

FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION

POST - 1974 ETHIOPIA

BY

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## A B S T R A C T

The major objectives of this study are to make an investigation into the problem of female participation in primary and secondary education post-1974 and the effect of their participation on the achievement of the enrolment target described in the ten year perspective plan. To attain these objectives information on school enrolment and school-age population were gathered from documents of Ministry of Education and Central Statistics Office. Furthermore, formal questionnaire was distributed to 530 primary and secondary schools directors, assistant directors, unit leaders, department heads and teachers to gather information on factors that have contributed to low female participation in education.

According to the findings of the study, the relationship between female participation in education (obtained by dividing the number of females enrolled in primary and secondary schools to a total female population of eligible age group) and overall educational participation rate (obtained by dividing a total number of pupils enrolled at primary and secondary levels to a total population of eligible age group) are found to be positive and strong ( $r = 0.95$ ) at 1% level of significance. Furthermore, the administrative regions that have higher female participation rate than the national average do not have a problem in achieving the enrolment target described in the ten year perspective plan, while those that have lower female

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participation rate than the national average have a problem in achieving the enrolment target. The administrative regions that have higher female participation rate than the national average were Addis Ababa, Illubabor, Bale, Arsi and Wellega while Eritrea and Tigray have the least female participation rate. Yet, there is no identified pattern of regional variation in female participation in education.

The participation of female is higher at the primary level than at junior and senior secondary levels due to different reasons including the availability of more primary schools than the junior and senior secondary schools, females' low pass rate in grade six and eight National Examinations, low females' persistent rate and cultural pressure for early marriage.

Furthermore, the findings of the study show that parents' illiteracy, lack of exposure to modern outlook, parents demand for their daughters' labour, cultural pressure for early marriage and narrow employment opportunities for the educated females are the major reasons for low female participation in primary and secondary education.

## Chapter I

### I n t r o d u c t i o n

#### 1. An Overview of the Problem of Female Participation in Education

Article 26(1) of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted by the general assembly of the United Nations on 10 December 1948 asserted that "Everyone has the right of Education" (Juvigny, 1963:9). Since then schools have been urged to take in and educate all children in the same way regardless of sex differences. However, many scholars suggest that female enrolment is still low in almost all countries of the world (Coombs, 1985:24). For example, studies on the enrolments of students (Jones, 1986 in Tunisia, Kelly, 1987 in the Third World, Chabaud, 1970 in all over the world, Mbilinyi, 1969 in Tanzania) indicate that a few number of girls attended schools. According to Chabaud (1970: 16), for instance, out of a total of 428 million pupils enrolled in all levels of education throughout the world in 1967/68 (excluding China, North Korea, and North Vietnam) only 186 million were females. That is, out of every 100 pupils who got the chance of going to school only 43 were females. After twenty years, in 1989, a publication from World Conference on Education for All (WCEA, 1990:1) noted that out of 100 million children who have no access to primary education in the

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world 60 million were females. In other words, of 100 children who did not attend school 60 were females. This indicates that, though females' right to education is generally recognized, they are far from exercising their right in education. Explaining this fact, Chabaud (1970: 17) writes:

Women do not enjoy all the educational opportunities they should have, and often do not have any at all. Nearly every where in the world they are given less education than men, and, over vast areas of the globe the majority of the illiterates are women.

From what has been said above, it is clear that females have less opportunity than males to go to school in all over the world. Therefore, the problem of female participation in education is a global issue that concerns both developed and least developed countries. However, the extent of the problem is not the same in developed and least developed countries. According to Unesco's Publication (1981:21) the problem is much more severe in least developed countries.

Even, among the least developed countries, there is a considerable variation in the rate of female participation in education. Explaining the rates of their participation in African countries, Topauzis (1991:47) says, "... almost half the African girls of primary school age (6-11) were not in school, and that those in school in most countries were only 40 percent of all pupils." In the eyes of many scholars, their enrolment goes even below this percentage

at the secondary level. According to Almaz (1991:7) for instance, female enrolment gets narrower as one climbs up the level of educational system. Similarly, Coombs (1985: 228) argues that low female participation rate is certain at the secondary level when there is low female enrolment at the primary level. Moreover, he argues that whenever low enrolment of girls exists in the preceding levels they are always prominent in the next educational levels. Looked at from this point of view, the problem of female participation in education continues to exist until the problem at the primary level is solved.

Like in other African countries, in Ethiopia, only one-fourth of primary school-age girls are enrolled (MOE, 1989:1). Thus, since this can affect the attainment of enrolment target, the study of the problem of female participation in education seems in order.

## 2. Trends in Female Participation in Education Pre-1974 Ethiopia

In Ethiopia, education was in the hands of church and mosque for many years (MOE, 1984:1). In Central, Northern, and North-West highlands of Ethiopia the schools were under the Ethiopian Orthodox Church and taught the sons of the clergy and aristocracy to read and write biblical texts. Similarly, in areas where there were concentration of moslem population, particularly in the eastern, southern and western parts of the country, quranic schools were the sole

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source of education and the attendants of such schools were mainly boys (Teshome, 1979:10). Thus, females were excluded from participation in religion education. Expressing this fact, Seyoum (1986:6) says that "... the participation of women in traditional education had been negligible."

In 1908, when the first secular school was opened in Addis Ababa still all the students enrolled were males (Pankhurst, 1963:96). After the issuance of the proclamation that made school attendance obligatory for children from the age of six years upwards (Haile Gebrial, 1968:11) no promising progress had been achieved in female school enrolment. As a result, parents, soul fathers (father-priests) and leaders of parishes were ordered to send children (both male and female) to school so that they know how to write and read (Teshome, 1979:32). Furthermore an effort was made to formulate a policy that could lead to the universalization of primary education. Besides the formulation of such a policy, the school for girls was opened in Addis Ababa in 1931 (Senedu, 1957:77). In spite of all these efforts, however, there were only 80 female students enrolled in the school in 1935 (Atsede and Kebede, 1988:16). Finally, their participation in education was brought to an end by the Italian invasion.

After the expulsion of the invaders, improvement in the enrolment of girls was observed both in the reopened girls' school and in the newly opened provincial schools. For example, out of 34,844 students enrolled in all levels of

education in 1946, 3,374 or 9.7 percent were females (Bjerkan, 1970:16). That is, female enrolments in school reached 3,374 from mere enrolment of 80 females in 1935. After a decade, in 1955/56 their enrolment in all levels of education had reached 33,686 from 3,374 (Senedu, 1957:77). In 1961, there were about 57,070 female students at all levels of education (Seyoum, 1986:11). In other words, between the years 1955/56 and 1961, during six years period, the enrolment of females was increased by 23,384 or 69.1 percent. Within a decade, in 1971/72 or 1964 E.C., their number reached 272,425 at primary, junior and senior secondary schools (MOE, 1985: see page 2, 4, 5 and 8). It is worth noting that in all the cases female enrolment was higher at the primary level than at the secondary.

Moreover, female enrolment had been characterized by regional disparity. Considering their enrolment at primary level, for instance, Addis Ababa, Eritrea, Showa, Hararge, and Gonder had the highest rate of female enrolment, while other administrative regions, such as Gamu Goffa, Bale and Illubabor had the lowest participation rate in 1964/65 (Seyoum, 1986:12). Ten years later, in 1973/74, a similar trend was observed. That is, except Showa, the same administrative regions namely, Addis Ababa, Eritrea, Hararge and Gonder had the highest participation rate, while Gamu Goffa, Bale and Illubabor had the lowest female participation rate (MOE, 1984:17, 33, 49). In conformity to this, Teklehaimanot (1983:150) indicates that female participation in primary

schools in the southern regions was lower than in Addis Ababa, Hararge and northern regions.

Comparing the enrolment of female in government and non-government schools, higher proportion of female enrolment was observed in non-government schools. For example, the total number of females enrolled in both types of schools, was 129,904 in 1966/67. Out of this 26.6 percent was in non-government schools (MOE, 1966/67:30). If these differences were considered at educational levels, the gap gets narrower at the primary level and wider at the secondary level. For instance, in 1966/67, the proportion of female enrolled in the government primary schools was 27.6 percent, while it was 31 percent in the non-government primary schools. In the government junior secondary schools, it was 23.3 percent against 35.9 percent in the non-government junior secondary schools. The gap was even wider than this in the senior secondary schools. That is, the proportion of their enrolment in the government senior secondary schools was 15.9 percent, while it was 31.1 percent in the non-government senior secondary schools, the ratio being about two times as much as in the government senior secondary schools. According to Atsede and Kebede (1988:23) the differences in female participation in the government and non-government schools emanates from the fact that most of the non-government schools were operated by foreigners, mostly western groups, who brought with them the custom of coeducation to Ethiopia. In view of these writers, the establishment of

such schools, that were operated by foreigners have brought some attitudinal change towards females' schooling. Apart from such exposure to modern thinking, many scholars argue that, there are other reasons that have affected female school enrolment. In Chapter two of this paper we will try to explore what different scholars have said about female participation in education and the reasons often attributed to low or high female enrolment in schools.

### 3. Statement of the Problem

Females are the basis for the continuous existence of human race. Furthermore, they are central to the development process (Jabre, 1988:iii, World Bank, 1990:1). It is also believed that full and complete development of any country requires the maximum participation of females who are about half the world's population (Dable, 1980:i). However, full participation of females in development can not take place unless they have the knowledge or the required level of education.

Apart from this, females are the earlier educators of children. As a result, their education needs particular attention. The University Education Commission of India, 1948-49, stressed this fact:

There cannot be educated people without educated women. If generally education had to be limited to men or women, that opportunity should be given to women for then it would most surely be passed on to the next generation (in Aggarwal, 1982:285).

In view of this quotation, education of females is a prerequisite to educated a society.

In addition to this, participation of females in education can result in increased total school enrolment. In this regard Kasaju and Manandhar (1985:330) note that, "... increment in girls enrolment is a critical factor in attaining the high enrolment ratios described in development plans." In this context, increasing female participation in education can be seen as a means of increasing school enrolment. Thus, female participation in education should get considerable attention if a given target of enrolment is to be attained.

Despite these facts, however, little research has been made into this issue. This does not mean, however, that attempts were not done at all in the field. The work of Anbesu and Barbara (1988), which documented some of the reasons why the majority of rural girls of Bahir Dar Awraja were not in school, is one good example that has important contributions to the debate. However, it is difficult to generalize its results to the whole country for it is limited to a particular - locality. The 1989 report on "Gender Analysis of Primary School Textbook" indicates that female participation in education is lower in rural than in urban areas. Yet it does not indicate the situation between the government and non-government schools. Seyoum's (1986) study of women's participation in education can be regarded as a framework for such studies, but it is limited to the

pre-1974 Ethiopian Situation. Studies made by Ayalew (1989), Teshome (1989) and Teklehaimanot (1983) on disparity in educational opportunities show some patterns of regional educational participation in general without due regard to the sexes.

Therefore, this study is designed to achieve the following general objectives.

1. to measure the extent of female participation in primary and secondary education post-1974.
2. to examine the effect of female participation in education on the achievement of enrolment target described in the Ten Year Perspective Plan.
3. to make an investigation into the problem of female participation in primary and secondary education post-1974 Ethiopia.

