table below.

Table 4.4–Target group participation in learning need assessment

Item	Training Providers									
	Government(n=16)				Non-government(n=19)				X 2	df
	Yes	%	No	%	Yes	%	No	%		
1. The existence of learning need assessment	8	50.0	8	50.0	15	78.9	4	21.1	3.22	1
2. Target groups' participation in learning needs assessment	5	31.3	11	68.7	11	57.8	8	42.2	2.47	1

As depicted in Table 4.4, the Yes-No responses collected from the two providers regarding the existence of need assessment is in 50:50 ratio in the case of government facilitators and coordinators/supervisors, which is 79:21 for the NGO side. This implies that compared to the government offices, the extent of undertaking need assessment before the program was launched in the locality was better in the case of NGOs. The chi-square result (X=3.22,df=1,at alpha 0.05),however, shows that there is no difference between the two providers in this perspective.

On top of this, in an interview conducted with government and NGO officials of the sample woredas, most of the sample from government officials has admitted that they did not make such exercise to launch the program and simply entered into implementation as the direction comes from the government. In their reflection to this issue, the government respondents from the REB explain that, the preliminary need assessment survey to launch the program was conducted by the Federal and Regional experts only in few selected woredas of the region. Thus, it is possible to conclude that there was no formal need assessment done by the WEOs when ABE program was launched in the localities.

An extended question was raised for the respondents on whether or not they themselves have got the chance to participate in the need assessment of the program. They were also requested to tell the extent of the local community participation. The same table discusses the finding.

As can be seen from the previous table, 68.7 % of the government respondents have never participated in any activities of needs assessment in the locality. In the non-government side; however, a total of 57.8% respondents have been given the chance to participate in the assessment of the learning needs of the beneficiary. The chi-square (X=2.47,df=1,at alpha 0.05)once again shows no difference.

In response to the question which says "who participate in the need assessment", the interviewee from the non-government program officers noted that their project staff together with the community and concerned experts from the woreda education bureau have participated.

4.3.1.2 Stakeholders' role in the process of designing a plan and implementation of the program

Stakeholders' participation in planning and implementation of a given strategy, as discussed previously, is among the meanses that enable ensure its effectiveness and sustainability. The following tables compare the mean of responses of the government and NGO respondents on the extent of the stakeholders' role during the planning and implementation phases of the program in the sample woredas . Table 4.5 presents responses collected on general conditions that need to take care of while designing the program. Table 4.6 shows specific responses on functions that indicate target group's involvement.

Table 4.5 Mean distribution of the responses on the extent of stake holders' consideration in the process of program design

Item No	The extent of stakeholders' consideration in the process of program design	Mean and Standard Deviation of the Responses				Over all t	df
		Government		Non-government			
		Mean N=16	SD	Mean N=19	SD		
1	The involvement of stake holders in the planning process	2.63	.597	3.25	.577		
2	The level of dialogue made among stakeholder groups	2.52	.512	2.93	.680		
3	Linkage of learning program planning to the development framework of the community	2.52	.512	2.50	.516		
4	Reflection of different needs and characteristics of different target groups	2.31	.749	2.93	.680		
5	The extent to which the ABE programs designed fit with national programs and strategies	2.63	.683	2.88	.619		
6	Over all rate of the extent of stake holders' consideration in the process of program design	2.52	.384	2.90	.301	3.157	33

(5 = Very high, 4 = High, 3 = Medium, 2 = Low, 1 = very low)

The findings in table 4.5 show that in the government program, the extent of participation in the process of program design was rated between 2.31 and 2.63, which indicates low level of involvement of the actors who are supposed to contribute a lot for its effective implementation. On the other hand, the mean values for the NGO program has shown variation from 2.50 to a relatively better rate of 3.25 indicating some what fair performance compared to the government offices. This is particularly true with regard to stake holders' involvement in the planning process, the level of dialogue made, and the inclusion of specific learner's need. On top of this, the over all t-test ($t=3.157$, $df=33$, $P<0.05$), indicate the existence of differences between the responses of the two providers on the extent stake holders' were considered during program design.

On the other hand, though there seems a difference between the two actors in their effort to include the stake holders view in the process of program design, the overall mean is below medium (2.52 and 2.90 for government and NGOs respectively)indicating poor performance of both providers on this parameter. Moreover, the interview the researcher conducted with REB, WEO and NGO project officers, confirmed that the involvement of stakeholders in the program design in general is weak though there is improvement in recent years. Among the possible causes for low participation, the interviewee mentioned the following: low commitment of the government and NGO officials to take the initiative, mobility of the community in search of water and pasture, and absence of the tradition for cooperation among GO/NGO development agents.

Another point worth mentioning here is despite the existence of a challenge in ensuring sustainability of the program due to shortage of water and pasture, there is no mechanism developed to link the ABE program with other sectors working on rural development, such as water, health, and animal husbandry.

Table 4.6 Mean distribution of the responses on the availability of conducive environment for program implementation

Item No	The Availability of conducive environment for program implementation	Mean and Standard Deviation of the Responses				Over all t	Df
		Government		Non-government			
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
1	Level of decentralization of management of ABE programmes to give local actors a real opportunity to make decisions about their own learning and resource arrangements	3.56	.813	3.63	1.38		
2	Alignment or compliance of the program planned with implemented activities	2.87	1.20	4.05	.848		
3	Availability of sufficient resource (human and financial) to run the program	2.62	1.08	3.84	1.16		
4	Organization of the learning venue with the necessary facilities and equipment	3.12	1.31	4.21	.854		
5	Conduciveness of the environment for the learning	3.38	.619	3.63	1.16		
6	Interest of children for joining ABE program	3.37	.619	3.47	1.30		
7	Over all rate of The availability of conducive environment for program implementation	3.00	.564	3.64	.530	3.46	33

(5 = Very high, 4 = High, 3 = Medium, 2 = Low, 1 = very low)

Besides planning, program implementation also needs attention to reach to a predetermined target of a given strategy; Implementation is the process of putting what has been planned into action (Bhola in Kassahun, 1997, p.16).

Table 4.6 shows the responses of facilitators and coordinators/ supervisors on the extent to which the environment was conducive to implement ABE programs effectively. In this regard, the mean average for government

respondents was between 2.62 and 3.56 with an average mean of 3.00 while that of NGOs was in the range of 3.63 and 4.21 with an average mean of 3.64 implying the existence of difference between the two actors and relatively better implementation in NGOs ABE programs. Supplementing to this, the value for the t-test has also revealed that there exists difference between the two providers ($t=3.455$, $df=33$, $P<0.05$).

As can be seen from the table, in terms of resource availability and alignment of the planned program with implemented activities, the mean values for government sponsored ABE programs are 2.62 and 2.87 respectively. It can be deduced from this that though the woredas as a result of decentralization have got the power for decision on resources, they actually do not have the resources on which they decide. The difference in compliance between planned and implemented activities is again wider for the government program which could be accounted for shortage of qualified personnel in these offices. It has to be recalled here what Tomasevski (2003, p.101) ,said: "a commitment to specified ends without a corresponding commitment to the means necessary to attain them leaves the ends unattained".

Similarly, the interview conducted with most of WEO showed the existence of an acute resource shortage to run the program. Thus, despite the very intention of decentralization in speeding up decision on resources and strategy, it seems that most of the woreda level offices are deprived of the resource base on which they decide. This is also true for most of the sample NGOs except for slight differences which could be explained in terms of availability of better school facilities. The issue of resource will be treated once again in a latter section.

Table 4.7 Mean distribution of responses on functions performed by the stake holders in planning and implementation of ABE programs

Item No	Stake holders functions	Facilitators		Community		WEO		Donors/ NGOs	
		Mean		Mean		Mean		Mean	
		Gov	Ngo	Gov	Ngo	Gov	Ngo	Gov	Ngo
1	Participate in learning needs-assessment	1.87	3.15	2.50	2.10	1.94	1.91	4.15	4.18
2	Participate in selection of learners	3.31	2.06	2.87	2.73	4.62	4.21	2.93	2.89
3	Participate in planning program	2.56	3.31	2.75	2.84	2.44	2.31	2.75	3.63
4	Participate in the management of ABE centers	3.63	3.38	2.12	2.26	2.25	2.63	2.12	2.89
5	Participate in the monitoring and evaluation of the program	3.50	3.42	2.56	3.00	1.75	1.84	3.00	2.91
	Over all mean	3.25	3.04	2.57	2.70	2.76	2.74	2.70	3.08

It has already been observed from table 4.5 that compared to NGO sponsored ABE programs, the participation of stakeholders' in Government sponsored programs is very low. Table 4.7 here presents the extent of participation of the different stake holders (facilitators, community, WEO, and NGOs/Donors) separately.

Facilitators

According to the mean of the responses summarized in table 4.7 above, while the participation level of facilitators and coordinators/supervisors is stronger in selection of learners (3.31) in the government sponsored training centers, NGOs have better performance in involving their facilitators and supervisors in learning needs assessment (3.15) and the planning of the program (3.31) which is consistent with the previous finding (Table 4.5).

The over all mean as might be seen from the above table is indifferent for the two providers implying the existence of a poor system that does not encourage the participation of facilitators and coordinators in the implementation of the program.

Community participation

Table 4.7 shows that generally the participation of the community is low in both programs. The over all mean for Non-Government sponsored program is 2.70 which is not that much different from that of the government program (2.57). Besides, the FGD made with community members has also confirmed the above finding.

