ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

THE STUDY OF THE PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS OF IMPLEMENTING BASIC EDUCATION IN ETHIOPIA

BY
TESFA WORKNEH
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

JUNE 2001

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

THE STUDY OF THE PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS OF IMPLEMENTING BASIC EDUCATION IN ETHIOPIA

BY
TESFA WORKNEH
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

JUNE 2001

THE STUDY OF THE PROPLEMS AND PROSPECTS OF IMPLEMENTING BASIC EDUCATION IN ETHIOPIA

A THESIS SUBMITED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

BY
TESFA WORKNEH

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I am very much indebted to my thesis advisor, Professor Seyoum Teferra, for his Unreserved and valuable guidance, illuminating suggestions and persistent encouragement, which undeniably helped to work diligently on my thesis.

I am also indebted to Ato Dirribsa Abate, Tesfaye Jale, Surafel Zewdie, Wakshum Mokonin, Aweke Yirgu, Mesfin Jeleta, Feleke Tilahun and W/rt Ando whose encouragements and professional assistances have always been with me during the study.

Moreover, I owe a lot to my wife Lakech Eferfi who in one way or another rendered her help and shared my pains in the course of writing my thesis.

Finally, I am very much grateful to W/ro Tadalech Irena who scarified her leisure time in typing the paper.

ACRONYMS

AIR	=	Apparent Intake Rate
CE	=	Coefficient of Efficiency
CSA	=	Central Statistical Authority
DR	=	Drop out Rate
EMIS	=	Educational Management Information System.
GER	=	Gross Enrollment Ratio
GG	=	Gender Gap
GPI	=	Gender Parity Index
IIEP	=	International Institute for Education Planning
MOE	=	Ministry of Education
NGO	=	Non Government Oroganization
NIR	=	Net Intake Rate
PR	=	Promotion Rate
REB	=	Regional Education Bureau
RI	=	Reperesentation Index
RR	=	Repetition Rate
TGE	=	Transitional Government of Ethiopia
SNNP	=	Southern Nation Nationality People
TTI	=	Teachers Training Institute
TP	=	Thershold Population
NUESCO	=	United Nations Education Social and Cultural Organization
UPE	=	Universal Primary Education
ZEO	=	Zone Education Office

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER III. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA.

CHAPTER-FOUR-SUMMARY AND CONCULISION

CHAPTER - FIVE STRATEGIES FOR PROMOTING EQUITABLEACCESS AND EFFICIENCY TO ATTAIN BASID EDUCATION

LIST OF TABLES

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of the study was to make a diagnostic study on the process of implementing basic education in Ethiopia and detect change in the system, identify the level of the problems, the short coming of the system, the pressing problem which need to be solved and the area in which more efforts and investment are required for improvement.

The study was designed to answer four basic questions. The questions were: 1). What are the extent of coverage and access to basic education? 2) What are the trends and patterns of educational inequality in participation rate? 3) What is the level of internal efficiency of the system? 4) What strategies should be employed to attain basic education?

The study utilized a descriptive survey approach and involves both primary and secondary sources. The statistical data of the 11 regional states and the date obtained through questionnaire and structured interview from Amhara, Oromia and SNNP regions were analyzed using relevant statistical tools.

The analysis of data revealed that 1) Coverage and access to basic primary education is limited and dominated by overage children and the two sides of access, provision and utilization, are in red. 2) The trend and pattern of regional disparity in participation rate continued to persist in the usual North-South and the effect was accumulating over time. Concerning the mechanisms of inequality related to gender, inequality is observed in initial participation, in process and out come. 3) The internal efficiency of the system was found to be very low due to high wastage caused by repetition and drop out rates. The low internal efficiency (wastage) is more due to dropout and the holding capacity of the system was decreasing over time.

Finally, the need for norms and standard on which school distribution is based, enforcing compulsory attendance law, reducing opportunity costs, increasing the role of private sectors, intensifying literacy programs, community sensitization, alternative patterns of primary school provision, identifying priority area zones, building partnership and mobilizing resources and creating supportive policy environment are recommended as interventions for promoting equitable access and efficiency to attain basic education and give the broad and some what abstract goal of basic education for all a practical meaning and substance.

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. The Problem and its Approach.

Education is a cornerstone of economic and social development and a principal means of improving the welfare of individuals. Basic /primary education is its foundation. It improves the productive capacity of societies and their political, economic and scientific institutions. It also helps reduce poverty by mitigating its effects on population, health, and nutrition and by increasing the value and efficiency of the labor offered by the poor. (World Bank 1991:2)

No one would doubt that education is the major vehicle to development and the remedy for people's problem. Based on this, it is widely accepted that all children should receive at least primary education if human labor is to yield sustainability in development of a country.

The subject of this study is human right; justice, access to basic education, which is usually considered as the fundamental building blocks for the right of education. Basic education is the foundation and it is the maximum that a poor country can offer free to both adults and school age children. It is the fundamental social service that enables all citizens to meet their minimum learning needs and get the access to modern life. Thus, access to basic education is the basis for opportunity of all kids.

Rajupt J.S (1996:22) explained that basic education is the base or foundation of learning for all citizens consisting of basic learning tools of reading, writing and numeracy as well as basic knowledge and skills of life as defined in specific circumstances.

The international community has long recognized that basic education is both a necessity and fundamental human right. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by

the United Nations in 1948, asserted that every one has a right to education and subsequent international conferences and normative texts have reaffirmed this goal and sought to achieve it.

In December 1948, the United Nations adopted its Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Article 17, states access to primary education is the fundamental human right. Article 26 states: Every one has a right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. (World Bank 1980:23). Similarly, the declaration of the right of child 1959 includes the child's' right to education and states that a country which falls to provide education for its total child population is falling in its duly. It is also a wasting part of its human resources in leaving them under developed.

The provision of UPE has, especially since the early 1960s, figured prominently among the many development priorities of developing nations and targeted dates for reaching this goal have been stipulated in national as well as in regional development plans. At regional level conferences, convened by UNESCO in 1960 (Karachi), 1961 (Addis Ababa) and 1966 (Tripoli) set 1980 as the year of achieving UPE in most countries in Asia and Africa. Additionally, as explained in Rajupt (1996:21), on the occasion of the UNESCO regional Conferences in Mexico in 1979, Harare in 1982 and Bangkok in 1985, the ministers of planning and education of Latin American, African and Asian Countries reaffirmed the urgent need to provide basic education for all in their respective regions, in the form of primary education for children and functional literacy skills for youth and adults. International literacy year was celebrated in 1990, in Jomtien and major agencies; UNESCO, UNICEF, the World Bank and UNDP jointly announced their support for a new international initiative for meeting basic learning needs. As a follow up, a conference of nine most populous countries was held in Delhi in 1993 and came out with Delhi Declaration.

These various initiatives reveal a growing consciousness that in periods of economic recessions and adjustments the human aspects of development tend to be neglected and that there is therefore an urgent need to give special attention to, and even take measure to protect, the basic services of the poorest segments of society. Evidence is indeed

accumulating that basic education for all is an essential pre-requisite for an efficient and equitable development process. Without a minimum of education for the entire population, a human centered development process cannot be implemented or sustained. To use the words of Rajupt.

> ***All societies have to ensure that every citizen is equipped with the basic tools of learning and the basic knowledge and life skills relevant for his own environment so that each can have a fair start in life. 'Basic Education for All', therefore, is a battle-cry against the prevailing pattern of elitism and selectively in education that offers much to a few at the expense of a common care for learning for all. (Jajupt J.S (1996:23)***

Although countries and regions have pronounced themselves in favor of universal basic primary /education, in spite of all the above benefits, it remains underdeveloped.

In the case of Ethiopia, providing equitable access to primary education and ensuring that children who are in schools complete the whole cycle remained a serious challenge.

To escape from such crises, in 1994, Ethiopia adopted a new Education and Training policy to restructure the education system and expand its accessibility. Discussing why change is necessary the 1994 Education and Training Policy pointed out that the educational system has enormous problems, Particularly in primary schools: - enrollment ratio remains low, rural areas and girls are not well served; the quality of education is low; the system is inefficient; funding is in adequate: and the capacity for planning and management is weak. This shows the educational development of our country is entangled with complex problems of access, equity, efficiency, and quality.

The overall result is that today Ethiopia remains one of the most illiterate countries of the world where a huge proportion of school age children are out of schools and illiterate adults are out of one or another form of basic education.

Addressing the problem of education and the goal of universal basic primary education, the education sector development programs (ESDP) of Ethiopia states: -

> ***Our long-term development strategy gives high priority to improvement in Education. To address the needs for education, we have embarked on a set of political, economic and social reforms that includes the 1994 Education and Training policy. Our goal is to restructure and expand the education system to make it more relevant to the present and future needs of the economy. This will result in citizens better able to participate fully in development. The goal is universal enrollment by 2015. (MOE: - 1998)***

Given the trends of population growth 3.3%, the challenge of human resource development planners is how to provide primary education to the ever-growing number of children.

Therefore, one of the nation's educational challenges, perhaps the strongest challenge, is the universalization of basic education. The question is how the broad and somewhat abstract goal of basic education for all by 2015 can be given practical meaning and substance? What is the status of the problems now?