In a very concise form, the specific objectives of the study are:

1. to examine and document the extent of female participation at primary and secondary levels of formal education.
2. to identify the type of school that has the highest female participation rate, in order to create awareness among educators where the focus of attention should be in an attempt to increase female participation in education.

3. to find the relationship between female participation in education and overall educational participation rate.
4. to examine spatial pattern of female participation in education.
5. to identify factors contributive to low female participation in education.
6. to recommend policy proposals that will increase female participation in education and thereby total school enrolment.

Accordingly, the study has tried to answer the following basic questions:

- A. At which level of education do most of the females participate?
- B. Is there any difference in the participation of females between government and non-government schools?
- C. Is there any relationship between female participation in education and overall educational participation rate?
- D. Is there any pattern of regional variation in the participation of females in education?
- E. Do regions that have lower female participation rate have also an overall educational participation rate below the national average?
- F. What are the major factors that had contributed to low females' educational participation?

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4. Significance of the Study

Nowadays, Ethiopia has been facing a problem in attaining the intended enrolment target. For instance, the required enrolment target indicated in the ten year perspective plan for the year 1980 E.C. was 5,383,300 at primary and secondary levels (MOE, 1975 E.C.: 6). But the achieved enrolment was only 3,711,272 (MOE, 1981 E.C.:27). That is, 1,672,025 or 31.1 percent less than the enrolment target described in the development plan.

Because of such failure to attain the goal, there is discontent among educators that Ethiopia is lagging behind in achieving the desired enrolment target. Furthermore, they could not anticipate when the plan for the universalization of education is realized. Consequently, the problem has now become one of the pressing issues before the Ministry of Education. As a result, policy-makers, educational planners and educational administrators, more than ever before, are concerned with this problem.

Among other things, the reason often mentioned for not achieving the intended enrolment target described in the development plan is female participation (Kasaju and Manandhar, 1985:330; Alfred, 1966:8). This study, therefore, is necessary to provide valuable information to policy-makers, educational planners and educational administrators concerning female participation in education.

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Thus, as a result of this study, policy-makers and educational planners will have some basis for developing alternative methods of increasing school enrolment through increasing female participation in education. Furthermore, awareness of this problem may also help school principals to create a school climate that is conducive to female participation in education and thereby increase school enrolment in their respective schools.

Finally, the information gained from this study may answer some of the questions that educators have posed concerning female participation in education. It is hoped also that the study will stimulate researchers for further investigation of related problems in this field.

##### 5. The Scope of the Study

The study is limited to female's educational participation, in terms of enrolment, particularly at primary and secondary levels of formal education in Ethiopia since 1974. It did not include participation of female at technical and vocational schools. Similarly, their participation at tertiary level was not considered. This is not to overlook the importance of the third level education, but it is only to deal with the pre-tertiary levels, since the question of their participation in tertiary level arises after leaving primary and secondary levels. Furthermore, their participation at non-formal and informal education were not included, because it is not easy to undertake

such a huge task within the time span available for the researcher.

## 6. Limitations to the Study

Almost all statistics on school enrolment and school-age population were drawn directly from the documents of the Ministry of Education and Central Statistics Office which was not checked for accuracy. In other words, obvious errors in calculation were corrected, but the errors in making census by the Ministry of Education and Central Statistic Office could not be corrected. As a result, the data used in this study may suffer from such limitations

## 7. Research Design

### 7.1. Data and Materials used

Data concerning female enrolments at primary and secondary schools were drawn from published and unpublished materials of the Ministry of Education for the years 1973/74, 1983/84 and 1987/88. Likewise, other pertinent data like school-age population were from the Central Statistics Office.

The number of females enrolled in government and non-government primary, junior and secondary schools were obtained from the documents of the Ministry of Education for the years mentioned above. The years 1973/74, 1983/84 and 1987/88 were selected due to the following reasons.

The year 1973/74 was selected because it helps to have basic information about female participation in education during the early years of post-1974. It also helps to see the improvement made during the following years. The years 1983/84 and 1987/88 were selected because they are the beginning and the end of the five year of the Ten Year Perspective Plan. Information obtained from the years 1983/84 and 1987/88 helps to observe the progress made during the first five years of the ten year perspective plan. Furthermore, the information from the year 1987/88 helps to see how far the administrative regions attained their enrolment shares and thereby general achievement of the intended enrolment target.

Based on the data obtained from the Ministry of Education and Central Statistics Office percentage of female students enrolled at primary, junior and senior secondary schools as well as in administrative regions were calculated. Likewise, using the data drawn from the Ministry of Education proportions of female students enrolled in government and non-government schools were computed.

In addition to the data obtained from these institutions, formal questionnaire was prepared to gather information on factors contributive to low female participation in education. The questionnaire contains to parts. The first part contains 25 items, of which the first 24 required the respondents to choose (or

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sometimes to list) one among the given alternatives. The 25<sup>th</sup> item contains a list of possible measures that could increase the participation of female in education. The respondents were requested to choose one or more measure(s) that he/she thinks increase(s) female participation in education. Similarly, part two contains 15 reasons that may have contributed to low female participation in education. Then the respondents were requested to rank the reasons in-order of their seriousness.

The questionnaire was prepared first in English and then translated into Amharic. The english version of the questionnaire was distributed to 148 teachers, 64 department heads, 26 unit leaders, 14 assistant directors, 3 acting directors, 6 directors and 4 guidance officers of randomly selected secondary schools of Shoa, Wellega, Gamu Goffa, Sidamo Hararge and Wollo administrative regions. The Amharic version was distributed to 195 teachers, 30 department heads, 16 unit leaders, 14 assistant directors, and 10 directors of randomly selected primary schools of the same administrative regions.

## 7.2. Methods Employed to Achieve the Objectives of the Research

Due to the characteristics of the study the research could not find a single method or model that

can give precise measures or answers to all basic questions raised earlier. As a result, the following different approaches were used. These are:

1. Level-Specific Enrolment Approach or Level Enrolment Ratio. This method was used by Unesco in 1983 to measure educational participation rates among countries. Likewise, it is used in this study to measure the extent of female participation at educational and regional levels.

Accordingly, to determine the overall educational participation rate of each administrative regions, a total number of pupils enrolled at primary and secondary levels of the administrative regions were calculated in terms of a total population of eligible age groups. According to the guideline of the Ministry of Education the expected primary school entry age is seven. Thus, the eligible age group for primary school should be in the range of 7-12. Similarly, the eligible age group for junior secondary school is 13 - 14 and that of the senior secondary school is 15 - 18. However, for the sake of convenience the range 7 - 18 was used generally as the eligible age group to calculate percentage of overall educational participation rate in all levels of education. Finally, the ratios obtained by dividing the total number of pupils enrolled at all levels of education to the total number of population age 7 - 18 were

used as overall educational participation index. Then, the higher the obtained ratio than the national mean, the higher is overall educational participation rate of that administrative region.

Similarly, to determine the participation rate of female in education at regional levels, the number of females enrolled at all levels of education were computed in terms of the total population of females who are 7 - 18 years old. Then the ratios obtained from such computation were used as the regional female educational participation index. Furthermore, Karl Pearson's coefficient of correlation was computed to determine the direction and relationship between percentage female participation in all levels of education and overall educational participation rate. Finally, Z-score of female participation in all levels of education of each administrative regions were calculated to determine how far above or below the national mean is female participation in the administrative regions.

To find the participation rate of female at educational levels, a total number of females enrolled at primary, junior and senior secondary levels were calculated. Then the sum obtained from each educational levels were divided by the total number of female population of eligible age groups. That is, 7 - 12, 13 - 14, and 15 - 18 for primary, junior and senior secondary levels respectively. The enrolment ratio

obtained (by dividing the number of females enrolled at primary, junior and senior secondary levels to the total number of eligible age groups) were used as female educational participation index. Furthermore, coefficient of variation were calculated in order to observe the trends of the variability.

## 2. Percentage of Female Representation in School

This method was used by Bowman and Anderson in 1980 to measure intra - country variations in schooling of girls. Likewise, it is used in this study to measure female participation in government and non-government schools. The extent of their participation was determined by calculating the proportion of female enrolled in terms of the total enrolments of each type of school. Based on the percentage obtained from the computation a comparison of female participation in government and non-government schools was done. That is, the more the percentage obtained from the calculation is, the higher the participation rate of females in that type of school.

3. Formal Questionnaire. It is used to gather information on factors that have contributed to low female participation in education. Finally, data obtained through this questionnaire was analysed by computing the percentage of the respondents in favour of each item. The items

that were chosen by many respondents were considered as reasons that have affected female participation in education. In addition to this, Sperman's formula of coefficient of rank correlation was used to determine how far the factors that have affected female participation at the primary level have also affected their participation at the secondary level.

#### 8. Definition of Terms

Educational Participation Rate:- refers to percentage of students enrolled at a given educational level.

Enrolment:- refers to the fact that a child's name is entered or registered as a pupil on the school rolls. It is also used to mean the total number of pupils on the school rolls at a given time, or sometimes to the average number of pupils listed during a given period, such as a school year.

Government Schools:- are schools operated by the Ethiopian Government Ministry of Education (MOE, 1989:iii).

Intended Enrolment Target:- refers to the enrolment rate set forth to achieve in a given period. For instance, the intended enrolment target set forth in the ten year perspective plan for 1987/88 was 26.86 percent. That is, 5,383,300 (MOE, 1975 E.C.: 6) out of 20,042,059 population of 7-18 years of age (CSO, 1990:1).

Junior Secondary Education:- is educational level that covers grades seven and eight in the Ethiopian Educational system.

Level-specific Ratio:- is the ratio between the number of students enrolled at a given level of education, regardless of their age, and the size of the population in a relevant age group (Unesco, 1983:17).

Non-Government Schools:- are schools operated by authorities other than the Ethiopian Government Ministry of Education (MOE, 1989:iii).

Primary Education:- is educational level that covers grades one through six in the Ethiopian Educational System.

School-age:- is the minimum age determined by the government for the enrolment at a given educational level (Unesco, 1983:16).

Senior Secondary Education:- is the level of education in Ethiopian Educational System that covers grades nine to twelve.

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Chapter II

Review of the Related Literature

Studies on Factors Affecting Female Participation in Education

Many studies have been undertaken to identify reasons for low enrolment of females in schools. Some of the studies have examined the impact of traditional attitudes, religious outlook of parents, engagement of females in early marriage, levels of education of the parents, high parents' demand for their daughters' labour, distance from home to schools (or availability of schools), school costs, employment opportunities for educated females, and presence of female teachers in school on the enrolment of females in schools.

Concerning the impact of parents attitude on the enrolment of females, Unesco publication (1983:9) says that the most important factor affecting females' schooling is the attitude of parents towards female education. After reviewing previous studies, Bowman and Anderson (1980:15) also note that a few of the females attend school in areas where traditional attitudes, such as protection of daughters from foreign influence were strong. Similarly, the study made in India indicates that enrolment of females was lower in a society where social expectation of the role and obligations of women reflect a traditional bias (Deghe, 1985:146). Furthermore, the findings of the study made in Bangladesh also indicates that the only socially acceptable role for females is to be wives and mothers. As a result they are trained for

these from their early stage instead of attending school (Assefa, 1991:13). The assumption is that formal schooling does not prepare daughters adequately for their traditional role as mothers and wives, and thus, it was felt, that they could be prepared for these role at home. The evidences go to suggest that in a society where females are seen as they are meant, only to be wives and mothers and it is not required for them to go to school, low female enrolment is unavoidable.