As any other development strategies, the participation of the community has strong influence on the direction and execution of educational programs. Voluntary involvement develops sense of ownership and facilitates implementation towards the desired goal. Taking this into consideration, the "Guideline of MOE for organization of Educational Management, Community Participation and Educational Finance" encourages community participation. Accordingly, Kebele Education and Training Boards are expected to be established at Kebele level to manage educational programs (MOE d, 2002, pp47-53). Moreover, the ABE implementation guideline also provides direction regarding the duties and responsibilities of each level of education governance under the decentralization structure that devolved responsibilities down to the ABE centers and community level.

The practice, as observed from the above responses; however, is very different. In this regard, the interview conducted with WEO and NGO officials reveal that most of the ABE centers did not even establish the "Kebele Education and Training Board" which was to be in place as per the aforementioned guideline. Yet few respondents and some of the REB and WEO interviewee argued that, though it is not functioning as expected, there is a committee established at ABE centers to encourage community participation. However, the FGD made

with community representatives has shown that most of them are not functional.

One instance mentioned as participation by some of the FGD participants was the preparation of a verification report for the sake of making monthly salary payment to facilitators. Here, the committee members will sign and send through the kebele administration to WEOs and NGO providers on whether the facilitators were on job or not during the month. Even in this regard, it is worth mentioning that the effort some NGOs are making is better than the WEOs.

When asked during the FGD as to what they contribute to the ABE centers, the participants respond that they provide material and labor as much as they can, support facilitators in food items and send children to ABE centers. On the other hand, a large majority of the parents and all facilitators/supervisors said that the financial contribution of the community was low due to poor economic status of the society.

Woreda Education Office

WEOs were established with the intention of decentralizing the education system through devolution of power to the grass root level so as to speed up the implementation of programs through bringing management closer to the beneficiaries.

Accordingly, being the center where the greatest potential of decision made in favor of the community, Woreda Education Offices are expected to play a leading role in planning and implementation of the ABE program through the involvement of various stake holders. With this in mind, respondents were requested to rate the extent of the WEO participation in planning and implementation. The response gathered was summarized in the above table.

According to the responses indicated in table 4.7, the participation level of the WEO, except in learners' selection process where the mean responses is 4.62 and 4.21 for the Government and NGO respectively, is below average. This could be accounted for lower number of qualified professionals in the Woreda

Education Offices as mentioned previously in the background information (Fig 4.4) and lack of commitment of the existing personnel. Therefore, the finding has revealed that though the intention of expanding children's access to basic education through ABE in the Region has a strong base, its effectiveness is being hampered by shortage of qualified personnel and capacity gap of the existing educational leaders.

Donors/NGO

Table 4.7 presents the rating scores to the participation level of NGOs / Donors in planning and implementation of ABE programs. Accordingly, it is found that the engagement of NGOs in need assessment, planning, and monitoring and evaluation is above average which seems better compared to the woreda education offices.

Despite this betterment, the interview and the FGD that the researcher has conducted with the Woreda Education Officials and community representatives have respectively indicate that their awareness and involvement in the aforementioned activities that NGOs undertake is minimal.

4.3.2 Institutional and Resource capacity

In order to implement a plan and achieve the intended goal, there should be an appropriate institutional structure along with financial and non-financial resources for its execution. In this regard, the following section tries to analyze the situation in the Region, particularly in the sample woredas from this perspective. For this purpose, a document review was made, besides the responses collected on the issue through an interview made with WEO and NGO officials. In addition, the Focus Group Discussion result that was conducted with community representatives and an observation report of the field visit to the woredas were also used.

4.3.2.1 The existence of appropriate structure to run the program

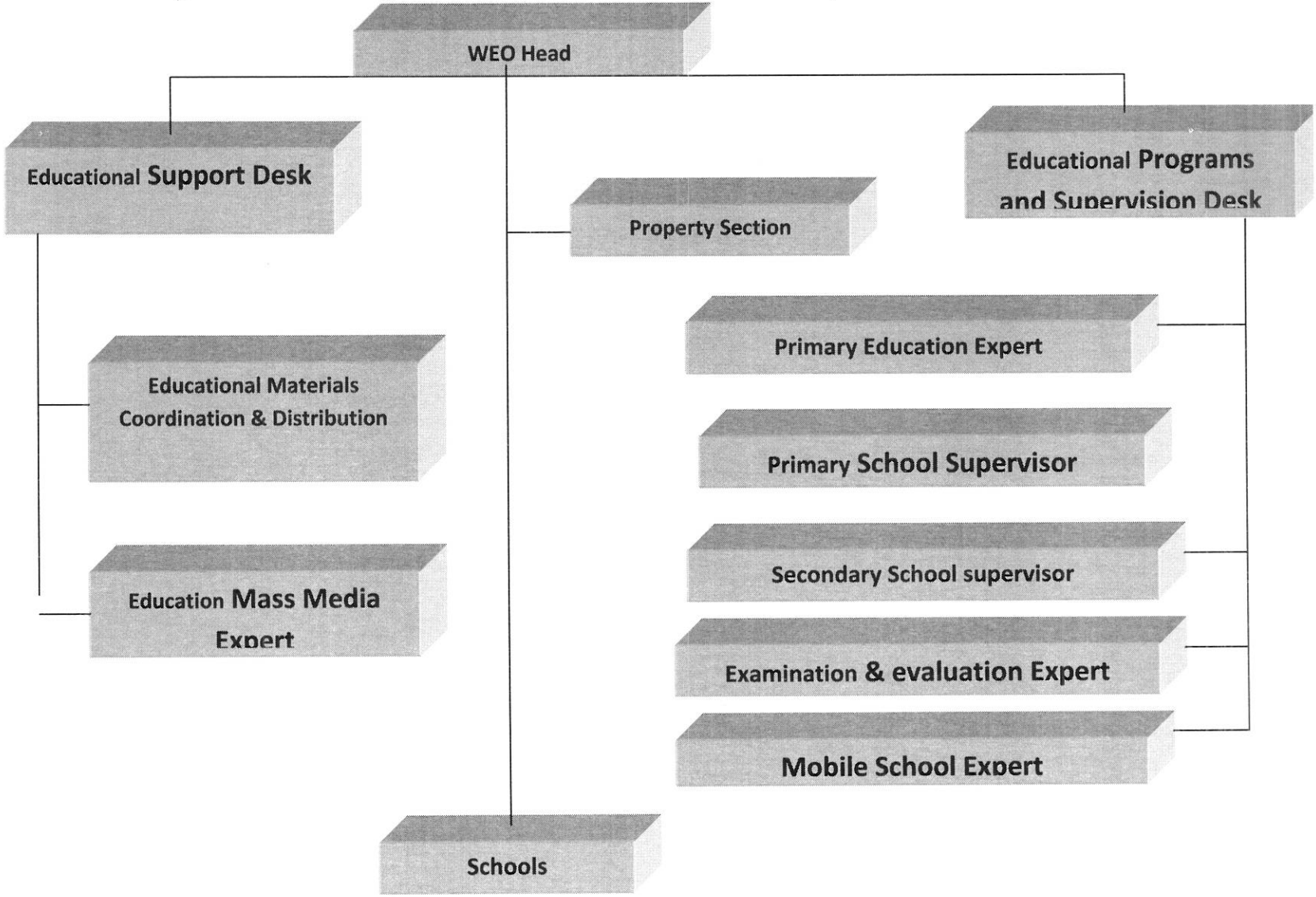
The presence of appropriate organizational structure is essential for effective planning, management and implementation. In this regard, UNESCO 1994, (cited in abinur 2005, p.63), states that, organizational structures should be in place to satisfy the needs of planning and management as well as to provide support for the program at various levels of its implementation.

Organization deals with arranging the resources of the organization in such a way that it's activities systematically contribute to the organization's goals (Dessler in kassahun 1997, p.45). In this regard, for the ABE program to be successful and achieve its goal various tasks, such as planning and managing the program, developing and distributing curriculum materials, training facilitators, supervision, and monitoring and evaluation of the program have to be organized that need the existence of structure with appropriate personnel to execute the plan.

With the intention of getting information on the existence of appropriate institutional structure to run the program, the organo-gram of the Woreda Education Office was analyzed. As shown in Figure 4.5 below, the organo-gram of WEOs in Afar region consists of 4 positions, and is meant to be occupied with 12 people. The office is headed by the WEO head. There are two major desks (units) and one property section, under the office of the head; namely, Educational Programs and Supervision desk, Educational Support Desk and Property Section. Further, the educational programs and supervision desk comprises five experts; namely, Primary education expert, Primary school supervisor, Secondary school Supervisor, Examination and Evaluation Expert and Mobile school expert. The Educational support desk consists of experts; namely, Educational materials coordination and distribution expert and Education mass media expert.

Figure 4.5:- Organizational Structure of Woreda Education Office

(Source: Afar Regional Education Bureau, 1996 E C.)



Despite the existence of the above positions, the real practice has shown the existence of acute shortage since most of the positions did not have personnel assigned. The following table exhibits the situation in the sample woredas.

Table 4.8 Available manpower in the Sample Woreda Education offices

Zone	Woreda	Planned Positions	Available Manpower	Vacant Positions
One	Addar	12	2	10
Three	Awash	12	5	7
	Dullecha	12	3	9
Five	Tellalk	12	5	7
Total		**48**	**15**	**33**
%		**100**	**31.3**	**68.7**

**** WEO which has mobile school expert***

As shown in Table 4.8, 31.3 percent of positions in WEOs included in this study are currently occupied, while the remaining 68.7 percent of the posts being still vacant. What surprises more is the capacity gap identified here was also a problem in 2004. Supporting evidence in this regard was given in the JRM report of the MOE (2004, p.20). According to this document, only 4-5 experts had been assigned at the time of the team's visit on average in each woreda.