1.2. JUSTIFICATIONS

Philip (1975:4) stated that economically a country with very limited access to basic education means "a greater loss of human resource potential", and governmentally, it makes much harder "the task of administrative and political development." Socially, unequal access to education means tension between the education privileged and the deprived and for the individual child lack of access to primary education means "loss of dignity and opportunity."

For a country, failure to get access to primary education means a loss in its human resource potential and an obstacle to its progress. The reason for special concern to study

the problems of implementing basic education appears useful at least for three reasons, political, economic and humanitarian. This reasons and their implications underline the need for study in this area.

The primary reason why the problems of implementing basic education deserve study is political. Illiteracy is an impediment to political life and self-government. Osler (1994:2) stated that political literacy and economic awareness are the key areas in development, and the educational systems need to prepare their society with the necessary knowledge and skills to address social, economic and political questions within development process at appropriate level.

In our case, the different administrative regions are at different stages of development regarding basic education opportunities for their people. The distance each region has to cover to reach the goal is obviously different: - so are difficulties of the task each has and its resource and capacities. In relation to this Ayalew (1989:30) states that failure to address educational disparities could lead to threaten both the political system and national hood of a given country especially when regions are demarcated on the basis of ethnicity. Thus, for mounting national cooperative effort, the goal have to be set in a way that makes it possible for each region to begin from where it stands now in order to make the maximum possible progress towards the ultimate goal.

The second reason relates to economic aspect. The economic justification for the concern of basic education is linked to the role education plays in development. Discussing the contribution of primary education to development, Lockheed and Verspoor (1991:2) states that completed primary education helps alleviate poverty and advance economic and social development. The authors further explained that the adults in developing countries who have higher level of educational attainment have more paid employment, higher individual earnings, greater agricultural productivity, low fertility, better health and nutritional status and more "modern" attitudes than adults who have lower educational attainment. They are also likely to send their children to school. From the above ideas, it is possible to understand that, countries that have built their human capital

have more potential' for development than countries with better national resources. Thus human centered development process cannot be implemented without a minimum of education for the entire population.

The third reason is that basic education is a human right- a minimum learning right. The universal declaration of human right 1948 states that 'every one has the right to education and education shall be free at least in elementary stage. Osler (1994:12) indicated that, human rights are only rights when people known about them and can therefore exercise them. Therefore, knowing this aspect of human right and exercising it is an indispensable issue.

1.3. Statement of the problem

As mentioned earlier, the 1994 Education and Training policy and ESDP are in favor of the goal of basic education for all by 2015. Assuming that the necessary mobilization of resources and efforts will be mounted in each region and nationally, for this purpose, the full distance to Universalization has to be covered by the year 2015. However, success or failure in attaining basic education depends ultimately on the action taken in implementing basic education in the country.

In implementing basic education, however, broadening access to school is not just a matter of increasing the number of school places only. School participation (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:145) is an interaction of supply, demand and the learning process. In limited resource, low school enrollment and high population growth, extending access to out-of-school children becomes hard and more expensive. More over, the performance of educational system and the impact of education on society are not immediately obvious. In the process of implementation it is, therefore, desirable to diagnose the existing system, discover the nature of the problem and conduct analysis of problems failure and success and identify the pressing problems, which need to be solved through change of strategy, planning and policy statements, by making careful examination.

There is no comprehensive diagnostic study made so far on practical implications and problems of implementing basic education in Ethiopia. Planners need to have a study support system on which decisions can be made for designing strategies, for improving primary education and speeding up progress towards full implementation.

Educational planning is done within the broad framework of the national objectives and policies for education. The first task is to make a diagnostic study of the educational system with the help of latest available data, and empirical evidence, and set down the goal and objectives of the plan within the framework of overall educational policies. Hence, stopping somewhere in the process and making careful examination assess the current level of development, the result of the past effort to Universalization and identifying the status of the problems of the system are an indispensable activity for improving the system. It would, therefore, be logical and timely to give especial concern for studying the problems of implementing basic education in the existing primary education system.

To guide the study within the scope specified and make the attainment of intended objectives possible, the study tries to answer the following basic questions.

1. What are the extents of coverage and access to basic primary education?
2. What are the trends and patterns of educational inequality in participation rate?
3. What is the level of internal efficiency of the system?
4. What strategies should be employed to attain basic education?

1.4. The purpose of the study

The major purpose of the study is to make a diagnostic study of the educational system with the help of latest available data and empirical evidence, and detect change in the system, identify the short coming of the educational system, the pressing problem which need to be solved and the area in which more efforts and investment are required for improvement

The specific objectives of the study are: -

i) To describe the patterns of distributions of educational opportunities (schools) and average distance traveled by children to schools nationally and regionally.
ii) To identify distinct groups who use and who do not use educational provisions.
iii) To statistically indicate the magnitude of wastage and completion rate of the system.
iv) To identify the most cause of wastage in the system.
v) To describe the mechanisms of gender inequalities
vi) To describe the trends and patterns of regional disparity in participation rate
vii) To identify problems militating against the implementation of basic education in Ethiopia
viii) To suggest strategies that will help in solving the identified problems

1.5. Significance of the study

1.5.1. Awareness Significance.

The goal of achieving universal basic /primary education should be defined in such a way as to be easily understood and accepted by the potential participants, arouse enthusiasm among national and regional leaders, and seen as feasible with appropriate mobilization of efforts. This study, thus, provides a better understanding and awareness on problems of implementing and achieving basic education for all and would help to mobilize all forces of the regions and nation to bring significant progress in the expansion of basic education by improving primary education. If change occurs, these can either be publicized to show the favorable development of the system or remedial action can be taken before the problem is aggravated through moving beyond the easily remedied stage.

1.5.2. Policy and planning significance.

Basic education for all can be met in no better way than a policy and planning strategy of MOE and respective Regional Education Bureaus. In this study, the key issue is the need

for effective policy and planning for diversifying alternative arrangements and innovative strategies to improve primary education. Unless alternative arrangements and innovative strategies are created and measures are taken to promote full attendance, the motto "Education for All" cannot be effectively implemented in Ethiopia. Ultimately, its findings are meant to help the national and regional educational planners, policy makers and other educational experts to explore possibilities of developing more effective strategies for improving primary education to speed up progress toward the ultimate goal of universalization. Thus the study would help to set the goal in a way that makes it possible for the country and each region to begin from where it stands now in order to make maximum possible progress toward the ultimate goal. Moreover, the study is expected to serve as a springboard for further research and evaluation of the implementation of basic education in Ethiopia.

1.6. Delimitation of the Study

Since the provision of basic education is mainly effected through the formal system of education, structurally, the study is delimited to the formal primary education. The operational dimension of basic education is delimited to the provision of basic education to school age children.

In terms of actual achievement, there are four dimensions to be described in the comprehensive study of progress towards the goal of education for all, which are classified in to three for the purpose of the study. Firstly, there is a fundamental dimension of access, which is about the provision, and use of opportunities for basic education. Secondly, the inequality of educational opportunities. In this case the study is delimited to Regional inequality and Gender in equality in participation rate. The third important dimension is efficiency /quality. This is mainly about getting learners in to the system, and stay until the end of the basic education cycle. Ultimately, it is this, which determines the feasibility and sustainability of education for all. In terms of time dimension, the study is delimited to cover the years between 1995/96 and 1999/2000.

1.7. Limitations of the Study

First of all, the reliability of the statistical tools and indicators used depends on the consistency and reliability of the data gathered from MOE and regional education bureau. As clearly known, the source of educational data are schools, and there are no good and up to date data records at school level. This would, therefore, place a question on the consistency of the data obtained from MOE and Regional education bureaus.

Secondly, the major indicator used in measuring disparity across regions and between genders was Gross enrollment ratio. This is a crude measure of participation. It provides a narrow progress towards UPE because it does not take in to account the age structure. Another bottleneck is the lack of separate statistical data for grades 1-4. As a result the data for grades 1-8 were used. The study also failed to cover issues on effectiveness of the implementation. .

1.8. Definition of Terms

Accessibility: - are that proportion of children who have got access to schooling and the total population of the official school admission. (MOE: 1996:3)

Apparent Intake rate: - is the percentage of the new entrants to population who are 7 years old. (Tegene 1996:2).

Basic Education: - In Ethiopian context, this refers to education provided for children at the first cycle (1-4) of primary education.

Educational Indicator: - a quantitative device that gives an idea of the presence, or absence, nature, or degree of educational access, coverage, efficiency /quality of educational provision (Johnston 1981:2).

Gross Enrollment Ratio: - is the ratio of total enrollment, regardless, of age, in a given level of education to the population age group that corresponds to the official age of this level of education. (World Bank 1995:34).

Net Intake Rate: - It is the proportion of new entrants to grade 1 expressed as a percentage of the total population of the official school admission age. (MOE 1996:3).

Primary school: - in this study, primary school refers to schools having grades 1-8.

Pupil-year: - is a convenient, non-monetary way of measuring input. One pupil year stands for all resources spent to keep one pupil in school for one year.