Furthermore, females were disfavored in educational practices, among other things, due to lack of parents' appreciation for their daughters' schooling (Almaz, 1991:4; King and Bellew, 1990:8; Harlen, 1985:546; Pamachandran, 1978:29). In conformity with this, the Ethiopian Observer (1957:74) noted that lack of appreciation on the part of the parents, of the benefit their daughters will derive from education, hindered female from school enrolment. This was also confirmed by the findings of the studies made in Africa on parents' attitude towards females' education (Hyde, 1989:25; Mbilingi, 1969:41). The findings revealed that most parents do not prefer to send their daughters to school, in fear of losing supporters during old age. According to these authors, females are seen simply as someone who will stay with their families for awhile and leave them when they get married. Until they leave home, it is felt, they have to help their mothers in taking care of their younger siblings and performing other household duties that will prepare them for

their eventual role as wives and mothers. Hence, if the family decides to send only two or three of its all children to school, daughters will be the ones to be denied priority. According to Unesco (1981), such type of attitude (preference for boys' over girls' schooling) is still prevailing in most developed and least developed countries of the world.

Furthermore, there is a feeling that educated females neglect their household duties, disobey their elders and their husbands when they get married, (Atsede and Kebede 1988:14). In Ghana, for example, there was a fear that, if girls attended school they would think themselves superior to their parents. This was mostly the case of illiterate parents who were unwilling to send their daughters to school (Unesco, 1983:9). This would imply that since almost two-third of the world's population is illiterate (Unicef, 1979: 27), nearly some two-third of the parents are unwilling to send their daughters to school, due to such kind of perception. Even today, notes, the report of Unesco (1983:9), men complain that many educated females do not make good housewives because they are too proud to do housework. Therefore, in areas where this type of thinking still exists weak participation of female is expected, since parents fear that schooling will create subversive force against the prevailing norms. Even if they were enrolled, commented Hyde (1989: 20), they are forced to discontinue as soon as they know how to write and read, since, it is felt that, going beyond this would affect how they should look after their households and obey their elders and husbands.

In addition to this, parents resist sending their daughters to school to be educated with males assuming that this would have side effects upon their daughters' fame. In light of this, Coombs (1985:229) and Sutterland (1987:5-9) say that, despite the availability of schools down the road and parents' awareness of the benefit of females' schooling fear of sending daughters to school to be educated with boys or fear of their exposure to foreign environment inhibit parents from sending their daughters to schools. Undoubtedly such kind of mentality is stronger in a society, like Ethiopia, where most parents lack exposure to modern outlook.

In this regard, several scholars have the opinion that change in attitude of parents, result in increased female enrolment. In support of this, for instance, Kasaju and Manandhar (1985:330) say that "... of the various factors, the change in the attitude of parents towards education of girls seems crucial to increase females enrolment." The findings of this study further indicate that parents attitudinal change or modernity favours female participation in education. Similarly the study made in Tunisia revealed that enrolments of females was lower in areas where the population is less exposed to new ideas or modern thinking (Jone, 1980:110). In light of this, Hosken (1987:10) also argues that urbanization provide opportunity for attitudinal change which could result in parents' willingness to send their daughters to school. According to this view, urban living enhance contact with new ideas and opportunity

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ional attitude of parents. According to the findings of the study made in sub-Saharan Africa, religion is one of the factors which affect female school entrance (Hyde, 1989:4). In Northern Nigeria, for instance, religion was found to be important determinant of female participation in education (Hyde, 1989:21). Similarly the study made in Nepal revealed that religion negatively affects the participation of female in education (Kasaju and Manandhar, 1985:328). In conformity with this, the findings of the study made in Ghana (Savelugu) indicate that demand for education varies according to the religious differences of parents (Blakemore, 1975:246). The study further indicates that christian parents believe that all children should go to school than non-christian parents, who favor sending only sons or none. In view of this scholar, christianity stress the importance of literacy, since literacy reduces the significance of local beliefs, and thus favor females' schooling.

In conformity with Blakemore (1975:247); Coombs (1985: 226) notes that moslem parents were reluctant to send their daughters to school. After reviewing several studies, Bowman and Anderson (1980:26) have also noted that areas where many moslems lived had lower enrolment rates, while those where many non-moslems resided had higher enrolment rates. In view of these writers, the low enrolment rates of females in moslem community is resulted from a widespread of female seclusion in Islamic societies. But this does not always hold true in views of Elliott and Kelly (1980), since

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Islamic countries who do not practice female seclusion have considerably low female participation in education.

On the contrary, Jones (1980) and Hyde (1989) argue that Islam should not be responsible for the low enrolment of females, since the most predominantly Islam countries have the highest enrolment rates. In this regard, Hyde (1989:21) has cited Sudan as a counter example, in which the moslem area in the north has significantly higher enrolment rate than the christian south. What is important here is that parents religious outlook has a considerable impact on female participation in education. Likewise, since Ethiopians follow different types of religions, predominantly christianity and Islam, they might have affected parents' decision to send their daughters to school.

Regarding the impact of early marriage on female participation in education, several studies affirmed that it has a considerable share in retarding the participation of female. In the least developed countries parents are positive about marriage and feel that girls are born to be married and to have children. As a result, they arrange marriage for their daughters at the right after their childhood or even during infancy. In Bangladesh, for example, girls engage in marriage at the age of 40 days and go to the house of their father-in-law at the age of seven when they are supposed to go to primary school (Islam, 1985:8). In Ethiopia too girls are often married before reaching puberty (Anbasu and Barbara, 1988:47). This is also confirmed by the study made in Addis

Ababa. The study revealed that 43 percent of the girls were married between 11 and 15 years of age and about 7 percent were married at 10 or even being younger (Almaz, 1991:6). In view of many scholars, such early marriage brings forward not only the time of motherhood but also hinder their schooling. In this regard, Hyde (1989:3) states that females' commitment to marriage at their early age discourages their school entrance. In conformity to this, the study made in Ghana revealed that in areas where early marriage practice is high female enrolment was low (Unesco, 1983:8). Furthermore review studies of least developed countries show that in countries where girls are married at early age, school enrolment of females was lower (Bowman and Anderson, 1980:21). Charpa (1978:9) also noted that engagement of females in marriage at early age result in low female participation in education. In Ethiopia too, where early married is practiced, it could be one of the reasons for the low enrolment of females in education.

The studies made to find the relationship between parental education and daughters school enrolment indicate that daughters of illiterate parents have less opportunity to go to school (Bowman and Anderson, 1980:28). For example, the study made in Mexico revealed that educated parents place a value on daughters' schooling than illiterate parents (Un-1989:33). Similarly the study made in sub-Saharan Africa indicates that educated parents are more likely to send their daughters to schools and keep them there longer (Hyde, 1989:

21). In conformity to this, the study made in Indonesia revealed that enrolment rates of daughters whose parents are literate is higher than enrolment rates of daughters of illiterate parents (Kasaju and Manandhar, 1985:326). According to the findings of this study, for instance, out of 76 literate parents 39 of them or 51.3 percent were sending their daughters to school, while out of 74 non-literate parents only 19 of them or 25.7 percent were sending their daughters to school (Kasaju and Manandhar, 1985:329). A reason offered for such difference is that literate parents recognize the importance of education for the daughters and are willing to make sacrifices for this purpose than less educated or illiterate parents. In other words, literate parents have better awareness of the chances awaiting educated daughters than illiterate parents. As a result, they felt that education is the tangible fortune they can leave behind for their daughters.

Even though, many scholars agree on the opinion that parents literacy affect females' schooling, there is differences in the view that fathers' and mothers' literacy equally affect female participation in education. According to Chervichovsky and Meesook (1985:24), for instance, mothers' literacy does not matters as much as the fathers' can decide whether or not a daughter attends school. In view of these scholars, fathers' education has greater influence than the mothers' education, since husbands have upperhand in all other decisions concerning the family.

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On the contrary, Jabre (1988:22), Knight and Sobat (1990:189), Gill (1991:247) and Sadik (1991:13) argue that education of mothers is more closely associated with the schooling of daughters than the education of fathers, which is more associated with the schooling of the sons. In conformity to this, King and Bellew (1990:31) note that mothers' education exerts stronger effect on female participation in education than fathers' schooling. Similarly the study made in Peru affirmed that mothers' education increases daughters' school-enrolment as much as 40 percent more than fathers' education (World Bank, 1991:viii).

The evidences go to suggest that the probability of a daughter being send to school is affected by the literacy of parents, though not yet agreed on whose education matters more. However, many scholars have supported the view that mothers' schooling have key influences on the participation of daughters and also are role models. But, since educated mothers are often few, especially in the least developed countries like Ethiopia, educated fathers may have the greater influence on whether or not a daughter is sent to school. Thus, it seems safer to take the view that parents' literacy contribute to promote female participation in education.

Researchers are moving beyond parental education in their attempts to explain factors determing female participation in education. Some have considered labor demands of the family exerting on young girls. Invariably, they

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conformed to the idea that parents' demand for their daughters' labor impede females from pursuing schooling. For instance, Mbilinyi (1969:41) notes that need for girls assistance with household chores at home obstacles school enrolment of girls. Similarly Mcweeney and Maria (1980:134) indicate that parents' demand for daughters' help in daily tasks at home obstruct their participation in education. In Ethiopia too, daughters are required to help in household activities. And, therefore, it may affect female participation in education.

Considering the relationship between availability of school and enrolments, Chervichovsky and Meesook (1985:25) note that availability of schools in a village improve the chances that a child attends school and complete more years of schooling. The study made in Iran also indicates that districts that lacked a school had lower enrolment rates (Bowman and Anderson, 1980:26). Similarly, the study made in Peru indicates that increasing the number of schools result in school enrolment rose (King and Bellew, 1991:228). Jones (1986:204) also noted that lower rate of enrolment result partly from distance to school. Furthermore, Jemeniz and Others (1989:9) have indicated that length of time it took a student to reach a school affects not only student's achievement but also school enrolment. Similarly, the findings of the studies made in Ethiopia affirmed that distance to school affect student enrolment. For example, a survey study made in selected primary school in Bahir Dar Awraja revealed that students lived closer to the primary schools

were enrolled than those who were not (Anbasu and Barbara, 1988). Teklehaimanot (1983:117) also asserted that administrative regions as well as Awrajas, that have more schools have higher rate of educational participation.

Although, many scholars generally agree on the fact that availability of schools or distance to schools affect educational participation, they differ in the view that it affects both sexes equally. According to Bowman and Anderson (1980:14) availability of schools does not necessary increase female enrolment since reluctance or refusal of parents can lower female participation in education. They further noted that in countries where social selection for sex is very high expanding schools will solve, in large part, the problem of males access to schooling than it does to solve the problem of females access.