The responses obtained through open-ended question reveal that, budget constraint and shortage of skilled manpower has long been serious problem to fill the vacant positions. Thus, in a situation where responsible personnel are meager or absent in the organizational structure, an attempt to implement a program is simply a puzzle.

What makes the case of ABE different is being a strategy particularly suitable to the pastoralist mode of life; it was supposed to acquire a central place in the organizational structure of the education system both at region and woreda levels. According to MOE Joint review mission report (2006, p.32), however, it

is a task that is in charge of the management and coordination of the program at the region level which is composed of representatives from different department. There is one person assigned to coordinate the ABE program on full time basis. In the case of woredas, it is found that there is an expert assigned to follow up mobile schools who at the same time is in charge of following ABE centers. In reality, however, the role this individual play to coordinate the program is almost none due to constraints of finance and transport facility.

4.3.2.2 Human, financial and material resources

Organizations need resource to implement a plan at school level, besides having institutional structure that constitutes personnel for effective coordination of a plan execution. This sub-section analyses the relative capacity of the Government and NGO ABE centers in terms of human, material and financial resources.

The following tables and the paragraphs that follow each present the summary of the responses obtained through questionnaire, interview, and FGD. The researcher's observation is used to particularly supplement the analysis on availability of material resources including center facilities.

Table 4.9 Mean distribution of responses on Manpower capacity

Ite No	Manpower capacity	Mean and Standard Deviation of the responses				
		Government		Non-government		Grand Mean
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1	Knowledge, skills and attitude of the staff to effectively carry out the program	3.06	.442	2.74	.872	2.88
2	Efficiency and commitment in accomplishing tasks	2.06	.997	2.31	1.20	2.20
3	Staff roles duties and responsibilities are clearly defined and acted upon	2.10	.936	2.15	.958	2.15
4	Existence of human resource planning, development and utilization scheme	2.10	.936	3.18	1.10	2.60
5	Capacity to apply child friendly principles and approaches	3.00	.958	2.15	.365	2.54

As can be seen from table 4.9, the human capacity of both providers, in general seems indifferent. It is observed, however, that in terms of possession of knowledge, skill and attitude which is important to effectively carry out the program, the Government side(3.06) seem to be a slight better than the NGO counterparts(2.74) which may be accounted for having a relatively longer period of initial training by the former. Likewise the Government side is better in applying child-friendly teaching method which may be for the same reason mentioned above.On the other hand, NGOs are better in having human resource planning, development and utilization scheme. Observing the over all grand mean; however, which is within the range between 2.15 and 2.88, it is difficult to say one is better over the other.

Besides, based on the discussion the researcher made with WEO and NGO officials, researcher's personal observation about the centers and the status of

most facilitators as revealed in the background, it is possible to say that capacity problem is one major challenge that could hamper the expansion of ABE in the region. On top of these, the interviewee stress absence of commitment from facilitators perspective as an underlying challenge, aggravated by the poor supervision service that is being provided by both providers-Government and NGO. Among the reasons mentioned for low commitment harshness of the environment, low salary, and absence of motivation were the prominent ones.

During data collection, it is observed that some NGOs have assigned two facilitators instead of one for level I ABE centers which is usually one in the case of Government centers. In this regard, they argued that the approach enabled them to overcome interruption of the learning-teaching process that usually occurs due to facilitator's absence for different reasons. Besides, they believe that the use of two facilitators can reduce the teaching load that could other wise to be covered by a single facilitator.

Table 4.10 Mean distribution of the responses on availability of finance

Ite No	Financial capacity	Mean and Standard Deviation of the responses				
		Government		Non-government		Grand Mean
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1	Existence of adequate financial resources for effective program execution	2.50	1.26	3.10	1.59	2.82
2	Capacity of the organization to generate local and external funds	2.37	1.02	1.84	.688	2.08
3	Financial execution capacity	2.63	1.53	2.81	1.10	2.71
4	System of financial controls	3.43	.963	3.00	1.63	3.20
5	Accurate and timely reporting system	2.25	.683	3.47	1.57	2.91

Table 4.10 shows that Non-government sponsored ABE programs have better financial resource (3.10) compared to Government sponsored ABE programs (2.50). In spite of the fact that there is a significant difference between the two providers in this parameter, interviews conducted with NGO project coordinators reveal that there is shortage of fund to run the program. Besides, as there is no capacity in both cases to generate local and external funds, shortage of finance is a serious problem for both providers. There is however, a slight difference between the two providers, the NGO side in timely reporting financial performance (3.47) and the Government side in having a better system to control finance (3.43).

Related to efficiency in utilizing budget, respondents from the WEO accuse some NGOs in misusing the budget they get from donors. In this regard, it is found that a coordinator of one NGO disappeared from the locality taking the monthly salary that was supposed to be paid for facilitators. The NGO officials, when asked why they don't directly transfer the salary to WEO, they argued that they are afraid that the office may not use the money for the intended purpose. Thus, it is clear from here that though both providers are targeting to a common goal that there is no trust among them.

With the intention of getting information on availability of diversified resource to back up the implementation of the ABE strategy, an open ended question was also raised to the above mentioned respondents. The same question was also raised to WEO and NGO officials. In this regard, most of the respondents agree on the existence of a unidirectional fund source i.e. Government budget and NGOs fund for Government and NGOs ABE centers respectively which is entirely allotted for salary.

It has to be recalled from the literature review that for alternative basic education to play a more central role in universalizing primary schooling, it will need to be financed by the government, and the centers need to be made an integral part of the whole system rather than to continue as an adhoc experiments (World bank in swift Morgan,2006, p.65).

Table 4.11 Mean distribution of the responses on availability of school facility

Ite No	School facility availability	Mean and Standard Deviation of the responses				
		Government		Non-government		Grand Mean
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1	The presence of school facilities (equipment, furniture, vehicle, services and utilities	2.26	.991	3.31	1.07	2.74
2	The establishment of mechanisms to mobilize resources for the learning programs	2.26	1.14	3.68	1.07	2.91
3	Wise use of available resources for only the learning programs	2.84	.898	3.50	.730	3.14

Table 4.11 shows the presence of school facilities and wise use of available resources for learning programs with an average value of 3.31 and 3.50 for NGO centers and Government ABE programs respectively, showing better situation in NGOs ABE centers.Besides, considered in terms of their capacity in establishing mechanisms to mobilize resources for the learning programs, again NGOs are found to perform better (3.68) compared to their counter parts in government sponsored learning programs. The overall availability of learning facility and the ability of both providers to run the program is found to be 2.74 and 2.91 indicating poor performance. In the case of using available resources, however, the performance measure (3.14) has shown a relatively better result.

With regard to the cause for poor school facilities, the Government officials mentioned lack of budget while some of the respondents from the NGO government side also attached a reason of budget limitation. On top of this, the interview conducted with officials of both providers and the observation made to the centers has revealed that absence of water and pasture is a more serious problem challenging the efficiency of the centers than any other facilities.

4.3.3 Partnership and networking

To investigate the level of collaboration and interaction that existed among Governmental and Non-Governmental partners in planning and implementation of ABE program, facilitators and coordinators/supervisors were asked to rate the extent of collaboration and interaction between the two partners. Summary of the findings are indicated in the table below.

Table 4.12 Mean distribution of the responses on the existence and effectiveness of Partnership and networks among government agencies and NGOs

Item No	Partnership and networks among government agencie and NGOs	Mean and Standard Deviation of the Responses				Over all t	df
		Government		Non-government			
		Mean N=16	SD	Mean N=19	SD		
1	with each other (government with government/NGOs with NGOs) to participate in the planning and implementatio of ABE program	2.25	.856	2.89	.809		
2	with other development partners, including water an health sectors, to plan and implement ABE program	2.50	1.09	2.42	.768		
3	with stakeholders and intenc beneficiaries to plan and implement ABE program	2.18	.750	1.84	.688		
4	Over all rate of on the existence and effectiveness o Partnership and networks among government agencies and NGOs	2.31	.523	2.38	.373	.484	33

(5 = Very high, 4 = High, 3 = Medium, 2 = Low, 1 = very low)

Table 4.12 shows the responses with regard to partnership and networking that exist among and within the government and non-government sponsored providers in planning and implementation of ABE program. As one can see from the mean values in the table, in both cases, there existed less partnership and networking in general. On top of this, the t-value for the independent

sample test (X2=.484, df=1, at alpha=0.05)) revealed that there is no significant difference between the two providers in this perspective.

Besides, as the researcher investigated, both government and non-government agencies had insignificant level of partnership not only among themselves but also with other stakeholders like Bureau of water, Bureau of health and other stakeholders.

According to the interview conducted with WEO and NGO officials, however, there is variation among woredas.For example,it is found that there is a strong partnership between WEO and kelem in both Adaar and Telalak woredas while poor partnership has been experienced between EMRDA and Dulecha WEO.The level of partnership between Fentale and CARE,on the other hand was found to be a relatively loose one.