1.9. Research Methodology and Data Gathering Tools

1.9.1. Research Methodology

The study utilized a descriptive survey approach. The rationale behind using this approach was, that the study is aimed at gathering data, facts and figures that provides descriptive information on the system and enables diagnostic investigation of their relationships to unravel the existing problems in implementing basic education. Hence, the primary task of this study is aimed at gathering statistical data, facts and figures to indicate what has been happening in the past, and what the present situation reveals.

1.9.2. Sampling

The data of the 11 regional states was used for the document analysis. For the purpose of administrating the questionnaire and interview, stratified and purposive sampling techniques were used to select the three sample regions.

According to the 1999/2000 educational statistics of MOE, three of the regions have gross enrollment ratio below the national average (51%) and eight of them have gross enrollment ratio above the national average. For the purpose of the study the 11 regions were stratified in to two parts. Regions with GER<51% and regions with GER>51%.

Table 1: School age population, Primary Enrollment, Number of schools and GER 1999/2000

Regions	School-Age popu.	Proportion of school age popu.	Primary school enroll.	Proportion of enroll.	No.of schools	Propor. Of schools	GER
Tigray	744617	5.87	472834	7.32	952	7.42	63.5
Afar	241739	1.91	22088	0.34	124	1.08	9.1*
Amhara ⊗	32204487	25.39	1507124	23.32	2895	25.20	46.1*
Oromia ⊗	4534325	35.75	2341195	36.23	4359	37.94	51.6
Eth.Somali	800695	6.31	66834	1.03	222	1.93	8.3*
Beneshangul	109717	0.88	89777	1.39	272	2.37	81.8
SNNP ⊗	2516197	19.83	1504351	23.27	2271	19.77	59.8
Gambela	39933	0.31	37421	0.58	129	1.12	93.7
Harari	26200	0.21	25107	0.39	46	0.40	96.2
Addis Ababa	397210	3.13	362921	5.62	267	2.32	91.4
DireDawa	52505	0.41	32751	0.51	53	0.20	62.4
Ethiopia	12683585	100	6462403		11490	100	51

⊗ Sample Regions

**** Regions with GER below national average***

Source - Educational statistics annual abstract 1999/20000

From regions with GER>51%, SNNP and oromia were selected deliberately because of there high population, high school age population, high number of primary schools and mostly rural

From regions with participation rate below the national average, Amhara regions was selected deliberately for a similar reason mentioned above. Generally, to select a particular region from the two stratified regions, purposive sampling was used because

the regions were considered to reflect the whole with reference to the problem under question. To this effect, the study was conducted in three regions:- Amhara, Oromia and SNNP, which comprise about 83 percent of school age population, 85 percent of primary schools and 78 percent of total primary school enrollment.

1.9.3. Data Gathering Tools and Source of Data

The main data gathering methods used were the format prepared for collecting data for document analysis, open-ended questionnaire and structured interview. The study involves both primary and secondary sources. The data for document analysis, the data of education of the years 1995/96 to 1999/2000, were obtained from MOE, the regional education bureau and the central statistical authority. Regarding the questionnaire five different types of questionnaire were set and tested on pilot group; personnel's working in Oromia Education Bureau .The response of the personnel's were examined item by item to find out whether or not there is ambiguity 'response clues or other factors which can affect the personnel's' response. Based on that two questions were rejected from each part of the questionnaire for they were found to be ambiguous. Few modifications were also made on some of the instructions and statements of questions in two parts of the questionnaire and then administered to personnel's working in different departments of the regional education bureau and MOE. More Over, structured interview was set and administered to officials of the MOE and Regional education bureau.

1.9.4. Statistical Tools Used in Data Analysis

The statistical tools used in this study were: Threshold Population (TP), Threshold population density (TD), School Catchment area, Representation Index (RI), Gini Coefficient, Lorenz Curve, Coefficient of Variation, standard deviation, mean, Gender parity index, Enrollment parity index, Reconstructed cohort analysis and Coefficient of efficiency.

CHAPTER- TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

The future development of the world and individual nations hinges more than ever on the capacity of individuals and countries to acquire, adopt, and advance knowledge. This capacity depends, in turn, on the extent to which the population has attained literacy, numeracy, communication, and problem solving-skills. To move foreword, all developing countries must improve the education and training of their labor force.

Why are children out of schools? That is way do some fail to enroll in the first place, and why do some that do enroll fail to complete the primary school cycle? While providing basic education, the relative concern for access, equity and efficiency is the function of the level of educational development.

This chapter deals with the literature review on issues related to educational development, access, equity and efficiency to give a solid foundation for the diagnostic study made on the process of implementing basic education in Ethiopia.

2.1. The Concept of Basic Education

To the question "what is basic Education"? There was no consensus of opinion either on the definition, or on the levels, or on the demands and pre-requisites. (Atle, and Abel 1984:13). The concept basic education has a long history and has been given many different meanings overtime. (Rajput J.S 1996:22). The term basic education lacks a commonly accepted definition and it is a country specific depending on how the term is conceptualized by policy makers and educational planners. (World Bank 1995:04; Kanu, 1996:173: UNESCO 1998:22)

Haws in Bishop (1986:53) shows how the concept of basic education is interpreted differently in different countries. For him, basic education is similar to the first part of cycle of schooling: three-five years in the former USSR, Ethiopia and Sierra lion and the

acquisition of basic knowledge, skills and attitudes by all citizens in or out of school in Tanzania.

Philips (1975:125-126), similarly, provides two meanings of basic education as applied to child and adolescents. According to him, children's basic education is provided at the national level to enable the children prepare for life and for further education. Adolescents' basic education, on the other hand, in regarded as a minimum social requirement provided out of the formal school system to a man of children and adults who have never been to school or dropped from school due to some seasons.

What ever the varying connotations of basic education in the past, according to Rajupt (1996:22), the term has wide currency in recent years in educational parlance as the short hand description for a base or foundation of learning for all citizens consisting of basic learning tools of reading, writing and numeracy as well as basic knowledge and skills for life as defined in specific circumstances.

Although there is a great difference in the interpretations given to basic education in Africa, Kagai et, al (1986:6-20) identifies four main components of basic education in each country. These includes, early childhood education, the primary school; non-functional literacy: and post literacy programs: and educational components in other sectors other than education to promote specific educational aspects such as extension programs in agriculture, family planning and maternal and child health education programs.

Discussing the concept of basic education, Rajput. (1996:23), has seen it in institutional and operational terms. In institutional terms, according to the author, basic education includes primary education for children, and literacy and continuing non-formal education for youth and adults. The core of basic education activities has to be organically linked with other complementary educational activities such as pre-school education, basic vocational learning and further formal education. In operational terms, according to the same author, basic education has to have a national or even a regional

definition, depending on what level of access to learning opportunities and learning achievement can be made universal. This definition, the author further explained, also has to be revised over time as a society's capacities and resources expand or its priorities in social goals change.

The first component of any basic education package has to be the masterly of elementary literacy and numerically skills because they are the prerequisite for acquisition and application of others skills and knowledge and they are also important in the formation of attitudes and values. These tools or instruments of learning constitute the nucleus of basic education, enabling learners to continue a self-sustaining process of learning. The second component consists of basic knowledge and understanding of one's everyday environment, such as essential knowledge about health, nutrition and environmental case: basic understanding of major technological changes: knowledge of social and political institutions affecting people's lives. The content of this component of basic education has to be adopted to the specific circumstances of learner groups and derived from an analysis of knowledge and skill needs in the specific environment. (Rajput 1996:23).

At Present, in Ethiopia, basic education includes education provided for children at lower primary schools (1-4), non-formal education for children, youth and adults, and contains instructions in literacy, numeracy, environmental education, crafts, home science, health and civics.

It is worth reiterating that three premises underpin the concept of basic education as it is commonly used (Rajput. J.S 1996:24). According to the author, these are first, the minimum or the base that is intended for all is not the total for all: the minimum is the beginning of a self-sustaining process of learning, second, the level of the common base or foundation of learning can and will be progressively raised in all societies. Third, all societies have to ensure that every citizen is equipped with the basic tools of learning and the basic knowledge and life skills relevant for his own environment so that each can have a fair start in life. "Basic Education for All", according to the same author,

therefore, is a battle-cry against the prevailing pattern of elitism and selectively in education that offers much to a few at the expense of a common core of learning for all.

2.2. Importance of Basic Education

Education is a backbone for the economic and social advancement of any country, and yet basic education is the foundation (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:1-2). The basic reason behind investing in basic education is that it enables people to be more productive at work and at home. (Mingat, 1988:148).

Particularly in the third word countries where a large proportion of the working population is based up on farming with high rates of illiteracy, basic education provides on investment opportunity, which should have high priority on economic grounds. Thus measures to extend basic education in the rural areas involve direct expenditure on the poorest population groups. Investment in basic education, therefore, provides a means of tackling the POVERTY problem. (King, 1988: OAU and UNICEF, 1992:73-76).

The major contribution of basic education can be grouped in to two major categories. Economic and social development. (King Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:2, King 1988:11, Lavy: 1992:21-22).