On the contrary, Chernichovisky and Meesook (1985:26) argue that in areas where schools are universally available parents decision to enroll their daughters could be very important. Nevertheless availability of schools have more determinant than parental decision. In conformity with this, observation of Jones's (1986:218) on school enrolment of Tunisia indicates that availability of schools strongly influence parental decision about females' schooling and their progress or attrition. In view of this scholar, parents who want to send their daughters to school or continue education on to junior secondary and senior secondary schools can not do unless these levels of education are available. In connect-

ion to this, Kelly (1987:98) notes that parents are less likely to send their daughters to schools if schooling entails daily travel. Mbiliyni (1969:21) also noted that the most important reason given for not sending daughters to schools by Tanzanians was scarcity of schools. Similarly the World Bank Policy paper (1990:5) indicates that too few places in school affect female participation in education. The paper further notes that in Egypt the enrolment of girls who lived two killo meters from school was 8 percent less than that of girls who lived within one killo metere from school. Furthermore, the paper underscored that, since distance to school is a critical factor for girls school attendance, providing them schools within their walking distance is a necessary respond to increase female participation. In view of this, establishing schools at the areas more accessible to the female is hoped to encourage parents to send their daughters to school. Similarly Hyde (1989:4) and Schafgans (1991:186) have noted that expansion of educational system has been successful in raising the levels of female participation.

Beside the distance as a cause to retard female participation in education, economic barriers can be taken as one other discrepancies that affect parents decision to send a child to school. In Indonesia, for instance, economic reasons were found to be obstacles to about half of school-age children being out of school (Chervichoveky and Meesook, 1985). In Egypt too, cost of schooling was the

most important reason often cited by parents for not sending their children to school (World Bank, 1990:34).

According to the United Nations Publication (1989:33) school fees limit female enrolment than males, since parents favor sons whenever economic circumstances force a choice for whom schooling they should pay. In conformity to this, the study made in Indonesia indicates that parents prefer to provide schooling to boys than to girls whenever they could not afford school costs for all (Dephe, 1985:148). Similarly the study made in Tanzania shows that school cost is a major obstacle to the enrolment of girls than to boys (Mbilinyi, 1969:71). King and Bellew (1990:8) have also noted that if the costs associated with schooling were reduced, girls' school enrolment will rise. Furthermore, the study made in Peru revealed that lowering the price of schooling will increase enrolment of females more than the males' (Gill, 1991:247). Similarly, Chervichovsky and Meesook (1985:2) note that increased female school enrolment has been observed in Indonesia since school fees were abolished.

On the contrary, Thabani (1984:418) argues that even if education is free female enrolment can not increase until returns to schooling are increased. In this support, Hyde (1989:3) also says that labor market opportunities play an important role in influencing parents decision to send their daughters to school. Similarly, Khandker (1991: 57) notes that improved labour market opportunities for educated women can raise female school enrolment. In

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conformity to this, Elliott and Kelly (1980:5) also says that improving employment opportunities for educated women will improve their aspirations to attend school. Sadik (1990:1) also suggests that female school attendnace will increase when it is accompanied by better employment opportunities.

Similarly, King and Bellew (1990:8) have noted that if employment opportunities for educated females are low parents respond to this by giving daughters less education. This was confirmed by the Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 1979:42) saying that if women become a larger proportion of the labor force the demand by parent to educate their daughters will increase. But if they perceive little opportunity for entering occupation they will demand less to educate their daughters and do not let them continue schooling. This could also be an important factor in Ethiopia, where there is unemployment problem.

Furthermore, presence of female teachers in schools was observed as an important factor that affect female school enrolment. According to the World Bank (1990:15) for instance, presence of female teachers in school encourage parents to send their daughters to school. Similarly the findings of the study on association between enrolment and sex of teachers in Iran revealed that in districts where teachers were predominantly male, female enrolment was low (Bowman and Anderson, 1980:26). The study made in Nepal also indicates that schools that have higher number of female teachers have

higher girls' school enrolment (Kasaju and Manandhar, 1985: 331). The assumption is that appointment of female teachers in schools can serve as an impetus for parents to send their daughters to schools.

In addition to this, scholars have the opinion that dropping out of school can affect the participation of females in education. Explaining this fact Brawne and Barrett (1991: 285) say that enrolment rates are lower in sub-Saharan African countries, because the dropout rates are higher in these countries. In support of this UNDP (1990: Table 14) indicated that out of those starting primary school in sub-Saharan Africa, 41 percent fail to complete it. When it is seen from the point of view of sex, girls are more likely to drop-out (World Bank, 1990: Table 32). In conformity to this, Hyde (1989:14) says that "... more girls fail to enter school at all and among those that do the dropout rates are higher." This is affirmed by the study made in Ethiopia. The findings of the study revealed that 57 percent of all females who entered grade 1 dropout before reaching grade 2 (Assefa, 1991:2). What all these evidences show is that dropping out will negatively affect female participation and their persistent throughout educational levels.

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### Chapter III

#### Presentation and Analysis of the Data

In this chapter the results of the study on female participation in education are presented. The findings are presented according to the design and methodology of study. Furthermore, the findings of the study focus mainly on the enrolment of females in primary and secondary school levels during the post-1974 in general and the period 1983/84 to 1987/88 in particular. The relationship between female participation and overall educational enrolment rate is also treated. This section also presents the main reasons given by the primary and secondary schools staffs for low female participation in primary and secondary education.

#### Characteristics of the Respondants

The questionnaire was distributed to 530 respondents, out of which 411 or 77.55 percent were males and 119 or 22.45 percent were females. If we look into the qualification of the respondents, 132 or 24.91 percent have the first degree, 149 or 28.11 percent have diploma, 242 or 45.66 percent have teacher training institute certificate and the remaining 7 or 1.32 percent have qualification different from that are mentioned above.

#### Female Participation in Pre-tertiary Levels Post-1974

It is already stated that research studies have the opinion that female participation in education affects the

achievement of enrolment target. The studies so far made in Ethiopia concerning females' education invariably indicate that female enrolment at all levels of education is very low. Furthermore, Ethiopia has the problem of achieving the intended enrolment target (26.86 percent for 1987/88) described in the ten year perspective plan. Thus, it seems logical to assume that the reason why Ethiopia could not achieved the enrolment target is low female participation in education. It is vital however, to investigate the relationship between female participation and overall education participation rate before we conclude that low female participation in education has affected the achievement of the enrolment target.

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Table I presents the relationship between the participation of female and overall educational participation rate.

Table I  
Relationship Between the Percentage of  
Female Participation in Education and Overall  
Educational Participation Rate 1983/84 to 1987/88

Administrative Region	Percentage of Female participation in all Levels	Overall Educational participation Rate
A r s i	25.06	31.54
B a l e	24.68	28.59
Addis Ababa	70.58	57.36
E r i t r e a	10.00	13.84
Gamu Goffa	13.22	18.95
G o j j a m	18.83	17.04
G o n d e r	15.02	12.51
H a r a r g e	12.10	14.99
Illubabor	34.30	36.53
K a f f a	20.18	22.68
S h o w a	18.43	21.50
S i d a m o	14.51	23.54
T i g r a y	10.34	10.48
W e l l e g a	22.72	27.54
W o l l o	19.81	18.48
National Average	21.92	23.71
$r_o = 0.95$		
$t_o = 10.97$		
$t_c = 3.01$ ( $\alpha = 0.01$ , two tails)		$d_f = 13$

Source:- Computed from: CSO. Office of the Population and

Housing Census Commission: Population and Housing

Census 1984 Addis Ababa, 1988.

CSO: Office of the Population and Housing Census Commission:  
The 1984 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia-  
Analytical Report at National Level. Addis Ababa,  
1991.

MOE: Educational Statistics for School-year 1976 E.C. (1983/  
84). Addis Ababa, Vol. I, 1985.

MOE: Basic Educational Statistics. Addis Ababa, 1988.

As can be seen in the table, a positive correlation of 0.95 is observed between female participation in education and the overall educational participation rate. When analysed by using "t" value, this correlation is found to be statistically significant at 1% level of significance. That is, percentage of female participation in education and overall educational participation rate are strongly and positively correlated. This may imply that when percentage of female participation in education is increased so also do overall educational participation rate. This goes against the argument that female participation and overall educational participation rates are indirectly related (Teklehaimanot, 1983). As a whole, one can possibly deduce that increasing female participation in education positively affects overall educational participation rate and thereby the attainment of the intended enrolment target. This goes in conformity with the view that increasing female participation in education enhances the achievement of the enrolment target described in

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the development plans (Kasaju and Manandhar, 1985). The reason for this appearance of association may be due to the fact that about 50% of the school-age population are females.

When we compare the absolute number of the participation rates, the regions that had female participation rate higher than average females participation rate 21.92, had also overall educational participation rate higher than the national average 23.71. That is, spearheaded by Addis Ababa, the regions that had both percentage of female participation and overall educational participation rate higher than the national means 21.92% and 23.71% respectively, were Illubabor, Arsi, Bale and Wellega. These were also the regions that did not have a problem in achieving the intended enrolment target (26.86) described in the ten year perspective plan for 1987/88. On the other hand, the administrative regions that had percentage of female participation below the average had also overall educational participation rate below the national average. They were also had a problem in achieving the intended enrolment target described in the development plan. In short, the administrative regions that had higher female participation rate did not have a problem in achieving the intended enrolment target, while those that had lower female participation rate had a problem in achieving the intended enrolment target. It may, therefore, be wise to consider the participation of female while setting enrolment target.

If female participation in education affects the achievement of the intended enrolment target, then it seems necessary

to identify the level of education at which their participation is lagging behind. Table II shows percentage of female participation at primary, junior and senior secondary levels.

Table II

Percentage of Female Participation  
at Pre-tertiary Levels

Y e a r s	Primary Level	Junior Secondary	Senior Secondary	Coefficient of Variation
1973/74	12.05	6.43	2.62	55.06
1983/84	31.43	16.05	7.05	55.38
1987/88	30.89	18.77	8.09	48.18
1983/84-1987/88	30.90	17.17	7.31	52.41

Source:- Calculated from

CSO. Office of the Population and Housing Census  
Commission: Population and Housing Census 1984.  
Addis Ababa, 1988.

CSO. Office of the Population and Housing Census  
Commission: The 1984 Population and Housing Census  
of Ethiopia-Analytical Report at National Level.  
Addis Ababa, 1991.

MOE. Educational Statistics for School-year 1976 E.C.  
(1983/84). Addis Ababa, Vol. I, 1985.

MOE. Basic Educational Statistics. Addis Ababa, 1988.

As presented in Table II, in 1973/74, the participation of female at primary level was about two (1.87) times as much as their participation at junior and about four and a half (4.60) times as much as that of the senior secondary schools. Similarly, the participation rate at junior secondary schools was about two and a half (2.45) times as much as that of senior secondary schools. In 1983/84 too, the participation of female at primary level was higher than that of junior and senior secondary levels. That is, the participation at the primary level was about two (1.96) times as much as the junior and about four and a half (4.46) times as much as the senior secondary schools. At the junior secondary schools the participation of female was about two (2.28) times as much as that of senior secondary schools. Like in the preceding years, in 1987/88, the participation of female was higher at the primary level than at the junior and senior secondary levels. That is, the participation of female at the primary level was about one and half (1.65) times as much as that of the junior and about four (3.82) times as much as that of the senior secondary schools. At junior secondary schools, it was about two (2.32) times as much as that of senior secondary schools. When we consider female participation in these levels of education during 1983/84 to 1987/88 a similar trend was observed. That is the participation of female at primary level was 30.9%, while it was 17.17% and 7.31% at the junior and senior secondary levels respectively. Here again the participation rate at the primary was higher than at junior and senior secondary levels, the participation being about two (1.80) times as much as the junior and four (4.23) times as

much as the senior secondary schools. At the junior secondary schools, the participation of females was about two and a half (2.35) times as much as the participation at senior secondary schools.