While trying to investigate the underlying reasons challenging the creation of partnership, the interviewee from the non-government side, mentioned commitment problem from the Government staffs and leaders irrespective of the NGOs continuous effort towards building effective partnership with concerned Government offices. The non-formal education coordinators of government side, on the other hand admitting the existence of poor relationship among the two providers at woreda level, argued that the NGOs, in most cases are not willing to work with the WEOs .They further explained that absence of such partnership and network at woreda level has allowed the non-government agencies to plan and implement whatever they wish even without reporting their accomplishment to the WEOs.

In addition to what is mentioned above, some interviewee from WEO also said that for some NGOs ABE being a complementary program, they usually assign program coordinators who have no experience in the education sector and this creates communication gap between the two providers. They also accuse the NGOs for not presenting their plan and performance report to the WEO. The

Non-Government officials, on the other hand blame the WEO for not assigning qualified personnel to coordinate the program.

Though, it is not strong, the study has also found that recently a forum known as the Afar Education Development Coordination Platform (AEDCP) was established to coordinate activities on education in the region. Kelem, one of the sample NGOs for this study is among the founders and currently the chair of this forum. The plat form is formed by 5 government and 15 NGOs working on education in the region.

4.4 Analysis of the issues of curriculum, learning facilities, facilitator's training and supervisory services

The administration and implementation of ABE program include, among others, curriculum material preparation and distribution, facilitator recruitment and training, and supervision of the learning program. In this regard, an attempt has been made to assess the status of these issues in the process of ABE implementation in the region.

4.4.1 Curriculum and textbook related issues

Curriculum materials are core elements in the teaching learning process that involve a complex development task. The technicalities of producing quality, relevant curricula requires to pass through certain steps; setting objectives, conducting needs assessment, selecting and organizing contents, preparing teaching/learning materials, testing, enriching and finalizing the materials and finally printing and distribution. Although ABE has its own specific feature, it needs to have curriculum material as other educational programs do.

One of the factors enhancing access to ABE learning is the relevance of the curriculum and learning materials prepared for the program to the community. It is also necessary to make the distribution of the learning materials fair in order to enhance quality. With this in mind, the facilitators and coordinators/ supervisors of both providers were asked for their observation regarding the relevance of the curriculum designed for ABE and the availability of textbooks.

Besides, Government and NGO officials were also interviewed on these issues. The following tables present summary of the responses.

Table 4.13 Percentage distribution of the responses on the level of acceptance of the ABE curriculum and availability of text books

Item	Training Providers											
	Government(n=16)						Non-government(n=19)					
	Responses				Total		Responses				Total	
	Yes	%	No	%	N	%	Yes	%	No	%	N	%
1. acceptance of the ABE curriculum	13	81.25	3	18.75	16	100	16	84.2	3	15.8	19	100
2. availability of text books	3	18.75	13	81.25	16	100	5	26.3	14	73.7	19	100

Item 1 of table 4.13 shows the responses provided regarding the curriculum issue. As can be seen from the table, 81.2% and 84.2% Government and Non-Government respondents respectively responded that the curriculum designed and developed were relevant and consistent with the nomadic life of the people.

On top of this, an interview was conducted with the REB ABE expert to know the extent of the Regional Education Bureau involvement in the development process of the ABE curriculum. According to him, it was the Ministry of Education that initially prepared the syllabi for ABE by adapting it from the first cycle primary school syllabi. The content of the first cycle primary syllabi, which normally cover four years, was condensed into a three-year program in a way suitable for an ABE approach. It was based on this blue print that the Region has produced textbooks for the program contextualizing these materials to the community life.

On the other hand, during the interviews, some facilitators and WEO experts identified the following as short comings of the ABE curriculum:

- There is a difference in competency between ABE students and those who directly pass through the formal schools;
- The curriculum designed is not within the facilitator's capacity for teaching;

As shown in an item 2 of the above table, the majority (81.3 percent) of the Government respondents and 73.7 percent of the NGO side said that, there are no enough copies of textbooks in the center. To secure more information on the issue, the Officials from the Government and NGO Offices were also asked for their comment. Admitting the existence of the problem, most of them have reasoned out lack of transportation facility as a major challenge. The researcher has witnessed this during his field visit to one of the sample woredas where ABE textbooks were found in bulk in the WEO that were supposed to be distributed to the ABE centers. This means that most of the ABE centers are functioning without textbooks. The researcher has also confirmed that most of the centers visited have no facilitators guide.

4.4.2 Recruitment and Training of Facilitators

As teachers are one among the most important input in any educational set up, there is a need for careful selection and recruitment procedure. In this regard, it is important to consider the specific context of the community besides qualification and training. This section of the analysis thus focuses on the facilitators' selection and recruitment processes and related training.

4.4.2.1 Recruitment of facilitators

Though teaching in the first cycle primary needs a teacher certified at TTI level, considering the context of region and the shortage of people that fulfill the above requirement, the "pastoralist and Semi-Agriculturalist Alternative Basic Education Implementation Guideline" stated that, facilitators would be

recruited from the locally available educated manpower by the beneficiary community based on the following criteria.

- Being member of the community and speaking the local language
- Knowledgeable about the culture of the community
- Completion of primary education (grade 8) and above
- Priority to females, and
- Accepted by the community for good conduct and working hard (MOE, 1996 E.C, p.16).

Accordingly, an attempt has been made to secure information from the Government and NGO officials and community representatives on the recruitment issue through interview and focus group discussion respectively.

The response obtained from Government and NGO officials and community representatives to the question "who recruits facilitators working in this ABE center?" indicate that, it was the beneficiary community who recruited facilitators in most cases .Few respondents; however, respond that facilitators for their locality were recruited by WEOs as it is impossible to get those who can fulfill that criteria within that specific community. Thus, in general, it is possible to say that the community was highly involved in the recruitment of facilitators.

What is important here is, pastoralists have very close knit social and family structures and social organizations to sustain their communities socially and economically (ADB/UNESCO, 2005,p.40). Every clan has its own territory and clan leaders are responsible for clan members. They may not be willing to send their children to learn to individuals whom they may not trust. Therefore, they are highly involved to recruit facilitators from their own clan. However, in the absence of educated individuals with in the beneficiary community, WEOs took the responsibility to recruit facilitators from the neighboring woreda.

4.4.2.2 Training of facilitators

Facilitators and coordinators were also asked through a questionnaire whether they took training or not before their assignment, and also about their inclination to the profession. The following tables summarize the responses obtained.

Table 4.14 Percentage distribution of the responses about training of facilitators and coordinators/supervisors and their interest in the profession

Item	Training Providers											
	Government(n=16)						Non-government(n=19)					
	Responses				Total		Responses				Total	
	Yes	%	No	%	N	%	Yes	%	No	%	N	%
1. Training provided	16	100	-	-	16	100	19	100	-	-	19	100
2. Interest in the profession	5	31.25	11	68.75	16	100	6	31.6	13	68.4	19	100

As depicted in an item 1 of table 4.14, all facilitators and coordinators/ supervisors of the government and non government respectively expressed that they have had training before their assignments as program facilitator and coordinator/supervisors. Thus, there is no difference in this perspective. There is, however, difference in the length of the training period, based on the responses collected through an open ended question regarding the duration of the trainings given to them. Accordingly, most of the facilitators and coordinators from NGOs mentioned that they have received the training in the form of workshops for not more than two weeks which is much shorter compared to their counterparts in the Government program. However,it is also mentioned that some NGOs are currently providing financial support for the training of their facilitators in TTIs.

An interview conducted on the same issue with the ABE expert in the REB revealed the existence of a pre-service and an in-service program for facilitators. According to him, when the program was launched in the region, 100 ABE facilitators were trained for two months. The training was organized

by the REB in collaboration with the Afar language study and improvement institution. The courses provided during the training were related to issues of mastering the Afar language, being familiar with ABE text books, and other pedagogical matters. He also mentioned that a two month in-service training was also given to 130 facilitators in Dessie Teacher Training College which was more of pedagogical in nature.

As shown in item 2 of the same table, a total of 68.7% of Government and 68.4% from non-government responded that they were not interested in their position as a facilitator and coordinator/supervisor. In this regard, the most frequently mentioned reason is the lowness of their salary and absence of other motivation mechanisms. With regard to government ABE facilitators, it is found that the initial salary which is birr 403 is equivalent to the base salary of TTI certificate holders. In the case of the NGO facilitators, the average salary is birr 600 which is some what higher than those recruited by the government. Though there seems a slight difference between the two providers, facilitator's of both complain that the salary they get is not comparable to the remoteness of the centre they are assigned.

4.4.2.3 Supervision service

It is apparent that ABE facilitators are non-qualified paraprofessionals who are expected to cultivate children to acquire minimum learning competencies set for each level. Making frequent visits to ABE center enables supervisors to follow the program closely and support facilitators so as to solve problems they face in the instructional process.

The role of supervisors in special educational arrangements is primarily that of a consultant, contributing to the improvement of instruction and the growth of teachers. The supervisor should be available to give assistance to beginning teachers, particularly to those who have special assignments without complete training in the field (Stoops, et.el. in Abinur 2005, p.64).

In relation to this, facilitators were asked through an open-ended questionnaire on whether or not they get a supervision service and if so in what frequency. The same issue was also raised to Government and NGO officials. Accordingly, some of these officials and the facilitators replied that visit to ABE centers will be made once in a year. Some others on the other hand, answered that the WEOs does not at all make any visit to ABE center throughout the year.