A) Economic Development

In cross regional comparisons, the World Bank has found that "the major difference in predicted growth rates between high performing Asian economics and sub-Saharan Africa derives from variation in primary school enrollment rates". It concludes that education is the main theme of the history of the differences in growth between sub-Saharan Africa and the East-Asian high performers. According to the World Bank (1988:22), a review of eighteen studies of farmer's education and farmer productivity in thirteen countries concluded that farmers who have completed four years of education

produce, on average, about 8 percent more farm out put than farmers who have not gone to school, controlling for differences in the use of physical in puts.

Similarly, peaslee in Lockheed and Verspoor (1991:3), examined the relationship between growth in participation of basic education and gross national product (GNP) per Capital over a 110 years for thirty four of the richest countries and found that none of them developed their economy before attaining universal basic /primary education.

Education has the direct relationship to earnings and the rate of return to it is high. A survey of cost benefit studies conducted by the World Bank suggests average social rates of return to investment in Africa education of the following magnitude. Primary 26 percent, secondary 17 percent and tertiary 13 percent. Similarly, study by Psacharopoulos 1985 in Lockheed and Verspoor (1991:3) estimated the social rate of return to basic education to be 27% Percent, which is the highest compared to Secondary and tertiary education. Furthermore different authors, Gould W. (1993:14), Baum and Tolbert (1985), UNESCO, (1992:69), agreed that the social returns to primary education are higher than returns to secondary and tertiary education.

B) Social Development

Education yields the recipients other important benefits that are not immediately reflected in the form of increased earnings or a more equal distribution of earnings. These benefits have to do with Social development (World Bank 1988:24). According to Cochrane (1979), one of the major difficulties of low-income countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America is their rapid population growth, which strain their development programs. Thus, according to the author, reducing fertility rates must be an important part of any development program in these countries, and reduced fertility further depends largely on the level of mothers' education.

According to the World Bank (1988:23-24), the more education a Women receives, the fewer Children she is likely to bear. Researches on the determinants of family size in Africa and elsewhere indicate, convinsingly that raising the educational attainment of

Women ultimately reduces fertility. From the household perspective, according to the Bank, it is desirable that, through education, women gain the power to control the number and spacing of the children they bring to the World. More over, in light of the economic problems associated with Africa's unprecedented population growth rate, the social benefit of education's impact on fertility related behavior could be expected to be high.

An extensive World Bank study Shows that where there has been heavy investment in female primary education, benefits for all occur through higher productivity, low infant and maternal mortality, long life expectance for both men and women, and lower fertility rates (UNESCO, 1992:6), Similarly, UNESCO, (1992:8), discussing the social importance of basic education, stated that, the benefits are more wide ranging and more subtle than reference simply to generate economic improvements or the quality of domestic life would suggest. Whether one looks at the purely instrumental (economic) benefits or at the more personal benefits to children and family and to the women themselves, there is no doubt that women's literacy merits priority attention. According to UNESCO, there are five areas in which benefits are likely to occur-the economy, the size of family, family welfare, the education of children, and Women's autonomy.

More over basic education, according to UNESCO (1990:11) facilitates the ability to meet other basic needs-adequate nutrition, shelter and clothing, and access to health services and clean water. All these basic human needs are interdependent, but basic education promotes accomplishment satisfaction of other needs. Basic education is more than an end in itself. It is a foundation for life long learning and human development on which countries may build, systematically, further levels and types of education and training.

2.3. Major Issues in Educational Development. Access, Equity, Efficiency and Quality

Discussing the development objectives of education sector, Baum and Tolbert (1985/124-125), has mentioned five principal objectives of which the first three are important and relevant to this paper. Accordingly, these objectives are

- Provision of basic education to all children.
- More equitable distribution of educational opportunities and reduction in existing inequalities based on sex, economic status and geography
- Greater internal efficiency of the educational system, through a reduction of waste of resources caused by student dropping out or repeating grades, and improved quality of education.

The three-education sector developed objectives mentioned above focuses on four issues in educational development, access, equity, efficiency and quality which are interdependant and interrelated.

While providing basic education, the relative concern for access, equity and efficiency is the function of the level of educational development (World Bank 1980:29). UNESCO, (1990:84), supporting the above idea, explained that, the relevance of basic education to actual learning needs is a precondition for educational quality, equity and efficiency. UNESCO farther explained that expanding access to basic education is an effective way to improve equity, provided that the quality of education offered is satisfactory. More over, measures to keep learners in basic education programs also help improve efficiency. On the other hand, (World Bank 1980:33), improving the efficiency in learning implies improving the quality of school in put. Similarly, Improving the quality of schooling to increase the demand for it is the most important demand side intervention for retaining children in school. Improving school quality can also make the flow of students more efficient. (World Bank 1997:72).

Efficiency has to be seen within the context of the containing claims of equity. The concept of equality cannot be adequately achieved without paying simultaneous attention of the efficiency aspect. In relation to the priorities given and interrelationship between access, equity, efficiency and quality, the World Bank (1980:29) has forwarded the following. When enrollment ratios are low, the primary concern, though not the only one, is to increase access to the system by having more school enroll more students. As enrollment rates grow, the main concern then must be to maximize the internal efficiency of the system and ensure equality and quality of the system.

Enabling all children to complete primary education of good quality is a central goal of many countries education policy. The speed with which it can be achieved will be determined by the success of the countries in overcoming the challenges of educational development related to the issues of access, equity, efficiency and quality, which are discussed in detail below.

2.3.1. Access to Basic Education

Expanding and equalizing educational opportunities imply access to prospective participants in all parts of a region, and equal, or nearly equal enrollment ratios for various segments of the population. Participation in schooling is determined not only by the educational opportunities that are provided, but also by the degree of their use. UNESCO (1998:22) explained that, providing infrastructure is not enough to achieve basic education for all as not all children have access to education. While this is an essential pre-condition, according to UNESCO, basic education can have desired effect only when it reaches all its targets and conveys the minimum range and level of knowledge and skill necessary to achieve the objectives. This requires among other things, UNESCO further explained, first full access, i.e. the availability of enough school places and the removal of barriers to access, especially for children of right school age and Second reduction of gender gap by providing a special attention to the education of mothers and the girl-child particularly in rural area.

There are two sides of access (UNESCO 1994:58). Governments, local communities and other agencies seek to provide opportunities for basic education. In this sense, access depends on provision of opportunities. However, according to UNESCO, access depends on the utilization of such opportunities by the population at which they are aimed. Hence, it is the dynamic interaction of 'provision' and 'utilization' that propels access as a significant dimension of basic education.

Broadening access to school is not just a matter of increasing the number of school places; School participation is an interaction of supply, demand and learning process. According to the authors, supply refers both to the availability and the quality of school facilities, materials and teachers. Demand is created by the decisions that parents make based largely on the opportunity costs of schooling, but also on the influence of cultural and religious factors. The learning process involves the experience that children's have in school. (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:145).

The above discussions leads to the argument that it is unrealistic to assume that if an educational service is offered, the intended beneficiaries will automatically accept it. For social or economic reasons, some groups may be apathetic toward the education being provided or not consider it worth the opportunity costs involved.

A population group exists in developing regions of the world, which are geographically remote from the main centers and from the economic activity and public services. Access to education facilities for the children of these groups is a special problem, even in relation to the general educational deficiency in the third World Countries (UNESCO-1979:139), UNESCO, further explained that, the remote or scattered populations fall in to three broad categories. Accordingly, these are: -

i) Nomadic people, primarily dependent on their livelihood on grazing, as in sub-Saharan region of the eastern horn of Africa and Central Asia,

ii). Tribal groups with primitive life-styles, in the more in accessible regions of Asia, Africa, and Latin America.

iii) Rural population in the backward parts of the third world countries relatively untouched by the modern development. At a global level, and on the surface, the educational problem facing the children of scattered and isolated population groups concerns the unavailability of services.

In sum, according to the World Bank (1980:16) there are unequal educational opportunities within countries based on sex, socio-economic status, and different region, rural, urban and sometimes ethnic background.

As mentioned earlier, the progress towards basic education for all depends on the extent to which provision keeps pace with growth in the target population and the accompanied by a reasonable level of utilization on part of the target population. An important measure of real progress towards EFA is therefore, to be found in the participation rates for the target population. Commonly, this takes the form of an enrollment ratio, which expresses the number enrolled in primary education as a percentage of the number of children in primary school going age in the total population.

2.3.2. Educational Inequality

I. The Concept of Equity and Equality in Education

The two concepts are best defined by Bronfenbrenner (1973). As quoted in Prysorjones (1980:157), Bronfenbrenner defines equity as "social justice, or fairness. It refers to a subjective and ethical judgment". Thus in most cases value judgments are involved in choosing and describing educational indicators. In this regard equity in education means fair and just access to educational provisions. To the same writer equality is more objective and descriptive than equity. For instance, the equality of an income distribution or access to education can be measured in terms of comparing some particular aspects of one person or a geographical unit with the same aspect of another person or a region. Inequality or disparity can be measured by comparing the deviation from a hypothetically equal situation, norms or standards.