As a whole, the evidences indicate that the participation of female in the preceding levels of education was higher than in the next levels of education. This confirms the view that female participation in education decreases as the levels of education increase (Almaz, 1991, Coombs, 1985).

Comparing the gap between the participation of female in the levels of education in 1983/84 and 1987/88, the table reveals that the gap was narrower in the latter than in the former. That is, in 1983/84 the coefficient of variation was 55.38% while it was 48.18% in 1987/88. This may indicate that the gap between the participation of female in educational levels was diminishing during the first five year of the ten year perspective plan. This is so many because the ten year perspective plan has fixed the enrolment target for each levels of education. Furthermore, one can attribute the higher female participation rate at the primary than at the secondary levels to a number of factors including:

a) Availability of schools. Table III presents the number of schools available for each levels of education.

Table III

Number of Primary, Junior and Senior Secondary  
Schools in 1983/84 and 1987/88

Years	Number of Schools			R a t i o		
	Primary	Junior	Senior	P/J	P/S	J/S
1983/84	7090	854	211	8.30	33.60	4.05
1987/88	8373	1064	272	7.87	30.78	3.91

Source:- MOE. Educational Statistics for School-year 1976  
E.C. (1983/84). Vol. II, 1985.

MOE. Basic Education Statistics. Addis Ababa, 1988.

As can be seen in the table above, there were 7090 primary, 854 junior and 211 senior secondary schools in 1983/84. That is, the number of primary schools was about eight (8.3) times as much as the number of junior and about thirty-three and a half (33.6) times as much as the number of senior secondary schools. Similarly, the number of junior secondary schools was higher than the number of senior secondary schools, the ratio being about four (4.05) times. In 1987/88, there were about seven and a half (7.87) times and thirty and a half (30.78) times primary schools than junior and senior secondary schools respectively. Similarly, the number of junior secondary schools was about three and a half (3.91) times greater than the number of senior secondary schools.

The table also brings out clearly that the gap between the number of schools at the varying levels of education was diminishing, like that of the gap between the participation of female in the levels of education.

When availability of schools is analysed from the point of view of the school-age population, primary schools were more available than the junior and the junior more than the senior secondary schools. This is clearly shown in Table IV, which presents the number of schools available to the eligible school-age population in 1983/84 and 1987/88.

Table IV

Ratios of Schools and School-age Population

Y e a r s	Ratio of School-age Population & Schools		
	Primary	Junior	Senior
1983/84	473.13	865.05	10171.06
1987/88	497.10	1025.58	7422.34

Source:- Calculated from:

CSO. Office of the Population and Housing Census  
Commission: Population and Housing Census  
1984 Addis Ababa, 1988.

CSO. Office of the Population and Housing Census  
Commission the 1984 population and Housing  
Census of Ethiopia - Analytical Report at  
National Level. Addis Ababa, 1991.

MOE. Educational Statistics for School-year 1976 E.C.  
(1983/84) Addis Ababa, Vol. II, 1985.

MOE. Basic Educational Statistics. Addis Ababa, 1988.

As shown in the table, there was at least, one primary school for about 500 primary school-age children both in 1983/84 and 1987/88. During the same years, however, there was only one junior and one senior secondary schools for about 1,000 and 8,000 children of 13-14 and 15-18 years old respectively. This may show that the locations of junior and senior secondary schools were more dispersed than the location of primary schools. Undoubtedly, such dispersion of schools entails distance to schools. In such situation, parents are less likely to send their daughters to schools. This is clearly shown in Table V.

Table V

Parents' Willingness to Send Their Daughters  
to School which Far Away from Their Villeges

	Responses	No of responses	Per-centage
Do parents allow their daughters to go to schools far away from their villeges?	Yes	207	39.06
	No	323	60.94
	Total	530	100

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As can be seen from the table, 60.9% of the respondents indicate that parents do not allow their daughters to distant schools from their villeges. This is because of the reasons indicated in Table VI.

Table VI

Reasons given by Primary and Secondary schools staffs  
for parents not send their Daughters to School far  
away from their villeges

Why do not parents allow their daughters to distant schools from their villeges?	No. of responses	Per-centage
fear of forced marriage (telefa) .....	64	12.08
lack of money to pay for food, house rent, transportation and the like .....	139	26.23
Lack of appreciation for females' education .....	148	27.92
fear of exposure to unfamiliar environment .....	179	33.77
Total	530	100

As indicated in the table, the first reason given by 179 or 33.77 percent of the respondents is fear of exposure

to unfamiliar environment; while the second and the third reasons are lack of appreciation for females' education and lack of money to pay for food, house rent, and transportation.

Thus, there are ample evidences to say that the availability of primary schools than junior and the more junior schools than the senior secondary schools have contributed to the higher female participation rate at primary level than at junior and more at the junior than at the senior secondary levels.

b) Lower pass rate in the National Examinations. It is well known that the government of Ethiopia gives National Examinations at grade six and eight. The studies so far made in relation to this show that fewer number of females pass grade six and eight National Examinations. For example, the analysis of the results of grade six and eight National Examinations for the years 1978 to 1987 revealed that only 35% of those who passed grade six and 40% of those who failed in grade eight National Examinations were females (Almaz, 1991:91). This is a clear indication that a large number of females were unable to continue their education in the junior and senior secondary schools. As a result, therefore, their participation at junior and senior secondary levels could be lesser than at the primary level.

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C) High Dropout Rate. Table VII presents the opinion of the respondents regarding students dropout.

Table VII  
Students Dropout Rate

	Responses	No. of responses	Per-centage
Whose dropout rate seems to you higher?	Male pupils'	202	38.11
	Female pupils'	328	61.89
	Total	530	100

As can be seen in the table, 61.89% of the respondents affirmed that the dropout rate of females is higher. This goes in conformity with the result obtained by the World Bank (1990).

When we compare their persistent rate in educational levels 50.57% of the respondents indicate that most females complete primary schooling (Table VIII)

Table VIII  
The Level of Education that most Females complete

	Responses	No. of responses	Per-centage
Which level of education do most females complete?	Primary School	268	50.57
	Junior Sec. "	120	22.64
	Senior " "	97	18.30
	I don't know	45	8.49
	Total	530	100

This may indicate that most of the females dropout of school before they join junior and senior secondary schools. Coupled with low pass rate in grade six and eight National Examinations, low persistent rate of female in educational levels can result in low female participation in junior and senior secondary schools. As a result, therefore, the participation of female at junior and senior secondary schools could be lower than at primary schools.

d) Cultural pressure for marriage. Table IX presents respondents' view regarding the effect of early marriage on females' schooling.

Table IX

The Effect of Marriage on the Participation  
of Female in Education

	Responses	No. of respondants	Per- centage
Does early marriage hamper females' schooling?	Yes	415	78.30
	No	64	12.08
	I don't know	51	9.62
	Total	530	100

As can be seen in the table, 78.3% of the respondents affirmed that early marriage prohibit female participation in education. This confirms the view that early marriage retards the participation of female in education (Hyde, 1989 Unesco, 1983, Bawman and Anderson, 1980, Charpa, 1978).

When we consider the age at which most females get married, 54.91% and 30.19% of the respondents say that most female get married at 15 - 18 and 13 - 14 years old respectively (Table X).

Table X

The Age at which most Females get Married

	Age	No. of respondants	Per centage
At which age do most females get en- gaged into marria- ge?	10-12	13	2.45
	13-14	160	30.19
	15-18	291	54.91
	19-20	46	8.66
	above 20	20	3.77
	Total	530	100

Clearly 13-14 and 15-18 are the ages at which they are supposed to be enrolled in junior and senior secondary schools. In such circumstances, there is no doubt that the participation of females would be lower at these levels of education. This might have brought the differences in the participation of female in educational levels.

In general, the differences in the participation of female in the various levels of education could be explained by the availability of schools, low pass rate in the National Examinations, high dropout rate and early marriage.

Having this in mind, let us examine if there is any diff-

erences in the participation of female between government and non-government schools. Table XI shows proportion of female pupils' enrolment in government and non-government schools.

Table XI

Proportion of Female Pupils in all Levels  
of Government and Non-government Schools

Year	Government	Non-government
1973/74	26.75	40.22
1983/84	35.51	45.54
1987/88	37.80	46.29

Source:- MOE. Educational Statistics 1960 E.C. to 1975 E.C.  
Addis Ababa, 1975 E.C.

MOE. 1975 E.C. (1982/83) school-year-mid-year Educational Statistics. Addis Ababa, 1976 E.C.

MOE. Educational Statistics for school-year 1976 E.C. (1983/84). Addis Ababa, Part I. 1985.

As indicated in the table above, percentage of female participation ranged from 26.75 in 1973/74 to 37.80 in 1987/88 in government schools. In non-government schools, the proportion of female participation ranged from 40.22 to 46.29 during the same period. This indicates that the proportion of female enrolled were increased in both government and non-government schools. But the increment is found to be higher in government schools than in non-government schools. That is, participation

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of female was increased by 11.05 in government schools between 1973/74 and 1987/88, while it was 6.07 in non-government schools during the same period.

Despite this fact, however, the proportion of female enrolment was higher in non-government schools than in government schools. That is, the proportion of female in non-government schools was 1.5 times greater than in government schools in 1973/74. In 1983/84 and 1987/88, it was 1.3 and 1.2 times greater than in the government schools respectively. This goes in conformity with what was observed in pre-1974. However, it is evident that the gap in the proportion of female participation in government and non-government schools was decreasing from 1.5 in 1973/74 to 1.2 times in 1987/88.

The observed higher proportion of female participation in non-government schools than in government schools can be attributed to many reasons that need further investigation. However, there are undeniable fact that have some relations with these differences. The first one is the attachment of the society to religion. People have different beliefs. Some are christians, the other are moslem and still the others are missionar-ies and the like. Most often than not these people prefer to send their children to church, Quranic or mission schools than sending them to the government schools since they want to preserve their beliefs (Zaudneh, 1971:18). As a result therefore, the proportion of females enrolled in non-government schools could be greater.

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The second factor is that there are separate schools for girls. For example, St. Marry, Nazerth, Hiwot Berhane and Ledeta Girls' Schools are only some examples of such schools in Addis Ababa. Thus, since some parents do not like to see their daughters talking with boys or sharing seats in classrooms with boys, assuming that this can lead them to sexual aspiration, they prefer to send their daughters to special school for girls to avoid their worries. This might have also brought the observed differences in their participation.

The third reason can be the shift free operations of non-government schools as opposed to government schools that work in shifting system. According to Amberber (1981:49) working of schools in shifting system will limit the opportunity of students to get in depth knowledge. This may affect negatively parents' willingness to send their children to schools that operate in shifting system. In this regard, Zaudneh (1971:18) says:

There are parents who are disappointed because, ... they see their children going to school for only half a day and having practically nothing to do for the other half.

Therefore, to make their children reserved from spending their times (being outside the school half day) on unworthy areas, which would affect their interest and attention for learning, parents (mostly those who understood the benefit of education for their children) may prefer to send their daughters to non-government schools. As a result therefore, the proportion of female enrolment could be greater in non-government than in government schools.

There might be differences in female participation in education in administrative regions. Therefore, it seems important to examine the participation of female in education in administrative regions. Table XII presents percentage of female participation in education at administrative regions.