Thus, though the purpose of supervision is to guide and stimulate the activities of facilitators with a view to improve their performance, it is found that most WEOs and NGOs in the sample woredas are providing limited supervisory support to facilitators, while others did not supervise ABE centers at all. Among the reasons, for not providing supervisory service, the most frequently mentioned reasons by the interviewees are lack of personnel, and shortage of budget and transport facilities.

4.5 Analysis of the issues of monitoring and evaluation and impact assessment

Effective implementation of a plan needs to be monitored and its impact recognized.

4.5.1 Monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring is the process of watching periodically the progress of a program in order to identify strengths as well as weaknesses. In this regard, facilitators and coordinators of both providers were asked about monitoring and evaluation issue and its implementation. An interview was also conducted with Governmental and NGO officials.

Table 4.15 Mean distribution of the responses on the existence of Monitoring and Evaluation to assess the effectiveness of the program

Item No	Monitoring and Evaluation to assess the effectiveness of the program	Mean and Standard Deviation of the Responses				Over all t	df
		Government		Non-government			
		Mean N=16	SD	Mean N=19	SD		
1	To what extent performance of ABE facilitators and personnel in various roles are monitored and evaluated	2.55	.511	3.29	.587		
2	To what extent training methods are evaluated	2.33	.485	3.11	.485		
3	To what extent progress and achievement of the program is evaluated	2.44	.511	2.58	.507		
4	To what extent the impact of the programme on the communities' attitude towards education is evaluated.	2.61	.607	2.88	.696		
5	To what extent monitoring and evaluating results are utilized	2.38	.697	2.82	.808		
7	Over all rate on the existence of Monitoring and Evaluation to assess the effectiveness of the program	2.46	.227	2.94	.385	4.463	33

(5 = Very high, 4 = High, 3 = Medium, 2 = Low, 1 = very low)

Table 4.15 reveals that the non-government sponsored training programs have much better evaluation systems than that of government ones. There is a significant difference between the two providers. According to interview held with program managers of NGOs, the program facilitators were evaluated occasionally. Further more, it could be noted that the training methods, the impact of the programs are regularly evaluated by the NGOs though there is a less possibility to utilize the evaluation results.

4.5.2 Impact assessment

Table 4.16 Mean distribution of the responses on the impact of the training in the improvement of the learners' and the community life

Item No	The impact of the training in the improvement of the learners' and the community life	Mean and Standard Deviation of the Responses				Over all t	df
		Government		Non-government			
		Mean N=16	SD	Mean N=19	SD		
1	The capacity of the training to bring about improved health and sanitation condition of the learners	2.55	.511	3.29	.587		
2	The capacity of the training to bring about improved way of life	2.33	.485	3.11	.485		
3	The capacity of the training to initiate the learner and the community for further education	2.44	.511	2.58	.507		
4	The capacity of the training to bring about enhanced participation in socio-economic and political process	2.61	.607	2.88	.696		
5	Over all rate of on the existence of Monitoring and Evaluation to assess the effectiveness of the program	2.46	.227	2.94	.385	4.463	33

(5 = Very high, 4 = High, 3 = Medium, 2 = Low, 1 = very low)

One of the standard measurements for the effectiveness of ABE programs is its capacity to bring about positive impacts/changes on the participants' life. Accordingly, table 4.16 shows the impact of the training on the participants' life in terms of the five tangible dimensions. According to the responses of the facilitators and coordinators/supervisors of non-government training providers, the training could bring about significant changes on the participants' life (75.6% rated high and above). Despite exhibited less significant changes to the government side in all dimensions, there was considerable change (66.7%) in sending children to schools.

4.6 Good practices and major problems encountered in the implementation of ABE program

The respondents were finally requested to mention activities that could further be strengthened and expand to the rest of region for betterment of ABE implementation. They were also asked to identify challenges that affect the execution of the strategy. Accordingly, the responses gathered were summarized.

4.6.1 Good practices

The following good practices of the ABE program in Afar region were identified by the respondents.

- Attachment of water reservoirs to ABE centers

Afar is a region where lively hood of the pastoralist is largely tied to the existence of water and pasture in the home area of the community. As these are the basics of survival to the beneficiaries, for any development plan to be sustainable, it should take into account the situation of the locality from this perspective. Like wise, the efficiency and effectiveness of the implementation of the ABE strategy is linked to the stability of the beneficiary around the centers which in turn is determined by the availability of pasture and water in the area. In this regard, though it is not thoroughly planned and organized, the effort that the Afar Pastoralist Development Association is undertaking in digging reservoir holes that serve to collect and store water during rainy seasons that can be used for dry seasons is an initiative which should further be encouraged and scale up.

- Sponsoring facilitators training

Facilitators' qualification is one among the different strategies that help ensure the quality of ABE program. In this regard, the effort that EMRDA is making to improve the capacity of its facilitators through an in service program is another good practice that need to be adapted by similar sponsors of the program.

- The establishment of the regional GO-NGO forum

Partnership in education is crucial for efficient coordination and implementation of a strategy. The establishment of the regional GO-NGO forum/plat-form is a good entry to address the challenges of ABE implementation. The platform is formed by 5 Government and 15 Non Government Organizations working on education in the region where KELEM is founding member and chair of the forum.

4.6.2 Major challenges

Although there are interesting practices and good lessons that could be replicated to other woredas, there are also challenges that need further attention to achieve the objectives of the program.

- Shortage of budget to run the program

Acute shortage of budget is challenging the effectiveness of the ABE program as there is no budget specifically ear-marked to implement the program both in the REB and WEOs. Budget inadequacy besides affecting the distribution of text books and facilitator's guides, and the provision of supervision and monitoring services, it is also becoming a cause for quality deterioration when combined to the low level of facilitators' qualification.

- Poor staff capacity

Staffing and capacity at REB and WEOs are in most observed cases inadequate. Besides, there is a general lack of knowledge and skills to properly plan, implement, monitor and report the education program in collaboration with the relevant stake holders, and to supervise the teaching learning process in the centres.

- Low community participation

Low community participation in management and implementation of ABE strategy is another area of concern that needs attention. This is particularly linked to mobility of the community due to reasons related to subsistence.

- Poor record keeping system

Poor record keeping system on students' enrollment and efficiency at both woreda and region levels is also a bottle neck. Besides shortage of staff to regularly monitor the program, capacity problem of the existing staff at woreda level is a serious challenge to recognize and coordinate ABE programs of both providers.

- Weak coordination among stake holders

Lack of coordination among the different actors is a problem to jointly plan, collaborate in areas of mutual concern and mobilize the community for effective implementation of strategy.

CHAPTER FIVE
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

This chapter deals with the summary of the findings, the conclusion drawn from the findings, and recommendations forwarded, that may help to improve the implementation of ABE in Afar regional State. The main objectives of the study were to investigate the current practice and major short comings in the implementation of ABE program in Afar region by both Governmental and Non-Governmental institutions that affect its proper functioning and to identify possible solutions that contribute to the betterment of ABE program implementation in the region in order to improve pastoral children's access to quality basic education.

Achieving the stated objectives, and examining the extent of problems affecting effective ABE implementation in Afar was taught to be achieved by way of seeking answers to the following research questions.

1. To what extent alternative basic education, run by Governmental and non-governmental institutions, contribute to the provision of access to primary education in the region?
2. What are the best practices of both governmental non-governmental ABE programs with a potential to be replicated in the region?
3. What factors limit the participation of NGOs in the region?
4. To what extent the organizational structure of alternative basic education appropriate to carry out duties and responsibilities of ABE to achieve the intended objectives?
5. Is the management system of alternative basic education participatory and competent enough to run the program so as to meet the lifestyle of pastoral communities?

Descriptive survey was employed to assess the current conditions and practices in the planning and implementation of ABE. The primary sources of data/information were ABE centers, the education offices at different levels, and NGO project offices. Secondary sources of data/information were documents prepared by EMIS at different levels, organizational profile and assessment reports of the MOE and NGOs. The study was conducted in 4 woredas and a total of 16 ABE centers were taken. The respondents at center level were facilitators, coordinators, community representatives and students. The respondents at the Regional Education Bureau and Woreda Education Offices were Education program heads and ABE coordinators. Besides, NGO program officers were also among the respondents. Questionnaire was used to collect information from coordinators and facilitators. Structured interview was employed to collect data from Government and NGO officials. Besides community representatives and students were approached through a focus group discussion. The findings of the study were presented and analyzed using frequency counts, percentages, mean, grand mean, chi-square, and t-test.

4.1 Major Findings

The major findings of the study are summarized as follows:

4.1.1 Sex and age of Respondents

- At school level, coordinators of both Government and NGOs ABE centers are male. Only 5 out of the 28 facilitators are females. Respondents at the region and woreda levels, except one, were male. The participation of females in the program is thus very low. 82.1 % of the facilitators are in the age range of 20 and 25, while most officers and experts at government and NGO offices are above 30.

4.1.2 Educational Level and Work Experience of Respondents

- At school level, Government ABE center coordinators have more experience compared to their counter parts at NGOs. All Government coordinators have

more than 5 years of experience compared to only 25% of the NGO coordinators having similar experience. Facilitators of both providers have almost similar work experience in the profession.

-About 75 % of the NGO coordinators in the sample schools hold a TTI certificate compared to half of the Government coordinators whose qualification is diploma and above. Significant ratio of the facilitators in both case have only a primary education Therefore, the qualification of these facilitators is found to be very low compared to the standard required to the job.

-At Region and woreda levels, about 60% of the NGO program officers have below 5 years of experience. The situation is better here in the case of Government offices as 90 % of them have an experience of 6 years and above.