Carron and Chau (1981), on their part, have indicated that there has been a shift in focus concerning equity in recent years. The authors explained that, initially the goal in public policy was to ensure that every student could attend a place of learning (Equitable access). The goal then shifted to ensuring that each place of learning received a fair share of resources to enable it to meet in broad terms the educational needs of all its students (Equity in resource allocation). The emerging view of equity suggests an emphasis on ensuring that each individual student has access to the particular mix of resources in order

to best meet the need and interests of that student, with resources in curriculum, learning experience, teachers, supplies equipment and services.

Cole et,al (1997:4) also make distinction between equal opportunities and equality. They stated that while we well come equal opportunities policies in schools and else where, we also see their limitations. When equal opportunity policies are advocated outside the framework of a long-term commitment to equality, the assumption has been made that there is a 'level playing field,' on which we all compete as equals. In addition, they said, promoting equal opportunity policies alone, indicates a failure to recognize how deep are the divisions in our society, due to such factors as class, race, gender, disability and sexuality. This is because, in reality, equal opportunity policies seek to enhance social mobility within structures, which are essentially unequal. In other words, they seek a meritocracy, where people use (or fall) on merit, but to grossly unequal levels or strata in society. Unequal in terms of income, wealth, life style, life chance and power. In sum, a commitment to equality means going further than equal opportunity policies, to remove the economic and other socio-cultural barriers that prevent those who grew up under disadvantaged circumstances.

II. Mechanisms of Inequality

Inequality in educational opportunities is often considered from statistical point of view. In this way considering inequality is in complete. It runs the risk of giving the impression that inequality in education is no more than a problem of unequal distribution of school places due to social demand varying from one social category to another. (Carron. G. 1985:2). What was stressed here is that inequality of opportunity or access in not the only way of inequality in education; inequality may arise even after being in the process of education.

According to Carron G. (1985:2), the way in which inequalities arise as a result of poor interaction between the school system and its environment can be pin pointed and examined at four stages of the process. First, at the level of entry in the school system,

that is in terms of participation in each level (in equality in participation). Second, at the time of transition from one level of schooling to another (in equality in transition). Third, on the level of orientation towards various streams (inequality of Orientation). Finally when progressing within the same level of schooling (in equality of success). What was explained above indicates that equity should not be seen only interns of equal opportunity or access but it should also been seen in terms of out comes.

III. Dimensions of Educational Inequality

Educational inequality (disparity) is a relative concept that shall be measured in terms of service share that a certain section receives out of the national supply. (Carron (1980:18) and Carron and Chau (1980:22). Pointed out that the impetus to the whole debate in educational inequalities in most societies is basically political in origin. According to the authors, policy makers often suggest that greater equality of educational opportunity will lead to a greater development of potential human resources and will in the long run have a perceptible influence on the level of economic well being. The authors further explained that the issue of Educational inequality, whether looked at regional, ethnic or Class terms, simply can not be understood except in the socioeconomic context in which the school functions. If formal education were not perceived to be the principal route to individual or group social and economic mobility in the less developed world, nobody would be very much interested in the issue of equality of educational opportunity. The words of G. Meave quoted in Ayalew (1989) can best explain the above idea. Of all the inequalities that exist, however, "There is no inequality more intolerable than the inequality in educational opportunity".

UNESCO (1994:50) and Carron, (1980:42) indicated that there are three categories of inequalities which have to be addressed in providing basic education in most African Countries: gender inequality; regional inequality and urban-rular inequality. Moreover, discussing the problems of inequalities, MOE (1998:2) stated that, though access to primary education is very limited and participation rate is very low in Ethiopia, the most unfortunate thing however is, even this small amount of education has never been fairly

distributed. According to the ministry, various dimensions of inequilty were observed; inequality between gender, inequality between urban and rural, and inequalities between regions. Therefore, educational inequalities can be looked in to access, efficiency and quality dimensions in terms of specific categories; Male-female, urban-rural and regional.

A. Gender inequality in Education

One of the most widely used indicators of educational development is the female enrollment rate. Since females commonly are the least to benefit from educational expansion and the first suffer from reductions in learning opportunities, their participation rates are a more sensitive indicator of access than are total or male only rates. (UNESCO – (1980:14), Brown G. (1996:52).

Moreover, Wanjama L.N (1988) explained that the marginalization of girls and Women in education, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, is continuing despite the theoretical recognition by African governments that access to quality education for all is a basic human right; and the existence of authoritative evidence demonstrating education, especially female education, to be a development imperative.

The first main area of inequality in education is that of gender (UNESCO 1994:50). Where as sex refers to basic physiological differences between females and males, gender relates to social and cultural differences, relative to time and place. Gender by definition is a social construct, unlike sex, which is a biological construct: that is to say appropriate gender roles are learned through socialization rather than genetically given. (Cole, M.et al 1997:58).

If present gender disparities continue, then basic education for all can never become a reality. Where girls and women belong to groups who suffer physical, social or economic disadvantage, their learning difficulties are multiplied. Inequalities linked to gender are some of the most challenging problems for decision-makers everywhere. The

education of girls and women merits the special attention of all those who care about basic education for all. (UNESCO-1990:5).

According to UNESCO in most African Countries girls and women typically represent 50 percent or more of the population and they however tend to be more disadvantaged when it comes to educational opportunities, and often represent less than 40 percent of primary enrollment as percentage of total primary school enrollment.

Similarly, the UNESCO (1990) highlighted existing gender inequalities in education at all levels: inequalities are more pronounced in third world Countries, more so countries in sub-Saharan Africa. The world conference 1990, declared that guaranteeing access to, and improving the quality of education for girls and women's is the most urgent priority.

> ***The most urgent priority is to ensure access to, and improve the quality of education for girls and women, and to remove every obstacles that hamper their active participation. All gender stereotyping in education should be eliminated. (World declaration Article 3.3).***

B. Regional in equality.

Disparity in regional enrollment level reflects in equalities in the distribution of income, wealth, and essential services. The persistent pattern of in equalities in economic, social, and educational services are the major factors that contribute to the widening gap between regions. (Brown. G. (1996:139), Carron. G. (1980:22), Coombs (1985:180).

2.3.3. System's Efficiency

It is evident that the term efficiency is borrowed from economists. It is the ability to produce or to achieve a desired effect with a minimum of effort, expense, or waste.

Simmons, (1980). Similarly, Good (1973:207) defined efficiency as "the ability to achieve desired results with economy of time and effort in relation to the amount of work accomplished". Thus, efficiency is the optional relation ship between inputs and out puts. (Mingat (1988:58); Tan and Mingat, (1992:45), and Tegene, (1999:105).

With respect to the Educational system, two aspects of efficiency can be distinguished: external and internal efficiency. (OECD, 1967:83 and Baum and Tolbert, 1985:131). External efficiency designates efficiency of the educational system with a view to reaching the goals of society which are relevant to education (Tan and Mirgat, 1992:45) such as economic returns to investing in education in general, the allocation of spending across levels and types of education and so on.

The internal efficiency of an Educational system is defined as "--- the ability (the system's) to educate the greatest number of students who have entered the system in a given year, in the shortest possible time and with the least use of financial resources---". (IIEP/UNESCO/1996:40).

The problem of educational efficiency has two internal dimensions: - the flow of students through the system with a minimum of waste and the quality of learning achieved in the system. Wastage in the flow of students is manifested quantitatively in the form of dropout and repetition, while the inputs and the outputs of the education system (World Bank 1980:30) determine the quality of learning.

Similarly, Baum and Tolbert (1985:135-139); Lockheed and Verspoor (1994:178-184); and Caillods and Postlethwaite (1995:3-19), more or less, categorized the factors that affect internal efficiency though they employed different terms for factors of internal efficiency, such as internal factors (Brimer and pauli, 1971:64), teaching /learning conditions (Coilleds and Postlethwaite (1995:3) and school factors (Benerji, 1998:34). Student flow and the quality of learning are the major factors that affect internal efficiency of education.

I. Student Flow

Student flow is to what extent the objectives set for each grade or each level is met as compared with the results achieved. Establishing an educational infrastructure that provides access to good Education for all students is made more expensive by in efficiencies in the flow of students, which are caused by dropout and repetition. When children dropout after only one or two years of schooling, public resources are probably wasted because most retain little of what they learned in such a short time. And when children repeat grades, extra resources are requited for them to complete the primary school cycle.

According to UNESCO, (1986:229), it is obviously not enough that the primary school should succeed in attracting all children of the right age in all countries, it must retain them for the necessary time to give them the proper instruction, but for no longer than in strictly necessary. In order to fulfill its task, the primary school is called up on to constitute a fluid and fertile channel along which the pupil can move without restraint, gradually acquiring a useful fund of knowledge, experience, habits and skills. UNESCO further explained that, pupil who leaves the system prematurely and irregularly will certainly discourage others from entering it. Those who are confronted with obstacles which they can not overcome in voluntarily become obstacles themselves which will cause others to stumble, leading to bottle necks and possibly to breakdown which are hard to repair. UNESCO called this school failure, which is the most obvious proof of the lack of efficiency and profitability of the educational institutions.