Table XII

Percentage of Female Participation in All Levels of Education by Administrative Regions during 1983/84 to 1987/88

Administrative Regions	Percentage of female participation in all levels of education	Z Scope
A r s i	25.06393	+0.2178892
B a l e	24.68042	+0.1913235
Addis Ababa	70.57546	+3.3704591
E r i t r e a	10.00003	-0.8255825
Gamu Goffa	13.21587	-0.6028223
G o j j a m	17.82817	-0.2833296
G o n d e r	15.02109	-0.4777752
H a r a r g e	12.10006	-0.6801141
Illubabor	34.3016	+0.8577798
K a f f a	20.1757	-0.1207169
S h o w a	18.43251	-0.2414672
S i d a m o	14.51311	-0.5129628
T i g r a y	10.33615	-0.8022996
W e l l e g a	22.71987	+0.0555168
W o l l o	19.81219	-0.1458972
Mean = 21.91841		
Standard Deviation = 14.436327		

Source:- Calculated from:

CSO. Office of the Population and Housing Census  
Commission: Population and Housing Census,  
1984 Addis Ababa, 1988.

CSO. Office of the Population and Housing Census  
Commission: The 1984 Population and Housing  
Census of Ethiopia-Analytical Report at  
National Level. Addis Ababa, 1991.

MOE. Educational Statistics for School-year 1976 E.C.  
(1983/84). Addis Ababa, Vol. I 1985.

MOE. Basic Educational Statistics. Addis Ababa: 1988.

As can be seen in Table XII, the regions that had performed well in female participation were Addis Ababa, Illubabor, Arsi, Bale and Wellega, the performance being about 3.4, 0.86, 0.23, 0.19 and 0.06 standard scores above the mean respectively. This is so, may be because, there is more demand for schooling, due to the expansion of different development programs, such as state farms, coffee improvement projects, industries and the like in these administrative regions.

On the other hand, the least female participation rates were observed in Eritrea and Tigray. This is may be due to political instability in the regions. The war that had been going on in these administrative regions had retarded the construction of new schools. And, had also devastated many schools causing a decline for example, in the number

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of primary schools from 382 and 154 in 1973/74 to 261 and 87 in 1986/87 in Eritrea and Tigray respectively (Ayalew, 1987:37). Thus the observed least female participation in the regions could be the result of the war.

The participation of female on the other hand, has no identified pattern of variation among administrative regions. But still one thing which proves to be consistent is that except Addis Ababa, the administrative regions that had higher female participation rates are the regions in the south. This may go against the result obtained by Seyoum (1986) and Teklehaimanot (1983).

Despite the fact that the participation of females was relatively higher at primary than at junior and senior secondary education, non-government than government schools or in some administrative regions than in the others, still female participation in education remained lower. Therefore in an effort to increase the participation of female in education, it seems necessary to find out why this is so.

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Table XIII presents the reasons attributed to low female participation in education.

Table XIII

Reasons given by Primary and Secondary Schools Teachers, Department Heads, Unit Leaders, Assistant Directors and Directors for Females' Low Participation rate in Education

Reasons	Frequency of responses	
	No.	%
Parents' illiteracy .....	100	18.87
Lack of exposure to modern outlook....	98	18.49
Demand for daughters' labor by parents	59	11.13
Cultural pressure for early marriage..	52	9.81
Narrow employment opportunities for educated females .....	49	9.25
Long distance from home to school ....	33	6.23
Lack of female pupils' interest in education .....	33	6.23
Lack of money to pay school fee.....	26	4.91
Inability to pay for books and other instructional materials .....	17	3.21
Religious Prejudices .....	17	3.21
Masculine image in the curriculum...	11	2.08
Parents unwillingness to pay for females' schooling .....	11	2.08
Parents' negative attitude towards education given to boys and girls together .....	11	2.08
Preference of schools to admit males than females .....	8	1.51
Parents unwillingness to send their daughters to school to be taught by male teachers .....	5	0.94

As can be seen in the table 100 or 18.87% of the respondents have indicated that parents' illiteracy is the major problem that inhibit female participation in education. This result seems to substantiate the fact that illiterate parents are less willing to send their daughters to schools (UN, 1989, Bowman and Anderson 1980, Kasaju and Manandhar, 1985, Hyde, 1989). This is also supported by 484 or 91.3% of the respondents saying that parents' literacy promotes their daughters' schooling (Table XIV).

Table XIV

Effects of Parents' Literacy on their  
Daughters' Schooling

	Responses	No. of Respondants	Percentage
Does parents' education promote daughters' schooling?	Yes	484	91.3
	No	16	3.0
	I am not certain	30	5.7
	Total	530	100

In short the evidences indicate that parents' illiteracy negatively affects the participation of female in education, while parents' literacy promotes their daughters' schooling.

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Regarding whose education matters most Table XV shows that both have equal importance.

Table XV

Whose Education Matters More?

	No. of responses	Percentage
Mothers' Education	57	10.75
Fathers' Education	68	12.83
Both have equal influence	405	76.42
Total	530	100

As can be seen in the table 405 or 76.42% of the respondents say that both fathers' and mothers' education equally influence the participation of their daughters in education. This goes against the argument that mothers' literacy does not matter as much as the fathers' literacy (Chervichovsky and Meesook, 1985) and the view that mothers' literacy exerts stronger effect on their daughters' schooling than the fathers' literacy (Jabre, 1988, Knight and Sobat, 1990, Gill, 1991, Sadik, 1991, King and Bellew, 1990, World Bank, 1991). In view of this therefore, providing literacy education for both mothers and fathers seems to have valuable contribution in an effort to increase female participation in education.

The second factor that is found to be a reason for low female participation in education is lack of exposure to modern outlook. This is confirmed by 98 or 18.49% of the

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respondants. This goes in confirmity with the result obtained by Kasaju and Manandhar (1985) and Jones (1980). Researchers have the opinion that increasing parents' access to information and new ideas, which in turn bring attitudinal change, will help in an effort to alleviate the problem.

The third factor cited by 59 or 11.13% of the respondents as a reason for female low participation in education is parents' demand for their daughters labour. This goes in confirmity with what has been concluded by Mbilinyi (1969) Mcweeney and Maria (1980).

The fourth reason given by 52 or 9.81% of the respondents for low female participation in education is cultural pressure for early marriage. This may substantiate the view that engagement of females in marriage at early age result in low female participation in education (Hyde, 1989, Unesco, 1983, Bowman and Anderson, 1980, Charpa, 1978).

The fifth factor found to be a reason for low female participation in education is narrow employment opportunities for educated females. This seems to support the view that narrow employment opportunities for educated females discourage parents' willingness to send their daughters to school (Hyde, 1989, Khandker, 1991, Elliott and Kelly 1980, Sadik, 1990, King and Bellew, 1990, OECD, 1979).

A long distance from home to school and lack of female pupils' interest in education are found to be the sixth reasons for low female participation in education. This is

affirmed by 33 or 6.23% of the respondents. This seems to conform with the argument that distance from home to school results in low female participation and academic achievements (Jones, 1986, Jemeniz et.al 1989).

On the other hand, school charges such as school fees, cost of books and other instructional materials did not appear as a major reason for low female participation in education. Table XVI presents respondents' view concerning the effect of school charges on females' schooling.

Table XVI

The Influence of School Costs on Parents'  
Decision to Send Daughters to School

Do school costs influence parents' willingness to educate their daughters?	Responses	No. of respondents	Percentage
	Yes		146
No		281	53.02
I am not certain		103	19.43
Total		530	100

As can be seen in the table 281 or 53.02% of the respondents have said that school costs do not influence parents' willingness to educate their daughters, affirming the opinion stated earlier. This may also support the view that decreasing or eliminating school fees do not necessarily increase

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female participation in education (Thabani, 1984). On the other hand, it goes against the argument that cost of schooling is a major obstacle to the enrolment of females (World Bank, 1990, Mbiliyni, 1969, King and Bellew, 1990, Chervichovesky and Meesook, 1985).

Similarly, parents religion did not appear to be a major obstacle to female participation in education (Table XVII).

Table XVII

Effect of Parents' Religion on Daughters' Schooling

	Responses	No. of respondants	Per- centage
Do parents' religion affect daughters' schooling	Yes	168	37.70
	No	293	55.28
	I am not certain	69	13.02
	Total	530	100

As can be seen in the table, 293 or 55.28% of the respondents affirmed that parents' religion do not affect daughters' schooling. This may go against the view that religion is a determinant of female participation in education (Hyde, 1989, Kasaju and Manandhar, 1985, Coombs, 1985, Bowman and Anderson, 1980).

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The finding of the study also indicate that admission to schools is not discriminatory. That is, 412 or 77.74% of the respondants affirmed that schools do not make differences in admission. This is clearly shown in Table XVIII.

Table XVIII

Children's Right to enter School

	Responses	" No.of Respondants	Per-centage
Do boys and girls have equal access to admission?	Yes	412	77.74
	No	118	22.26
	Total	530	100

As shown in the table above, most of the respondants have said that both sexes have equal access to enter school. This may imply that school admission did not work against females and thus, did not appear as important reason for low female participation in education.

Another factor that did not appear to be an important reason for low female participation in education is parents resistance to send their daughters to school to be taught by the male teachers.

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Table XIX presents respondents' opinion concerning the effect of sex of teachers on parents' decision to send their daughters to school.

Table XIX

Impact of Sex of Teachers on Parents'  
Decision to Send Their Daughters to School

Do you think that the sex of teachers has an influence on parents' decision to send their daughters to school?	Responses	No.of Respondants	Per-centage
Yes	Yes	119	22.45
No	No	411	77.55
Total	Total	530	100

As can be seen in the table above, 411 or 77.55% of the respondents affirmed that sex of teachers do not affect parents' decision to send their daughters to school. This goes against the view that appointment of female teachers in schools encourage parents to send their daughters to school (World Bank, 1990, Bowman and Anderson, 1980, Kasaju and Manandhar, 1985).

So far we have seen the reasons for low female participation in education. But one may need to know the extent of the importance of these reasons in the levels of education. Thus, it seems necessary to examine whether they have equal importance both in primary and secondary levels.

Table XX presents the reasons that were ranked by the staffs of primary and senior secondary schools.

Table XX

Reasons ranked by Primary and Secondary Schools staffs according to their seriousness

R e a s o n s	R a n k			
	Primary		Secondary	
	No.	Rank	No.	Rank
Lack of exposure to modern outlook	53	1	45	2
Parents illiteracy .....	39	2	61	1
Demand for daughters' labour by parents .....	29	3.5	30	3
Cultural pressure for early marriage	29	3.5	23	4.5
Narrow employment opportunities for educated females .....	26	5	23	4.5
Long distance from home to school ..	20	6	13	7
Lack of money to pay for school fee	15	7	11	8
Lack of female pupils' interest in education .....	13	8	20	6
Religious prejudices .....	11	9	6	12
Inability to pay for books and other materials .....	10	10	7	10
Masculine impage in the curriculum	8	11	3	13.5
Preference of schools to admit males than females .....	5	12	3	13.5
Parents' unwillingness to pay for females' schooling .....	4	14	7	10
Parents' unwillingness to send their daughters to school to be taught by male teachers .....	4	14	1	14
Parents' negative attitude towards education given to boys and girls together .....	4	14	7	10

  

$d^2 = 59$ $r = 0.895$	$t_o = 7.234$ $t_c = 2.65 (\alpha = 0.01, \text{two-tails})$ $d_f = 13$
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As indicated in Table XX, primary school staffs ranked lack of exposure to modern outlook as a number one reason for low female participation in education, while they ranked parents' illiteracy as a second important reason for low female participation in primary education. But this is ranked reversely by the staffs of secondary schools. Any way, both reasons (lack of exposure to modern outlook and parents' illiteracy) were found to be important reasons for low female participation in education in the previous studies made by Jones (1980), Kasaju and Monandhar (1985), Bowman and Anderson (1980). This may prove that lack of exposure to modern outlook and parents' illiteracy are still important reasons for low female participation both in primary and secondary education.