-The educational level of NGOs program officers is fairly high; More than 75% have BA/BSc degree. About 70 % of the personnel in government offices, on the other hand, are qualified at TTI level and below.

4.1.3 The contribution of ABE to improve access and coverage in the region and in the sample woredas

- The GER at primary schools in 2007/08 showed increment by 11.4 percent compared to 2003/04.The ABE with in the same period grow by 7.7 percent, showing ABE's is contribution to improve access in the region.

- Most of the ABE centers included in this study are found to have a significant problem of drop out. The number of students currently learning at the center is far below the number the center reported at the beginning of the year.

- In 2006/07, Zone one and three are found to have larger number of students compared to other zones. Dulecha, one of the sample woreda for this study had the highest number of students (8.5 %) during this year. Kelem is one of the NGOs for this study that initiated an ABE program in Tellalak woreda of zone Five. The share of NGOs in ABE program in 2006/07 was 32.5 percent. This

implies that the role NGOs are playing in the program is significant. However, there is a need to do a lot to attract more NGOs to participate in the program.

4.1.4 Stakeholders' participation in planning and implementation of ABE program in the Region

-About 79 percent of NGO facilitators and coordinators respond that there was a need assessment before the program launched in the localities while only 50 percent of respondents from the Government side confirm its existence. NGOs are better in undertaking need assessment as confirmed by the chi-square test. Like wise, significant ratio of respondents have confirmed their participation in the need assessment held.

-The involvement of stake holders in program design is in general, weak in both providers. When comparison is made between the two, the NGOs are somewhat better. Availability of sufficient resource and alignment of the program planned with implemented activities have the lowest mean value, 2.62 and 2.87 respectively, for Government sponsored ABE programs. participation level of facilitators and coordinators/supervisors is stronger in selection of learners, in the management of ABE centers and in monitoring and evaluation of the program in the Government sponsored training centers .NGOs have better performance in initiating their facilitators and supervisors/coordinators participation in needs assessment and the planning of the program.

- Community participation in planning, management and monitoring and evaluation of the ABE centers is weak in both providers. Most of the ABE centers did not even establish the "Kebele Education and Training Board". Community participation is classified to controlling the attendance of facilitators through providing a monthly verification report to the NGO and WEO before salary payment is made and to supplying food items to facilitators, providing labor and material for construction and sending children to schools.

- The WEO is playing weak coordination role in planning. It is only active in learner's selection process. There is a capacity problem in WEOs to provide strategic leadership in the management of ABE program. This could be due to lower number of qualified professionals available in the Woreda Education Offices and the incapability of the existing personnel.

4.1.5 Institutional and Resource capacity

- About 31.3 percent of positions in WEOs included in this study are currently occupied, while the remaining 68.7 percent of the posts being still vacant. Budget constraint and shortage of skilled manpower are among the problems to fill the vacant positions. Except one, all the samples woredas of this study have an expert assigned to follow ABE/Mobile schools.

- It is observed that in terms of possession of knowledge, skill and attitude, and in applying child-friendly teaching method, the Government side is slightly better than the NGO counterparts that could be accounted for having a relatively longer period to initial training. The duration of training is better for government facilitators. Commitment problem and absence of supervision service are among the challenges mentioned besides knowledge capacity of the facilitators that affect the effectiveness of the program.

- Non-government sponsored ABE programs have better financial resource compared to Government sponsored ABE programs. The Government side in having a better system to control finance and the NGO side in timely reporting financial performance have slight difference.

-In terms of the presence of school facilities and wise use of available resources for learning programs with an average value of 3.31 and 3.50 respectively, NGOs centers are better than the Government. Government ABE centers are poor in school facilities. The FGD and the observation made have shown absence of water and pasture as a more serious problem to the centers even greater than the shortage of school facilities.

- Both government and non-government agencies had insignificant partnership with other stakeholders like Bureau of water, Bureau of health and other stakeholders. Absence of commitment from the Government staffs and leaders and reluctance of the NGOs to work with the Government are reasons mentioned for the existence of poor partnership.

4.1.6 Issues of curriculum, learning facilities, facilitator's training and supervisory services

- Majority of Government (81.2%) and Non-Government (84.2%) respondents respectively responded that the curriculum designed and developed were relevant and consistent with the nomadic life of the people. However, significant number, from both groups complained that there are no enough copies of textbooks in the center and attributed this mainly to lack of transportation to distribute the books.

- All facilitators and coordinators/ supervisors of the government and non government respectively expressed that they have had training before their assignments as program facilitator and coordinator/supervisors. There is, however, a difference in the length of the training period; most of the facilitators and coordinators from NGOs have received the training for not more than two weeks which is much shorter compared to their counterparts in the Government programs. 68.7% of government and 68.4% from non-government responded that they were not happy at their present position as facilitators mentioning reasons related to lowness of their salary and absence of motivation.

- On average supervision service is provided once a year. Thus, both providers perform poor in this respect. The most frequently mentioned reasons that the interviewee raised for not providing this service are lack of personnel, shortage of budget and transport facilities. The Non-Government sponsored training programs have much better evaluation system than that of government programs as they evaluate the program facilitators occasionally.

- The discussions so far show that the performance of NGOs seems better than that of the government in involving stakeholders in planning, allocating resources to run the program and equipping ABE centers with facilities .

4.2 Conclusions

The following conclusions are drawn from the findings of the study:

1) In Afar region, the GER at primary level has shown increment and the contribution of ABE was significant in this regard. Compared to the vast majority of the school age children still out of school, however, the rate of growth is said to be very small. With regard to NGOs, though their contribution is credible, compared to the complexity of access problem in the region, the scale of their involvement in the delivery of the program is very low.

2) In many of the NGOs, not only the target groups been consulted, but they have been also participated in assessing the need for launching of the program. However, this was not done for the ABE centers run by the NGOs.

3) The involvement of stakeholders in the program design is weak in both providers. In this regard, considering the existing number, qualification and experience of the people in WEOs and their limited involvement in planning ABE program and coordinating its implementation, it may be concluded that the management capacity of WEOs in Afar region is weak to carry out responsibilities pertinent to ABE and formal schools as well. It is also worth mentioning that ABE is not well-mainstreamed in the existing structure of the region.

5) The study result revealed that most NGO ABE centers, compared to government ones, found to have a relatively better capacity of human and material resources.

6) Though its impact is limited, the study has revealed the existence of certain good practices, including the establishment of GO/NGO forum and the attachment of water holding reservoirs to the ABE centers .

6) A number of problems and obstacles are prevalent in the course of ABE program implementation that were largely related to absence of budget to run the program, weak coordination among stakeholders, poor staff capacity, absence of supervisory support, acute shortage of text books, and low community participation due to harsh climate of the area with periodic absence of water and pasture. Hence it may be difficult if not impossible to scale up the program in the region to a wider extent, unless and other wise appropriate solution is found to tackle such challenges.

4.3 Recommendations

1) Participatory and integrated planning

Despite the efforts undertaken by some NGOs to involve the target group, the major stake holders that take part in program implementation were not especially involved in planning ABE provision. Thus, the target groups or their representatives' participation in the process of program planning should be strengthened by both providers. In relation to this, education plans at various level should be integrated to other development activities with particular emphasis of ensuring the sustainability of the program that is related to availability of the basics to the pastoral i.e water and pasyure.

2) Building the capacity of personnel

Taking the existing capacity problem at woreda level into consideration short term but continuous training need to be conducted to personnel in these areas. The trainings could be given to Training of Trainers (TOTs) from the REB. However, it is equally important to monitor that the trainings are multiplied to the lower levels of the education system. Besides, a long-range program can also be considered to build the capacity of the facilitators in summer and distance programs. NGOs need to do the same to build the capacity of the personnel at different levels.

3) Learning facilities

Shortage of textbooks in most of the ABE centers is one of the challenges found in this study. In this regard, it needs concerted effort of all concerned offices to improve its distribution.

4) Strengthening institutional and resource capacity

For a strategy to be implemented, it should be accompanied by appropriate institutional structure to facilitate coordination and sufficient resource for its execution. In this regard, appropriate structure that mainstreams ABE need to be created at different levels with sufficient resource to run the program.

5) Encouraging Partnership

It is found in the study that the share of the community and NGOs participation in the delivery of ABE is limited. In this regard, encouraging local civic participation, negotiating with capable NGOs and individuals to take part in the program could help WEOs to enhance access .Besides, NGOs should make an effort to strengthen partnership deals and be willing to share their insights and techniques with one another and with the government.

The NGOs and government agencies working in the same area require coordination in order to avoid duplication of efforts, exchange information and experience, integrate work, and avoid confusion in the community, e.g. by providing contradictory information and messages.

6) Monitoring and evaluation

It is found in the study that both providers are not exercising monitoring and evaluation regularly. The existence of such system, besides helping as a tool in providing feedback about the efficiency and effectiveness of the program, it will also play a motivational role to facilitators, students and the local community. Thus, there is a need by both parties to encourage its existence through allocating sufficient resource and personnel for its implementation.