In real depth of the education crisis in Africa, as far as full participation is concerned, lies not so much with enrollment rates as with retention rates. Program with enrollment in itself is not very meaningful if pupils do not attend regularly and stay long enough to benefit from schooling. Also, if there is too much repletion of grades, then resources are being wasted on repeaters instead of being used to encourage access and improve quality. (UNESCO, 1994:54)

To the inefficiency caused by dropping out and repetition, the World Bank (1995:41); and Lockheed and Verspoor (1990:11), called it low completion rates. According to them low completion rates result from high repetition and dropout rates. Repetition and dropouts are closely linked: the first often leads to the second, although their causes are usually different.

Furthermore, to UNESCO (1990:61); and (UNESCO, 1979:181) dropout and repetition are considered as wastage. To them, a special form of educational inefficiency is that described as "Wastage", this normally refers to the effect pupils repeating a grade or dropping out of school. Since both actions increase the number of years of schooling provided relative to the number of graduates produced, such wastage is seen as inefficiency.

Inefficiency in the achievement of educational objectives that may be caused by various factors including the incidents of repetition and dropping out-or their combined effect, particularly at the primary level, may abstract the effort of universalizing primary education. In Hal pen's word, "The quest of universalizing primary education has been hampered by an increasing drop-out and repetition rates or low performance levels". (Helpen; 1986:193)

Inefficiency in student flow is often accompanied by inequality. According to the World Bank (1980:31), Repetition and dropout have a repressive effect on equity in an educational system. The Bank reported that economic profiles of dropouts and repeaters show that these phenomena are most common among students from low socio economic background, significantly, dropouts and repeaters are more prevalent in rural than in urban areas, and more prevalent among females than among males.

Promotion rates, repetition rates dropout rates and transition rates are the indicators used to measure the flow of students from grade to grade and from level to level.

A. Grade Repetition

Repetition refers to the retention in the same grade or level of study once or twice where the normal expectation is either promotion or completion of schooling (Owens 1997:15 and UNESCO, 1980:13). Owens explains that repetition can result from academic failure, insufficient examination marks to advance to the next level of instruction, age and poor attendance.

Brimer and Pauli; (1971:18) defined repetition as a year spent by a pupil in the same grade and doing the same work as in the previous years. A repeater is a pupil who is delayed in the same grade due to his failure to satisfy grade requirements (UNESCO, 1984:1980).

The Extent to which repetition should be regarded as waste is a controversial point. Even though school systems around the world differ widely in their policies toward pupils who fail to master the work appropriate to a particular grade level, in a majority of countries, both developed and developing, educators require such pupils to repeat the grade in order to give them additional time to learn material that they failed to master the time around (Fiske, 1998:17), Repetition is, thus, seen as a remedy for slow learners. The proponents of repetition claim that it is useful in that it remedies in adequate achievement and helps pupils who are emotionally and intellectually immature when they enter school. (World Bank (1988:50), UNESCO, 1985:17)

On the other hand, (World Bank 1988:51), critics on repetition claim that achievement depends principally on non-school factors, that valid tests can not be developed to separate failures from those who are promoted, that repetition does not improve the achievement of slow learners, and the repetition, by calling attention to the repeaters' poor performance, harts their self image and their prospects for future success.

Similarly, Brimer, and. Pauli (1971:116), indicated that repetition is not in it self a cure for the deficiency, which causes a pupil to do unsatisfactory work. According to the

authors, the child who has to repeat a class because of slow learning is not likely to repeat again.

As indicated above, regarding the merits and demerits of repetition, many writers' present different views. Similarly, writers have different views on the two policies of promotion-grade repetition and automatic promotion.

The proponents of automatic promotion agreed that lowering of the pass standard for promotion from grade to grade need not cause a lowering in the attainment level of pupils in the various age groups.

> ***Automatic promotion usually implies that children in each of the different grades in a school do follow a common program, but that wide variation in levels of individual attainment is accepted in each grade. Often, too, some forms of ability grouping are adopted either by the division of class in to sub groups or by constitution each grade level of complete classes differing in their ability level. (Brimer. M.A and L-pauli 1971:116).***

The authors further explained that the term could still refer to the level of achievement reached by an individual, but not to class group he is placed in.

On the other hand, concerning the critics on automatic promotion, the judgment contained in the report of republic of Korea and Malaysia (1986) – Countries which use systems close to automatic promotion' are particularly interesting. Reporting on the 39th session of international conference on education 1986, the Republic of Korea, after acknowledging an insignificant repetition rate, reveals that, when things are looked at from the right prospective, the basic situation is much more complicated and permits many real as well as hidden failures.

> ***The reason (why) it is so difficult to determine an accurate attrition rate is because in most schools non-progressive students --- are promoted to the next grade without having to dropout or to repeat, and in this way the educational wastage is next to impossible to measure. If non progressing students and slow learners are thus educationally neglected, this too can be viewed as a great educational wastage with individual study, the reasons of over crowded class rooms becoming almost impossible, this educational wastage bred from the circumstance of not being able to correct non progressing students is seen as critical (UNESCO, 1986).***

If we look at it from another viewpoint, we can see wastage in mixing students of mediocre ability with those who are gifted without regard to separating gifted students and giving them an appropriate education.

Additionally, UNESCO, (1985:17-18) explained that, to promote pupils automatically is claimed to lower academic standards, to destroy pupils' incentive to learn and teachers' motivation to teach, and to create pedagogical problems in the class by increasing the ability range within each grade. On the Contrary, UNESCO, agree that it is necessary and appropriate to assist pupils with academic or adjustment difficulties. Accordingly, the factors leading to failure and consequent repetition are complex, and it would be wrong to believe that their negative effects on achievement could be eliminated simply by one administrative stroke of the pen where by repetition was abolished in favor of automatic promotion. The real issue, according to UNESCO, (1985), is to design measures that improve the achievement among low achievers.

Proponents of social promotion are more concerned with educational efficiency, whereas, the proponents of grade repetition with educational standards. Their point of departure lies on what should be the primary basis of promotion, the individual or the cohort

(Labret, 1984). As viewed by Labree, Social promotion is criticized for encouraging the decline of standards, as symbol of lack of commitment to pupils achievement, lowering achievement expectations, for having an element of academic dishonesty and disregarding individual difference in ability.

Despite the existence of such controversies, repetition is considered as wastage, by many authors, for the consequence and problems it brings to educational system and particularly to the school. Among the various reasons why repetition is considered as wastage, the major once includes the following.

1. Repetition reduces the intake capacity of a particular grade or school. Since school places are occupied by repeaters, others will not be admitted (UNESCO, 1989:1980); and repetition has been an obstacle for others "coming in" (Phillips, 1974:142), with this, the accessibility of the school for large number of children, who have never got the chance to enroll and "democratization" of educational opportunities will be demolished (Bray, Clarke and Stephen 1986).
2. Repetition also results in over crowding classes, which in addition to increase the cost of education (UNESCO, 1984), results in a declining quality of education, as in the case of Ethiopia (Tekeste, 1990). The link between grade repetition and the quality of education indicates the failure of an educational system in achieving its objectives.
3. Grade repetition is considered as wastage, for it most of the time is followed by pupils' dropping-out (UNESCO, 1984: Brimer and Pauli, 1971) in this case the problem becomes more serious because almost all what has been invested is wasted.

Added to these, repetition since it causes pupils spends additional year in the same grade, there arises the need for additional resources (Chantavanich, Chantavanich and Fry, 1990). The problem of wastage would be serious, in this case, in countries where

resources are limited. This seems the problem of most of developing countries including ours.

i. Patterns of Repetition Rate by Grade.

In Latin America and European countries between 1970 and 1980 repetition rates were higher in the first grade of primary education and lower towards the final grade (UNESCO, 1984). But some study showed the opposite tendency for Africa, and Asia Showing that early years of schooling has been characterized by high incidence of failure and repetition. Brimer and Pauli (1971) reported that great many children failed in the first grade of the primary education cycle. High repetition in the first grade could be explained by an increasing size of enrollment (UNESCO, 1980) and lack of experience of children before they begin formal primary schooling (Riley, 1986).

On the other hand, in some countries and regions highest rates of repetition have been observed on the final grade of primary education (UNESCO, 1980).

High repetition rate at early years of schooling is a serious problem for it may cause pupils' dropping out before they master basic skill of reading and writing and arithmetic. This problem in turn contributes to high rate of illiteracy.

ii. Repetition Rates by Sex

The tendency to repeat classes is higher among girls than among boys. (World Bank (1980:31); Brimer and pauli (1971). Contrary to this, other research findings showed that the level of repetition was higher among boys than among girls. (UNESCO, 1984). The study made between 1970 and 1980 (UNESCO, 1984) has also revealed lower repetition rates among girls than among boys in all countries studied in Latin America, and Europe. The same study has also shown that the percentage of repeaters in the majority of African Countries was higher among girls than among boys.

IB. Drop-out

Drop-out is generally defined as a pupil who leaves school before the end of the final year of the educational stage or cycle in which he/she is enrolled (UNESCO, 1980:13), Brimer and pauli (1971:15) define a drop out "as a pupil who leaves school before the end of the final year of the education stage in which he is enrolled." Accordingly, to drop out before completing the final grade of a given cycle or stage is considered wasteful since the pupil has not achieved the educational objectives of this cycle or stages.