In general, the judgement given on the reasons for low female participation by the staffs in the primary and senior secondary schools, has a positive relationship ( $r = 0.895$ ). When the relation is analysed using t - test, it is statistically significant at 1% level. This may imply that, except very little differences the reasons for low female participation at primary and secondary levels are almost the same.

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Chapter IV

Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

1. Summary and Conclusion

The tasks set forth at the beginning of this research report were to examine the extent and problem of female participation in education and the effect of their participation on the achievement of the enrolment target described in the Ten Year Perspective Plan.

In order to achieve the purpose of this study, basic questions were raised regarding the extent of female participation in education and the relationship between female participation and overall educational participation rate. Question was also raised about what are the major causes for low female participation in education.

To carry out the study, documents of the Ministry of Education and Central Statistics Office were consulted to gather information on the number of female students enrolled in schools and the number of school-age population. In addition to this, formal questionnaire was distributed to 530 primary and secondary school staffs to gather information on factors contributive to low female participation in education.

The data obtained were analysed using percentage, correlation coefficient and Z-score. The coefficient of variation was also computed to show the trends of the variability. Furthermore, rank order correlation coefficient was calculated to show the agreement in the judgements of primary and secondary school staffs' on the reasons for low female participation in education. The analysis made revealed the following major findings and conclusions.

1. There is strong and positive relationship ( $r=0.95$ ) between the participation of female and overall educational participation rate. And, increasing female participation rate can serve as a means to increase overall educational participation rate and thereby the achievement of the enrolment target described in the development plan.
2. The administrative regions that have female participation rate higher than the average national female participation have also the overall educational participation rate higher than the national mean. And, they did not have a problem in achieving the enrolment target set for the first five years of the national Ten Year Perspective Plan. On the other hand, the administrative regions that had lower female participation than the national female participation average have also overall educational participation rate lower than the national mean. These were the regions that have a problem in achieving the enrolment target set for the first five years of the national ten year perspective plan.
3. The administrative regions that have higher female participation rate were Addis Ababa, Illubabor, Arsi, Bale and Wellega, the performance being 3.4, 0.96, 0.23, 0.19 and 0.06 standard scores above the mean respectively. On the other hand, Eriterea and Tigray have the least female participation rate, 0.83 and 0.80 standard scores below the mean in that order. In fact, Hararge, Gamu Goffa, Sidamo and Gonder have also lower female participation rates. However, there is no clearly identified

patterns of regional variation in the participation of female.

4. The participation of female was higher at the primary level than at the junior and senior secondary levels of education. In other words, the participation of female in education decreases as the level of education advances from lower to higher levels. However, the gap between the participation of female in the primary, junior and senior secondary levels was decreasing from 55.38% in 1983/84 to 48.18% in 1987/88.

The variation in the participation of female at the primary, junior and senior secondary levels of education is due to the fact that there are more primary schools than junior and more junior than senior secondary schools. This is also because of lower passing rate in grade six and eight National Examinations as it is true with high dropout rate and cultural pressure for early marriage.

5. Proportion of females enrolled in both government and non-government schools were increased during 1983/84 to 1987/88. But higher rate of increment is observed in the government schools than in the non-government schools. Despite this fact, however, the proportion of female enrolment was higher in non-government schools than in government schools.

The observed higher proportion of female participation in non-government schools than in government schools can be attributed, among other things, to the attachment of the society to religions, the existence of separate

non-government schools for girls, the full day operation of non-government schools as opposed to government schools, which apply shifting system.

6. Parents' illiteracy was reported to be the first reason for low female participation in education. Furthermore, a great majority of the respondents have supported the view that parents' literacy promotes their daughters schooling. In regarding education both, mothers and fathers were reported to have equal influences on their daughters' schooling.

In addition to this, lack of exposure to modern views of life, parents' demand for their daughters' service at home, cultural pressure for being engaged in early marriage, narrow employment opportunities for educated females; problem of covering long distance from home to school and back home, lack of female pupils' interest in education were reported as series of constraints causing the low female participation in education.

7. School costs such as school fees, cost of books and other instructional materials, parents' religion, lack of access to admission to schools, education given to boys and girls together and sex of teachers were not reported as major reasons for low female participation in education.
8. As a whole, factors that affect female participation at the primary level of education also affect their participation at the secondary level.

## 2. Recommendations

In view of the above findings, it is possible to recommend the following:

1. The very factor influencing the achievement of the enrolment target described in the development plan, as mentioned above, is female participation in education. Thus, in a country like Ethiopia with growing school-age population and a large number of children still out of school, maximum attention should be paid to female school enrolment. In other words, emphasis to female enrolment is necessary not only to ensure them educational opportunities but also to promote the achievement of the enrolment target described in the development plan. In view of this, it seems helpful to set clearly the proportion of females that should be enrolled, while making general guidelines for enrolment.
2. No doubt that the level and extent of individual's education determines to a great extent the degree of employment opportunities in the labour force of modern sectors. Despite this fact, however, the observed percentage of female participation at the secondary level of education is very low. Obviously, this low female participation at the secondary level will set the stage for low female participation at the tertiary level. This will in turn, pave the way for low female participation in the labour force of modern sectors and high status occupations. In order to stop the chain effect of the problem, it is vital

to find a means that help to get rid of the causes for low female participation at the secondary level of education.

Therefore, expanding junior and senior secondary schools at a reasonable distance or bringing girls to where the schools are available, either by providing transport or arranging rent house, could help to solve the problem of school scarcity. Similarly, searching for means of improving female's academic performance by facilitating them with all the necessary things is believed to encourage the school girls in their working on National Examinations. In addition to this, adoption of quota system in selection is also advisable to increase female participation in the secondary level of education. This is used already in the selection for the third level of education, and thus, is not difficult to apply in the case of junior and senior secondary levels of education. Furthermore, creating awareness among parents not to force their daughters to quit their schooling for their services at home becomes highly advisable. As mentioned earlier, females accomplish a large portion of household activities. Undoubtedly, these activities will take time that could be used for educational activities. This will often lead to poor results, which in turn discourage the interest of daughters in education and finally lead them to withdraw from school. Therefore, creating awareness among parents to help them deal with their education along with providing guidance and counselling services will help to decrease the dropout rate of female students. Moreover, increasing social consciousness along with strengthening the law that pro-

hibit early marriage could be important in an effort to increase female participation at junior and senior secondary education.

3. As observed above, the proportion of female enrolled in government schools is lower than in non-government schools. Therefore it is important to pay due attention to government schools while making effort to increase female participation in education.
4. Literate parents, as noted above, are more willing to send their daughters to schools than illiterate parents. Viewing from this point of view, female participation in education will inevitably lag behind unless efforts are made simultaneously to educate parents. Expanding and strengthening literacy education can thus serve as a means to raise the number of literate parents and thereby increase female participation in education.
5. Lack of exposure to modern views of life is found to be a reason for low female participation in education. It is recommended, therefore, that there should be a campaign to change parental views and beliefs so that they send their daughters to schools. In this regard, educational mass-media, community leaders, development agents and school administrators should devote themselves to change the backward traditional outlook and cultural restrictions to enhance the enrolment rate of females.
6. It is well known that the practices of requiring girls to shoulder larger share of the family service is further pre-

ssure exerting on them especially when mothers give birth to a new child or when the household management required extensive time and engagment for such activities as searching water, collecting firewood and the like. In addition to this, they may also be required to work in farm or do home processing products for sale. As the time spent by girls in these activities is very important, parents must find all means to create free access for the education of their daughters. In order to increase female participation in education, therefore, reducing the work load of mothers, who are the main beneficiaries of the assistance of their daughters, could be helpful, because if the time taken to perform those activities is reduced, mothers would be willing to accomplish the tasks themselves and let their daughters free to go to school. Thus, it is important to introduce them to the appropriate technology such as fuel saving stoves utility, and relevant services such as water supply, community services child-care and family planning.

7. A decision to send daughters to school could be a question based on whether girls can find jobs once they are educated. Thus, if educated females could not obtain jobs at the same rate as the educated males, parents may conclude that girls are less fortunate for job opportunity and refrain their daughters from going to school. Thus, giving better chance of job opportunity is another means to encourage the education of female and hence raises parents' willingness to send their daughters to schools.

8. Finally, I recommend that similar researches be conducted to identify factors that affect females' academic performance and the reason why female participation in education vary among administrative regions.

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Appendix A<sub>1</sub>

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY  
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Questionnaire to be filled by secondary school teachers, assistant directors and directors:

Dear Respondant:

The purpose of this questionnaire is to identify major factors that affect females educational participation at secondary level. Since your sincere response has a great influence on the finding, you are kindly requested to be considerate in answering the questions. Your cooperation in answering the questionnaire is highly appreciated.

1. Give appropriate answer to the following questions by writing in the space provided or by marking "X" in the box.

1. Name of your school \_\_\_\_\_

2. Type of the school

Government

Non-Government

3. Sex: Male

Female

4. Qualification

Diploma

B.A. /B.Sc. Degree

Master's Degree

Other

5. Your position in the school (i.e. at present)

Teacher

Assistant Director

Department Head

Acting Director

Unit Leader

Director

6. Do boys and girls have equal access to admission?  
Yes  No
7. If your answer to question number "6" is No, who gets more access? Boys  Girls
8. Are schools available at a reasonable distance for all children?  
Yes  No  I am not certain
9. From your experiences and observations, do parents allow their daughters to go to schools far away from their villages?  
Yes  No
10. If your response to question number "9" is no, why don't they allow them? Fear of forced marriage (telefa)   
Lack of money to pay for food, house rent transportation and the like   
Lack of appreciation for females' education   
Fear of exposure to unfamiliar environment   
Mention if any other \_\_\_\_\_
11. Do you think that the sex of teachers has an influence on parents' decision to send their daughter to school?  
Yes  No
12. If your response to question number "11" is yes, where do most parents prefer to send their daughters for schooling?  
To schools staffed only by female teachers   
To schools staffed by many female teachers and few male teachers

To schools staffed by few female teachers and many male teachers

To schools staffed only by male teachers

13. Do school cost influence parents' willingness to educate their daughters? Yes  No  I am not certain

14. If your answer to question number "13" is Yes, which of the following school related costs prevent poor parents from sending their daughter to school?