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Annex A

Addis Ababa University
College of Education

Department of Educational planning and Management
Educational policy and planning stream

Interview questions for:
Regional and Woreda level Officials and NGO Program coordinators

1. Personal information

1.1 Sex Male □ Female □
1.2 Age 20-25 □ 26-30 □ 31-35 □ 36-40 □ above 40 □
1.3 Educational level BA/BSC □ Diploma □ TTI □ other _____
1.4 Job title_____
1.5 Total year of service_____
a) Direct _____
b) Indirect _____

2. Organizational information

2.1 Region _____Zone _____
Woreda _____ Kebele_____

3. Structured Interview questions

3.1 Planning and implementation related issues

3.1.1 Has learning needs assessment been conducted before the program launched?

3.1.2 If "Yes", who have participated in conducting the learning needs assessment survey?

3.1.3 Who are the target group? To whom is special focus given?

3.1.4 What is the level of dialogue made among stakeholder groups and the involvement of stakeholders?

3.1.5 In which of the planning and implementation activities does the community involved?

3.1.6 How conducive is the institutional arrangement to run the program in the region?

3.2 Curriculum related issues

3.2.1 Who developed the curriculum for ABE? Is the curriculum relevant to the needs of the local community?

3.2.2 Who does prepare the learners' textbooks?

3.2.3 Is the number of students' text-books enough in the ABE centers?

3.2.4 Is there enough facilitators' guide in the ABE centers?

3.2.5 Is there any guide line used to facilitate students transfer from ABE to the formal school?

3.3 Facilitators/coordinators related issues

3.3.1 What are the criteria for selecting the facilitators in the ABE program?

3.3.2 Who selected the facilitators?

3.3.3 What types of trainings have been given for the facilitators? For how long?

3.3.4 Is there any on job training for the facilitators?

3.4 Community participation

3.4.1 Is there sufficient community participation in the program?

3.4.2 What type of contribution does the community provide to the ABE centers?

3.4.3 Who mobilize and co-ordinate community participation?

3.4.4 Is there any committee formed to manage the ABE centers?

3.4.5 Are the roles and responsibilities of committee members clearly stated?

3.5 Budget and facilities

3.5.1 What is the major source of income for the program?

3.5.2 Is there any governmental support in funding ABE programs?

3.5.3 Do(es) the program(s) have(has) enough budget and facilities to run?

3.6 Partnership and Sustainability issue

3.6.1 Who are the different organizations (NGOs,CBOs,etc) involved on the provision of ABE in the region/woreda?

3.6.2 What is the extent of Partnership and networks among agencies to participate in the planning and implementation of ABE program? Mention the strengths and weaknesses.

3.6.3 Do you think that there are sufficient number of NGOs in the region that participate in the implementation of ABE strategy in the region? If not what do you think are the limiting factors that reduce their participation? What suggestions do you recommend to improve their participation in the program?

3.6.4 How often do you study the impact of your program in the participants' life?

3.6.5 What mechanisms does your organization employ to ensure sustainability of the program in your program/project areas?

3.6.6 Would you think that the program could be conducted without your organization' support in the future? If yes or no why?

3.6.7 Is there any phased out project of ABE programs in your organization? If yes, do you have recent information about the centers?

3.7 Monitoring and evaluation

3.7.1 Is the evaluation program incorporated in the ABE program plan your organization run?

3.7.2 Who is responsible to monitor and supervise ABE program in the Region/Woreda?

3.7.3 How often program monitoring and evaluation is conducted in the region/woreda? Does this program include ABE centers run by NGOs?

3.7.4 To what extent monitoring and evaluating results are utilized?

3.8 Access and efficiency issue

3.8.1 To what extent the alternative programs run in the region are contributing towards achieving EFA target in the region?

3.8.2 How do you evaluate the implementation of ABE strategy in the region? What are the strengths and weaknesses of this strategy?

3.8.3 Do you think that the ABE centers are functioning effectively?

3.8.4 Are the ABE centers closer to the community?

3.8.5 What are the main challenges in improving enrollment rate, dropout rate and repetition rate in the ABE centers in the region?

3.8.6 What mechanisms have you been devised to improve enrollment and reduce dropout or repetition?

3.9 Linkages between ABE programs and other sectors for rural development

3.9.1 Is there any linkage formed between the ABE program and other sectors for rural development?

3.9.2 If yes, list the sectors with whom the linkage is created?

3.10 General comments

3.10.1 What do you think are good practices of the ABE program in the region/woreda?

3.10.2 What are the major problems that your faced in the implementation of ABE programs?

3.10.3 In your opinion, what are the major remedies for the problems encountered?

Annex B

Addis Ababa University
College of Education

Department of Educational planning and Management
Educational policy and planning stream

Questionnaire for:
Alternative Basic Education coordinators/supervisors

Dear respondents,

This questionnaire is designed for the purpose of studying the practice and problems encountered in the implementation process of Alternative Basic Education programmes in Afar Regional state. Your responses to the questionnaire are very important and confidential and will be used only for academic research. I am confident that you would cooperate by offering honest and frank responses.

General instruction

- No need of writing your name
- You are asked to tick (✓) your responses for the questions that are followed by alternatives in the box provided
- You **can** choose/tick (✓) **more than one** alternatives when necessary
- You are politely requested to specify/write any additional information/opinions other than the alternatives provided
- You are politely asked to give your opinions for the questions that Require to do so
- Your urgent reply is appreciated.
- ABE – stands for Alternative Basic Education

Thank you in advance for your co-operation and concern!

1. Personal information

1.1 Sex Male ☐ Female ☐

1.2 Age A.20-25 ☐ B.26-30 ☐ A.31-35 ☐ A.36-40 ☐ A. above 40 ☐

1.3 Educational level_____

1.4 Your current position in the learning center_____

1.5 Relevant training attended

a) Up to 6 months ☐ b) Up to 1year ☐

c) More than 1 year ☐ d) Other (Please specify)_____

1.6 Total year of service_____

a) Direct on ABE _____

b) Indirect on ABE _____

1.7 Salary

a) Monthly amount _____

b) Source _____

2. Organizational information

2.1 Name of your organization_____

2.2 Year of establishment_____

2.3 Name of the site_____

2.4 Location of the site

Region _____Zone _____

Woreda _____ Kebele_____

2.5 Type of organization

a) Governmental ☐ b) Non-governmental ☐

3. Program planning and implementation

3.1 Has learning needs assessment been conducted for ABE in the locality?

a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

3.1.1 If "Yes", who have conducted the needs assessment survey?

a) Community ☐ b) Local government agency ☐

c) Facilitators ☐ d) ABE center Coordinators ☐

e) Project managers' ☐ f) REB ☐

g) Funding agency ☐ h) other (Please specify) _____

3.2 What is the major source of income for the program?

a) Government budget ☐ b) Donation ☐

c) Voluntary contribution ☐ d) Income generation ☐

e) Community contribution ☐ g) Other (Please specify _____

3.3 Does the community participate in the program planning and implementation?

a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

3.3.1 If your answer to 3.3 is "Yes", mention the ways they are involved?

_____

_____

3.4 Please rate your response on the basis of the following scales: very low, low, medium, high, and very high. Please indicate by putting a tick (✓) mark on the space provided.

No.	Guiding principles	Rating scales				
		very low	**low**	**medium**	**high**	**very high**
3.4.1	**The extent of stake holders participation in the process of program design**					
3.4.1.1	The involvement of stakeholders in the planning of the program					
3.4.1.2	The level of dialogue made among representatives of all stakeholder groups					
3.4.1.3	Linkage of the learning program planning to the development framework of the community					
3.4.1.4	Reflection of different needs and characteristics of different target groups in the design and organization of the program					
3.4.1.5	To what extent the ABE programs designed fit with national programs and strategies					
3.4.2	**The extent of program implementation**					
3.4.2.1	Level of decentralization of management of ABE programmes to give local actors a real opportunity to make decisions about their own learning and resource arrangements					
3.4.2.2	Alignment or compliance of the program planned with implemented activities					
3.4.2.3	Availability of sufficient resource (human and financial) to run the program					

3.4.2.4	The organization of the learning venue with the necessary facilities and equipment					
3.4.2.5	The conduciveness of the environment for the learning					
3.4.2.6	Interest of children for joining ABE program					
3.4.3	**Evaluation of the learning program**					
3.4.3.1	To what extent performance of ABE facilitators and personnel in various roles are monitored and evaluated					
3.4.3.2	To what extent training methods are evaluated					
3.4.3.3	To what extent progress and achievement of the program is evaluated					
3.4.3.4	To what extent the impact of the programme on the communities attitude towards education is evaluated.					
3.4.3.5	To what extent monitoring and evaluating results are utilized					
3.4.4	**Impact of the training in the improvement of the learners' and the community life**					
3.4.4.1	The capacity of the training to bring about improved health and sanitation condition of the learners					
3.4.4.2	The capacity of the training to bring about improved way of life and economic condition in the community					
3.4.4.3	The capacity of the training to initiate the learner and the community for further education					
3.4.4.4	The capacity of the training to bring about enhanced participation in socio-economic and political process					
3.4.5	**Partnership and networks among government agencies and NGOs**					
3.4.5.1	Partnership with each other (government with government/NGOs with NGOs) to participate in the planning and implementation of ABE program					

3.4.5.2	Partnership with other development partners, including water and health sectors, to plan and implement ABE program					
3.4.5.3	Partnership with stakeholders and intended beneficiaries to plan and implement ABE program					

3.5 Please indicate where you rate the capacity of your organization in implementing ABE strategy in the center using the following ranking scales: very poor, poor, fair, good, very good.