On the other hand, the extent to which drop out should be regarded as wastage (UNESCO, 1985:17-18) will depend on the structures and objectives of each educational system and from which level of education the drop out takes place. UNESCO further explained that from the point of view of the pupil and his or her parents, it would more over depend on the educational attainment they have reached before dropping out. As regards primary education, the main objective at least of the first few grades is to achieve literacy. To the extent such pupil relapse to literacy, one may argue that resources they have consumed are, at best, inefficiently used and, at worst completely wasted. This 'waste' implies that the resources used on dropouts could have been spent on other pupils and that this would some how be more efficient.

In the less developed regions, early drop out is a major problem. Fiske, (1984:14). UNESCO, (1970:182) reported that, out of 100 pupils enrolled in the first year of primary education in 1970, 55 percent of them, dropout before starting the fifth year and if one considers that at least four years schooling are necessary in order to become and to remain literate, only about one-half of the children reach that level. As a dimension of wastage, high drop out rates indicates the decreasing state of pupil survival in schools. Put differently, the drop out problem reflects the failure of the educational system to retain pupils in school for a relatively long period.

The study of survival and dropout rates in primary education of 88 developing countries around 1980, revealed that the average percentage of the cohort-reaching grade four was

only 69 percent (UNESCO, 1984). This is clear evidence for those survival rates are lower in the developing countries. More, Concretely, as indicated above, approximately one-third of the pupils entering the first grade would dropout before completing the fifth grade.

The phenomenon of dropping-out is a severe problem for the individual and the society. The individual will remain with low academic skill and with little or no opportunity to obtain further education. The society, in addition to the foregone national income will face the consequence of the problem on social, economic and cultural spheres. (Roderick, 1993). Thus dropping-out can be considered as a potential wastage of financial and human resources, (Elliot, 1975).

Like in other developing countries, dropping-out has been a major problem in primary education system of Ethiopia. Various research findings show that the problem has been persistent in our educational system since its inception (Haile, 1976) and is more severe in rural schools. Showing the gravity of the drop-out problem in rural Ethiopia, Tedesse (1974) brought to our knowledge that in 1970's about 80-90 percent of pupils dropout before completing the second grade.

i) Drop out Rates by Grade

Various studies show that dropout rates are higher in the first grades of primary education, especially in the developing countries. For example, Brimer and pauli (1971) reported that in thirty-six of the forty-six countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America, the highest dropout rates were observed in the first grade. The Chilean case also reveals that dropout rates were higher in the first two grades (Lery-1965: 306). According to this report 30 percent of the children who entered in the first grade left the school within the first two years. Similarly, according to data of 1997 academic year (Tegene, 1999:108) in Ethiopia, dropout rate is high in grade one.

ii) Dropout rates by sex

Fasil et al (1990) and Hyde (1989) have associated low educational attainment of females with the dropout problem, which is common among girls of developing countries. Dropouts are more prevalent among females than among males (World Bank 1980:31). On the other hand, Brimer and Pauli (1971) reported that dropping out was higher among boys in the urban schools and higher among girls in the rural schools.

2.4. Major Factors Affecting Equitable Access and Efficiency

Why are children out of school? That is, why do some fail to enroll in the first place, and why do some that do enroll fail to complete the primary school cycle? All the available evidence points to a constellation of factors affecting equitable access and efficiency, which will be seen in relation to enrollment, repetition and dropout.

Supply and Demand: - The relationship between educational provision and utilization

Participation rate in schooling is determined not only by educational opportunities that are provided to the people, but the degree of their use. It is unrealistic to assume that if education services are offered, the intended beneficiaries will automatically use it. For some social or economic reasons, some groups may be apathetic towards the education being provided. Carron and Chau (1980:18) states that the dynamics in educational development are difficult to control.

UNESCO, (1995:10), Similarly, explained that simply providing school facilities could not ensure the participation of children. According to UNESCO, there is a need to mobilize demand and create conditions in school and the community that will ensure full participation of children.

Furthermore UNESCO, (1992:10) indicated that expanding access simply by building more schools, relaxing admission policies or instituting quotas, for girls may lead to higher level of female enrollment at the margin, but the measure are not enough where popular demand for girls' education is low. In relation to this, Lulat (1980) has examined the provision of schooling in Tunisia. She argues that, after a certain level of enrollment has been reached, merrily making more school places available will not increase participation among reluctant segment of the population. Islam (1977), in her study of women's education in Bangladesh, found a negative correlation between the existing number of primary schools on one hand, and participation and retention on the other. She concludes from these findings that the existence of primary school in Bangladesh will not improve participation. The supply side incorporates: (UNESCO: 1992:10) Providing more schools, more teachers and more materials, whereas the demand side incorporates economic, cultural, social, political and family conditions.

Broadening access to schools is not just a matter of increasing school places. School participation is an interaction of supply, demand and the learning process. Supply refers both to the availability and quality of school facilities, materials and teachers. Demand is created by the decisions that parents make based largely on the opportunity costs of schooling, but also on the influence of cultural and religious factors. The learning process involves that the experience that child has in school. (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:145).

From the above, discussions it is possible to conclude that, the demand for and supply of education reinforce each other and both sides of the market affects equitable access and efficiency.

Educational supply and educational demand are not consistent across the entire primary school population. Certain groups of children are educationally disadvantaged in virtually all societies; this is reflected in their enrollment, tendency to stay in school (dropout), and educational attainment .

Factors affecting equitable access and efficiency could be categorized in different ways. However, for the purpose of this study, major factors affecting equitable access and efficiency will be summarized under two major categories: - supply side factors and demand side factors: -

2.4.1. Supply-side factors

i. Distance to school

In least developing countries, the long distance children often have to travel to get school is found to limit their participation and achievement in schools. According to some studies, the most determinant of primary school enrollment in rural areas is the proximity of a school to primary school age-Children. (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:146)

The maximum distance that children have to travel from home to school varies from country to country depending on the mean of transportation, physical features of the land, and the age of the children to be served. (UNESCO, 1996:17). Yet it is commonly accepted that in primary education the child should be able to get school in not more than 45 minutes, which is equivalent to some 3 kms on foot on level ground but less in mountainous areas (UNESCO, 1996:17)

Studies have repeatedly demonstrated that distance from school is a critical factor in determining whether or not children especially girls, attend school. (UNESCO, 1992:11, Lockheed and Verspoor, 1990:146). In Nepal, for every kilometer that a child walks to school, the likelihood of attendance drops 2-5 percent. In Egypt 94 percent of the boys and 72 percent of girls enrolled when the school was located within 1 kilometer of their homes. When the school was 2 or more kilometers away, the percentage dropped to 90 and 64 percent, respectively. (Lockheed and Verspoor 1990 147).

In Ethiopia, the findings of Teddese (1974) indicates that long distance between students' home and school was one of the supply side factors affecting students participation in rural areas of Ethiopia.

Even for those children who are already in school (Carron and Chau 1980:144) the distance the children travel is a consideration in their achievement and dropout. A length of travel affects study time, energy for chores at home. Similarly indicating the effect of distance on dropout, Lockheed and Verspoor (1990:146) explained that when children walk to school, families incurs indirect fatigue they feel after making the trip, which leads to pulling out children from schools. Similarly, Caillods and Postlethwaite, (1995:8) has identified the proximity of schools as one of the factors affecting the number of children progress through the various grade levels in school.

ii. Lack of School Facilities

The Presence of enough school facilities allows an increase in enrollment (Baum and Tolbert: 1985) Lack of appropriate teaching and learning materials is likely to affect the performance of students. Specially in the areas where there is lack of furniture in school and where student are required to sit on the floor, parents are probably against sending their children to such schools. (World Bank 1995). In some cultures parents are reluctant to send their daughter to schools because of the lack of separate toilets and common rooms (World Bank 1997:126). Similarly, discussing the effect of school facilities on dropout and repetition, UNESCO (1990:61) reported that, in many nations, repetition and dropout results because enrollment have increased so much that schools are unable to benefit all pupils with its limited facilities.

Schools facilities are one of the factors, which widen the gender gap in enrollment. Coombs (1985:22) explained that even if school tuition is free, school supplies must still be bought aside from which the child's labor at home and in the field must be forgone. The author further explained that if the family can afford to send only two or three of its six or eight children to school, the boys will usually come first. School facilities; appear

to be an important determinant of achievement, and poor achievement is one determinant of drop out and repetition.

iii. Pre School Education

Pre-school education is now seen as an important point of leverage to improve readiness for primary schooling (UNESCO: 1992). Filp etal (1983) also indicated that, pre-school education affects the entrance age in to primary schools. Children who attend kindergarten would be ready for primary education earlier than those who did not would.

The pre school period is crucial in the child's future development. Substantiating this, Bray (1986) appreciates the role played by research and experience to show that the Pre-school period as a crucial stage in shaping the child. As an early intervention, pre school education is designed to prevent failure and early dropout (Bralic, 1983) and to reduce educational wastage (Halpern, 1986). A number of studies carried out in different countries have documented the contribution of pre-school education in reducing and preventing failure latter in primary education. (Bray, 1986, Filp etal, 1983)

Pre school education, is viewed as a promising investment made in human resources to reduce the phenomena of wastage (Myers, 1983) or by improving school survival rate and redressing performance variation Caused by economic difference. (Halpern, 1986).