School fee

Expense of learning materials

Cost or rent of books

Mention if any other \_\_\_\_\_

15. Whose dropout rate is higher for this academic year?

Male pupils'  Female pupils'

16. Which level of education do you think that most females complete?

Primary  Senior secondary

Junior secondary  I don't know

17. Do most parents appreciate the benefit their daughters gain from education?

Yes  No  I am not certain

18. If your response to question number "17" is No, why is that so?

Lack of exposure to modernization

Absence of females in high status occupation as a  
role models

Mention if any other \_\_\_\_\_

19. Does parents' religion affect daughters' schooling?

Yes  No  I am not certain

20. If your response to question number "19" is yes, daughters  
of which religion followers are more affected?

Christians  Moslems

21. Does early marriage hamper females' schooling?

Yes  No  I do not know

22. From your experiences and observations, at which age do  
most females get engaged in marriage?

10 - 12 years old  13 - 14 years old

15 - 18 years old  19 - 20 years old

23. Does parents' education promote daughters' schooling?

Yes  No  I am not certain

24. If your response to question number "23" is yes, whose  
education matters more?

Mothers' education

Fathers' education

Both have equal influence

25. Which of the following measure(s) do you think increase(s)  
female school enrolment? (Making more than one choice  
is possible).

reducing or eliminating school related costs

expanding schools at a reasonable distance

increasing parental education

prohibiting early marriage

increasing employment opportunities for educated  
females

increasing number of female teachers

creating an awareness among parents on the import-  
ance of females' education

II. Below are some major reasons for females' low participat-  
ion rate at secondary education. From your experiences  
and observations, please rank them by assigning "1" for  
the most major problem that affects female participation  
at secondary level, "2" for the second, "3" for the  
third and so on.

.../.

Reasons for Females' Low participation Rate in

<u>Education</u>	<u>Rank</u>
A. Demand for daughter's labour by parents	_____
B. Lack of exposure to modern outlook	_____
C. Perference of schools to admit males than females .....	_____
D. Long distance from home to school .....	_____
E. Parents' illiteracy .....	_____
F. Religious prejudices .....	_____
G. Masculine image in the curriculum .....	_____
H. Parents unwillingness to pay for females' schooling .....	_____
I. Lack of money to pay school fee .....	_____
J. Inability to pay for books and other instructional materials .....	_____
K. Narrow employment opportunities for educated females .....	_____
L. Lack of pupils' interest in education .....	_____
M. Parents unwillingness to send their daughters to school to be taught by male teachers ..	_____
N. Parents' negative attitude towards education given to boys and girls together .....	_____
O. Cultural pressure for early marriage .....	_____



7. ለ6ኛ ቴ ቁጥር የሰጡት ምሳሌ የላቸውም ከሆነ ማን የበለጠ ተ/ቤት የመገባት ዕድል አለው?

ወንዶች ላይ  ሴቶች ላይ

8. በአካባቢያ የሚገኙ ተ/ቤቶች ለሁሉም ተግሪያቸው በአጣጣይና ከመንገድ ራቸው በጣይርቅ ቦታ ላይ ነው ያሉት?

አያ ናቸው  አይደሉም  እርገጠኛ አይደለሁም

9. ከላይተ ልምድና ዕውቀት አኳያ ወላጆች ሴት ልጆቻቸው ከመንገድ ራቸው ፎቀው ወይም ተለይተው ለትምህርት እንዲሄዱ ይፈቅዳሉ?

አያ  አይፈቅዱም

10. ለ9ኛ ቴ ቁጥር የሰጡት ምሳሌ አይፈቅዱም ከሆነ የማይፈቅዱት ለምን ይመስልዎታል?

ሰዓቸው እንዳትጠፋቸው ጠቆረቀ

ለምገባ፣ ለቤት ኪራይ፣ ለተራገባቸው እና ለመሳሰሉት ወጪ መክፈል ስለሚከብዳቸው

ለሴት ልጅ ትምህርት ብዙም ስለማይጨነቅ

የሚያውቀው ቦታ ሂደት ችግር ይገጥማቸዋል ብለው ስለሚፈሩ

የተለየ ምክንያት ከላይ ይገኛል \_\_\_\_\_

11. የትም/ቤት መምህራን ጾታ/ የአስተጻሪያቸው ወንድ ወይም ሴት መሆን/ ወላጆች ሴት ልጆቻቸውን ተ/ቤት እንዲያስገቡ ወይም እንዳያስገቡ አስተዋጽኦ ያደርጋል?

አያ  አያደርገውም

12. ለ 11 ኛ ቴ ቁጥር የሰጡት ምሳሌ አያ ከሆነ ወላጆች ሴት ልጆቻቸውን ለማስገባት የሚፈልጉት ተም/ቤት

ሴት መምህራን ብቻ ያሉበት

ብዙ ሴት መምህራንና ጥቂት ወንድ መምህራን ያሉበት

ጥቂት ሴት መምህራንና ብዙ ወንድ መምህራን ያሉበት

ወንድ መምህራን ብቻ ያሉበት

13. የት/ቤት ክፍያ ወይም መጻፊ መብዛት የወላጆችን የቤት ልዩያ ቸውን ት/ቤት የሚሰጣት ፍላጎት የሚቀንስ ይመስልዎታል?

አዎ  አይቀንስም  አርገጠኛ አይደለም

14. ለ 13ኛ ተቀባይ የሰጡት ምሳሌ አዎ ከሆነ ከሚከተሉት የት/ቤት ወጪዎች የትኛው ወጪ ከዱሃ ቤተሰብ ለወጡ ቤት ልዩያ አገገኛ ይመስልዎታል?

የት/ቤት ክፍያ ወይም መጻፊ

የጽሕፈት መሰሪያዎች ወጪ

የመጽሐፍት ዋጋ ወይም ኪራይ

የተለየ ስራ ይገባል \_\_\_\_\_

15. በትምህርት ቤት ስራ በዚህ ዓመት ትምህርት ከቋረጡት መካከል የሚከተሉት ከትኛ?

ወንዶች ናቸው  ሴቶች ናቸው

16. በአርሰያ ገምት የትኛው የትምህርት ደረጃ ነው በዚህ ስራ የሚያጠናቅቁት?

አንደኛ ደረጃ  ሁለተኛ ደረጃ

ሁለተኛ ደረጃ  አርገጠኛ አይደለም

17. አብዛኛዎቹ ወላጆች የቤት ልዩያ ቸው መጻፊ የሚያስገኙት ጥቅም ይረዳሉ?

አዎ  አይረዱም  አርገጠኛ አይደለም

18. ለ 17ኛ ተቀባይ የሰጡት ምሳሌ አይረዱም ከሆነ ለምን ይመስልዎታል?

ከዘመኑ ሥልጣን ጋር በተያያዘ ያለው ተግባር

ምሳሌ ለሆኑ የሚሆኑ ክፍተት የሥራ ቦታ ላይ ያሉ ሴቶች ያለውኛር

የተለየ ስራ ይገባል \_\_\_\_\_



በለው ይገምታሉ? /ከአንድ የበለጠ ለመምረጥ ይቸላሉ: /

የት/ቤት ክፍያ ወይም መዋጊያ መቀነስ ወይም ማጥፋት

ት/ቤቶችን በአጣጣይ በታያቸው መሥራት

ወላጆቻችን ከመሃይም ነት ማሳቀቅ

በለጅነት ዕድሜ የሚደረገውን ጋብቻ መከሰከስ

ለተሞላ ሴቶች የሥራ ዕድል ማስፋት

የሴት መምህራንን ቁጥር መጨመር

ወላጆቻችን የሴቶችን መግር የሚኖረውን ጠቀሜታ እንዲረኩ

ማድረግ

ከዚህ በታች ሴቶች አንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤት ገብተው እንዳይሞሩ ሊያደርጉ ይቸላሉ ተብሎ የተገመተ መሰናክሎች ሠፍሯል። ከላይኛት ለምድና ዕውቀት አኳያ እነዚህን መሰናክሎች በቀደም ተከተሉ በደረጃ ያስቀምጧቸው። በመጀመሪያ ደረጃ ሴቶች አንደኛ ደረጃ ት/ቤት ገብተው እንዳይሞሩ የሚያደርገውን መሰናክል " 1 " የሚቀጥለውን " 2 " ለቦስ ተኛ ደረጃ " 3 " ለአራ ተኛ " 4 " እያሉ ለእያንዳንዱ መሰናክል ደረጃ ይሰጡ።

የሴቶችን የመግር ዕድል ሊያስናክሉ ይቸላሉ ተብሎ የተገመተ ነጥቦች

	<u>ነጥቦች</u>	<u>ደረጃቸው</u>
ሀ.	የሴቶች ልጆች በቤት አካባቢ ለሥራ መፈለግ	_____
ለ.	ከጎሳ ቁር አመለካከት ያለመሳቀቅ	_____
ጠ.	የት/ቤቶች በተሞራ ያቸው አቀባበል ላይ የጾታ አድልዎ ማድረግ	_____
መ.	የት/ቤቶች በየአካባቢው ያለመኖር	_____
ሠ.	የወላጆቻችን ተምህርት ማጣት	_____

.../.

ከላረው የቀጠለ...

<u>ነገሶች</u>	<u>ደረጃቸው</u>
ረ. የሚከተሉት የገይሳኖች ተጽዕኖ	_____
ሰ. የሥርዓተ ተምህርት ለወገዶች ብቻ ተከፍጫ መስሎ መታየት	_____
ሸ. የወላጆች ለቤት ለደጋጋሚ ተምህርት ለመክፈል ፈቃደኛ ያለመሆን	_____
ቀ. ለተ/ቤት መመዘገቢያ ወይም ክፍያ የሚውሉ ገንዘብ ማጣት	_____
በ. ለተምህርት መሰሪያዎች መገዛና ለመጸጠኛት ከራይ የሚውሉ ገንዘብ ማጣት	_____
ተ. ለተግሩ ቤቶች በፊ የሥራ ዕድል ያለመኖር	_____
ፑ. የቤቶች የመግር ፍላጎት ዝቅ ተኖ መሆን	_____
ነ. ወላጆች ቤት ለደጋጋሚ ወገድ መምህራን ለገዲያ በተቃራኒ ያለመፈለግ	_____
ኘ. የወላጆች የወገዶችንና የቤቶች ለደጋጋሚ በሌላው ላይ መግር ያለመደገፍ	_____
ሀ. በቤቶች ላይ ትሎ ለገዲያገቡ የሚደረገው የባህሉ ተጽዕኖ	_____

Appendix B.

Sample School and Administrative Regions

<u>School Name</u>	<u>Adm. Region Name</u>
1. Shele Primary School	Gamu Goffa
2. Kuleto " "	" "
3. Chancha S.S.School	" "
4. Arba Minch " "	" "
5. Kaleb Primary and Junior S.School	Sidamo
6. Ogoba Primary School	"
7. Negelle S.S.School	"
8. Harerge Mariam S.S.School	"
9. Jimma Senbete Primary School	Showa
10. Mulugeta Gedile Primary and Junior S.School	"
11. Sendafa S.S. School	"
12. Sebeta " "	"
13. Ewuqete Chora Primary School	Wellega
14. Netsanet Betigle Primary and Junior S.School	"
15. Nekemte Com. S.S. School	"
16. Melkagole Primary School	Wollo
17. Tsaitu Butul Primary School	"
18. Tadagiwa Ethiopia S.S.School	"
19. Woldia Com. S.School	"
20. Asbe Teferi S.S.School	Hararge
21. Asbe Teferi Qutire Hulet Primary School	"

DECLARATION

I, under signed, declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University. All sources of material used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

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Signature :  \_\_\_\_\_

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