No.	**organizational capacity of the center**	**Rating scales**				
3.5.1	**Manpower resources**	**very poor**	**poor**	**fair**	**good**	**very good**
3.5.1.1	Knowledge, skills and attitude of the staff to effectively carry out the program					
3.5.1.2	Efficiency and commitment in accomplishing tasks					
3.5.1.3	Existence of human resource planning, development and utilization scheme					
3.5.1.4	Capacity to apply child-friendly principles and approaches					
3.5.2	**Financial resources**					
3.5.2.1	Existence of adequate financial resources for effective program execution					
3.5.2.2	Effort of the organization to generate local and external funds					
3.5.2.3	Financial execution capacity					
3.5.2.4	System of financial controls					
3.5.2.5	Execution capacity, accurate and timely reporting systems					
3.5.3	**Material resources**	**very poor**	**poor**	**fair**	**good**	**very good**
3.5.3.1	The presence of learning materials (equipment, furniture, vehicle, services and utilities)					
3.5.3.2	The establishment of mechanisms to mobilize material resources					
3.5.3.3	Wise use of available resources for only the learning programs					

3.6 Please rate your response as opinion on the basis of the following scales: very low, low, medium, high, and very high. Please indicate by putting a tick (✓) mark on the space provided.

S.N	Functions related to the planning and implementation of ABE learning programs	Rating scales				
		Very low	low	medium	high	very high
3.6.1	**ABE facilitators**					
3.6.1.1	Participate in learning needs-assessment					
3.6.1.2	Participate in selection of learners					
3.6.1.3	Participate in prioritizing learning programs					
3.6.1.4	Participate in planning program					
3.6.1.5	Participate in the management of ABE centers					
3.6.1.6	Participate in the monitoring and evaluation of program					
3.6.2	**Community**					
3.6.2.1	Participate in learning needs-assessment					
3.6.2.2	Participate in selection of learners					
3.6.2.3	Participate in prioritizing learning programs					
3.6.2.4	Participate in planning program					
3.6.2.5	Participate in the management of ABE centers					
3.6.2.6	Participate in the monitoring and evaluation of program					
3.6.3.	**Regional Educational Bureau**					
3.6.3.1	Participate in learning needs-assessment					
3.6.3.2	Participate in selection of learners					
3.6.3.3	Participate in prioritizing learning programs					
3.6.3.4	Participate in planning program					
3.6.3.5	Participate in the management of ABE centers					
3.6.3.6	Participate in the monitoring and evaluation of program					
3.6.4	**NGOs**					
3.6.4.1	Participate in learning needs-assessment					
3.6.4.2	Participate in selection of learners					
3.6.4.3	Participate in prioritizing learning programs					
3.6.4.4	Participate in planning program					
3.6.4.5	Participate in the management of ABE centers					
3.6.4.6	Participate in the monitoring and evaluation of program					

4. Access and retention issues

4.1 How do children come to register in ABE program ?

a) by application ☐ b) by sensitization ☐

c) by order ☐ d) other(please specify) _____

4.2 What criteria is used for selecting the learners to participate in the ABE program?(more than one answer is possible)

a) Age ☐ b) Sex ☐ c) interest ☐ d) economic back ground ☐

e) other (please specify) _____

5. Curriculum materials issues

5. 1 Is the curriculum designed and developed accepted by:

5.1.1 The learners? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

5.1.2 The Community? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

5.1.3 The facilitators? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

5.1.4 The coordinators? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

5.1.5 If your answer for any one of the **above** question is "No", why not suitable? Please explain

_____

_____

_____

5.2 Who does prepare the learners' textbooks?

a) Learning center ☐ b) Woreda ☐

c) Zone ☐ d) Region ☐ e) NGO ☐ f) NGO & Region ☐

g) Other (Please specify) _____

5.2 Is the text book designed and developed by a local NGO accepted by government officials: a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

5.2.1 If your answer for the **above** question is "No", explain why?

_____

_____

_____

5.3 Are the textbooks prepared accepted by:

5.3.1 The learners? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

5.3.2 The Community? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

5.3.3 The facilitators? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

5.3.4 The coordinators? a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

5.3.5 If your answer for any one of the **above** question is "No", why not suitable? Please explain

_____

_____

5.4 Is the number of students' text-books enough in the ABE center?

a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

5.5 Are there enough facilitators' guide in the ABE center?

a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

6. Program Evaluation issues

6.1 Is the evaluation program incorporated in the ABE program plan your organization run?

a) Yes ☐ b) No ☐

6.2 How often program evaluation is conducted in your center?

a) Day-by-day ☐ b) Week-by-week ☐

c) Month-by-month ☐ d) Annual ☐

e) Others (Please specify_____

6.3 Who participate in evaluation program? Please specify them

_____

_____

_____

6.4 How often program supervision is conducted in your center?

a) Day-by-day ☐ b) Week-by-week ☐

c) Month-by-month ☐ d) Annual ☐

e) Others (Please specify_____

6.5 Who participate in supervision program? Please specify them

_____

_____

_____

6.7what type of technical/professional support offered from the supervisors during their visits

_____

_____

6.8. what type of support/contributions do you receive from the local community?

_____

_____

6.9What is the role of the community in the management of the ABE center?

_____

_____

6.10 Please specify if any additional comments in supervision, monitoring and evaluation issues

_____

_____

7. Issues, concerns and problems

7.1 What are the major problems that ABE providers (government and non-government) are facing to smoothly carry out the program?

_____

_____

_____

7.2 Accordingly, what are the major remedies for the problems that ABE providers (government and non-government) are facing to smoothly carry out the problem?

_____

_____

_____

_____

7.3 What recommendations would you like to suggest?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thank you again for your co-operation and concern!

Annex C

Addis Ababa University
College of Education

Department of Educational planning and Management
Educational policy and planning stream

Focus Group Discussion Guide for *Community representatives and selected children's parents*

The objective of this interview is to obtain information pertinent to the planning and implementation process of Alternative Basic Education programmes

Your response is very essential to the problem under investigation. You are kindly requested to provide genuine responses to the questions raised by the interviewer.

1.Name of the organization_____

2.Name of the ABE center_____

3.Address Region _____ Zone_____

Woreda_____ Kebele _____

Focus group discussion participant's name	Sex	Age	Level of education	Responsibility in the center

1. Guiding questions related to ABE programs planning

1.1 Before the ABE learning program commenced, were you consulted about the Program?

1.2 Are the ABE centers closer to the surrounding community?

1.3 To what extent does the program designed based on your needs?

1.4 As beneficiaries of the program, in which of the following activities do you participate?

- Choice of place of the ABE centers
- Timing of delivery of the ABE program
- Recruitment of facilitators

If any others_____

2. Guiding questions related to organization and management of learning

2.1 Is there any community management committee that is established for the Alternative basic education program?

2.2 Have you ever been selected as/participated in community management committee?

2.3 What roles does the committee play in the process of managing the learning process?

3. Guiding questions related to teaching/learning process

3.1 What kind of help does the facilitator give for learners in the ABE centers?

3.2 Do children in the ABE center have enough text books?

3.3 Do facilitators regularly teach?

4. Guiding questions related to monitoring and evaluation

4.1 Who participate in evaluation of ABE program? Please specify them

4.2 How often program supervision is conducted in your center?

4.3 Who participate in ABE supervision program? Please specify them

4.4 According to your observation, what are the main challenges and constraints the ABE centers are facing?

Thank you very much!

Annex D

Addis Ababa University
College of Education

Department of Educational planning and Management
Educational policy and planning stream

Date conducted_____

Focus Group Discussion Leading Questions with students

The objective of this interview is to obtain information pertinent to the planning and implementation process of Alternative Basic Education programmes

Your response is very essential to the problem under investigation. You are kindly requested to provide genuine responses to the questions raised by the interviewer.

1.Name of the organization_____

2.Name of the ABE center_____

3.Address Region _____ Zone_____

Woreda_____ Kebele _____

Focus group discussion participant's name	Sex	Age	Grade level	Responsibility in the center

Focus group discussion guide

- A welcoming statement
- An explanation of the discussion theme
- A brief overview of the research subject
- Questions and extension questions

Guiding questions related to ABE programs planning

1. How do you come and register to this ABE program?
2. Is there a formal school in your kebele?
3. Why did not you enroll in formal schools?
4. Is the distance between the ABE center and your residence near or far?
5. Who provides you the necessary learning materials
6. What subjects do you learn? Do you have text books for subjects taught in the center? List them.
7. In what time and days you attend the class?
8. Do you absent from the classes? How frequently is it? Why?
9. Do teachers use teaching aids in the teaching-learning process?
10. How frequently do you take examinations or tests?
11. When you complete level III, do you want to extend your education? If not why not?
12. Please identify any major problem you faced during attending your education in the ABE centers?

Thank you very much!

Annex E

Addis Ababa University
College of Education
Department of Educational planning and Management
Educational policy and planning stream

Observation checklist

Name of organization_____
Zone_____ **Woreda**_____
Kebele_____
Learning center_____**Grade level**_____**No of students** _____

S. N	Item	Level					Remark
		5	4	3	2	1	
1	Administration issues • Trainers'/facilitators' file • Learners' file • Students' records; enrollment, dropout, etc. • Students' attendance sheet • Training schedule • Establishment of Community management Committee						
2	Teaching learning process • Training methodology • Lesson plan • Child-friendly teaching aids • Learners per section • Students' learning assessment						
3	Curriculum issues						
4	Facilities						

Signed Declaration

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university, and that all sources of the materials for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name of Candidate

MOHAMMED TIKUYE Signature----------

This thesis has been submitted with my approval as a university research advisor

Name of the Advisor

Dr. ABDULAZIZ HUSSIEN Signature----------

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