IV) Teachers

Schools cannot operate with out teachers, and shortage of teachers is common in rural areas. (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:155). It is obvious that teachers play one of the most important roles in the full development of the individual child. Different studies indicate that teachers' attitudes, their behavior and teaching methods are among the factors affecting children's persistence and academic achievement. Increasing the supply of female teachers is an important strategy for increasing the access of girls to schools. (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:156).

On the other hand, Odaga and Heneveld (1995:3) pointed out that teacher's attitude towards girls achievement in a class are a reflection of the broader societal biases about the role of Women in society and academic capacity of girls. According to FAWE (1996:12) teacher regard girls are least able to learn and perform in a class than boys and may use physical punishment to enforce learning, which promotes fear of school. This may also result in early dropout from schools in rural areas.

When a girl is enrolled in school, a number of other factors come in to play that will determine whether she stays in school and how she performs there. The teachers, other pupils and the organization of the school may all influence the pupil's progress and performance (UNESCO 1992:15).

According to the classroom observation Conducted in Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania and Rwanda, it is found out that teachers pay more attention to boys than girls do. (Kinyanjui, 1993 in odega and Henveveld, 1995). Thus girls are not willing to learn, particularly in Coeducational institutions since they are often discriminated by teachers who perceive that they are incompetent. (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:149)

2.4.2. Demand Side Factors

I. Socio-Economic Factors

A). House Hold Income

The intensity of the demand for schooling is a function of the Socio-economic environment in which families live. In deprived areas, creating schools does not guarantee that children will attend them. Parents in rural areas with low household income and socio economic background face problems in sending their children to schools. The increasing cost of schooling coupled with low household income is found

to be the major reason why parents do not send children particularly girls to schools or remove them from schools. (Rajput, 1996:31).

In most developing countries, children of poor families have less chance to enroll in school and more probability to dropout than children of well to do families. (Anderson 1988 in Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:150).

World Bank (1997:114), Similarly indicated that children of poor families are less likely to be enrolled in school than children of better of families. According to the Bank, in 15 states surveyed by the National Council of Applied Economic Research (NCAER) the poverty gap in enrollment is 25-percentage point. The poverty gap in enrollment is larger in rural than in urban areas. Similarly, (Evans, 1981, Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:50) study results from India, Nepal and Cote, Ivory shows that in the richest families the rate of enrollment exceeded those of the poorest by 50 to 100 percent.

The high opportunity and incidental costs of schooling are a burden, which many poor rural parents simply cannot shoulder. In Islam's (1977) study, 90 percent of the parents of non-enrolled children stated that they could not afford to send them to school: other costs entailed in school participation relate to the many household tasks and activities, which girls carry out.

Female enrollment rates are also lower among poor households especially in rural areas. Wang (1980) has found that the socio economic status of parents in Malaysia has more influence up on the participation of girls than of boys. Weeks (1976) have also shown that girls in Papua New Guanine Schools came from high status home than do boys.

Children of poor households also are more likely to drop out of school. The dropout rates for these children was on average four times higher than it was for children from more affluent households. This gap too is larger in rural areas than in urban areas (World Bank 1997:114). Robinson and others (1984), Lockheed and Verspoor (1991:152) indicated that in Egypt and Nigeria, parents' inability to cover the costs of schooling are said to be

reasons why most students drop out of schools. Examining the reasons for dropping out among children of age 6-14, NCAER (1994) found that 68% of boys and 56% of girls reported dropping out for financial reasons. (World Bank 1997:77)

Even in countries where primary education in free, household educational opportunities can be unaffordable to rural people. When decisions have to be made --- as a result of financial constraints, girls are more likely to be affected and with draw from schools than boys. (Odag and Heneveld: 1995, 16-17).

In Ethiopia, similarly, economic problems of households and Low economic status have been suggested to be important factors for the inability of parents to send their children to school (Anbessu and Junge, 1988).

Family socio economic background has been known as an important factor affecting pupil's school progress. Various studies have shown that there is a strong positive relationship between socio economic status and pupils' progress in academic status. (UNESCO, 1980; Stevens on and parker, 1987, Rosi: 1961). Similarly, Simmons and Alexander (1980) and Fasi letal (1975) have noted the effect of family background on pupils' school performance. According to Fasil et,al (1975) about 10 to 25 percent of the variation in achievement scores among pupils is the function of family socio-economic differences, that can be measured by education, economic and Occupational level attained.

The typical situation in many developing countries is reflected in the report presented by Bangladesh On 39th session of international conference on education, in 1986.

> *Manifold Socio-economic hindrances stand against implementation of universal primary education as well as compulsory primary education. Most of the children and young boys and girls of Bangladesh are poor. They can hardly afford to go to primary school leaving their parents*

working in the agricultural field as well as other vocations. (UNESCO, 1986:215).

Family economic status is, to a large extent, related to the ability of parents to support their children's education. Family supports both material and attitudinal is one of the most important factors affecting pupils' progress in school. (Scott and welberg, 1970). Economically better of parents are able to provide their children with the necessary learning facilities and attach higher value to the education of their children.

B. Child Labor

Child labor is the major source of survival and one of the reasons for low participation of rural girls in schools. In rural areas, it has been observed that girls spend a considerable amount of their time and energy working in the house hold and informal sector, while the importance of the child labor for agricultural domestic and Marketing tasks has been well documented, when it comes to child care, girls are more likely to be involved than boys. (Odaya and Heneneld 1995:17).

According to the World Bank (1997:124), also affecting household decisions on schooling is the opportunity cost of children's time: which appears to be highest for girls: Survey suggests that girls spend 15-30 percent more time working than do boys. Nayar and Nuna (1974) also reported that the principal reasons given by household members for girls not enrolling India, were the girls responsibility for domestic work.

Mc Sweeney and Freedman (1980) show that the workload of girls and women in Upper Volta, for example is so great that females have litter time to pursue education. Wang (1977) supports this observation with data from Bangladesh, and States.

> *"The most common, but least acknowledged phenomenon behind the non- attendance of village girls is the fact that they are indispensable household assets to a traditional*

large family, compared to boys, girls start work earlier as family help".

In most of the developing countries, girls constitute an important labor force both in the family and production. Different research findings from Tanzania, Burkina Faso, Ghana, and India show that girls are the major sources of labor in the household to fetch water, fetch fuel on the form of firewood, dried animal dung or crop residues, help to prepare food, looking after younger children. In the work force they help with weeding, holing, with handcrafts production, and with trade. They are engaged in these activities from an early age, some times as young as- six (Jabber 1987:23, Rogers 1980:153, Kelly:1987:78).

Studies conducted by Zewde and Barbara, (1990), Dejene (1989), and IDS, (1996), in rural Ethiopia, indicate that women spend at least 15 hours a day working where the largest amount of time is spent on activities required to feed the family, grinding, fetching water and fire wood. Thus opportunity costs of girls' time have been shown to be a reason for girls not attending school in Ethiopia. (Anbassu and Junge 1988).

The demand for child labor by the family has also an effect on school drop out and repetition. As mentioned in Brown G. (1996:153), in rural areas it is a common practice to withdraw children from school for the harvest season, because all hands are needed to pick up crops. Similarly Cole. M. etal (1997:50) indicate that children who might have attended school in better times are kept out or pulled out because they are needed to work at home.

The principal reasons for girls' dropping out are very similar to those for their not enrolling. According to the world Bank (1997:124) the main reason for girls for dropping out were domestic work, including assisting with household economic production and caring for siblings. The causes for dropping out given by different countries on the 39thsession of international conference on education 1986 are very similar, Colombia's report is typical.

> *Dropping out is caused by various socio-economic factors: Mainly the need for children to contribute their labor to the family income from an early age. (UNESCO, 1986:231).*

According to UNESCO, 1986 Chinas reports that it also suffers from the problem, and give the same reason for dropping out.

> *The existence of some dropouts and floaters of pupils reflect the fact that primary education has not been universalized in many rural areas. The reasons are multifold. Some families in the countryside need seasonable helping hands. (UNESCO, 1986:231).*

C. Parents Educational Level

As a socio economic variable, the educational level of parents is assumed to have a significant contribution to pupil's access, success or failure in schools. Hetlan and Abel (1984) explained that children of educated parents have the best chance of access to schooling and of completing it. Similarly, UNESCO (1979:182) pointed out that the influence of social class based on the profession and educational standard of parents is all the stronger in that the level of education is higher, the chance of access to schooling and completing it is higher for their children.

In Nigeria and Senegal the child of an executive in the public or private sector have thirty times more chance of going to secondary education in Niger 20 times more in Senegal, than the child of the farmer. (UNESCO, 19 79:182).

The basic assumption related to the educational level of parents is that well educated parents involve more in school affairs and encourage their children better than less educated parents Elaborating this point (Brimer and Pauli. 1971:96), Where parents have

not themselves been to school, and remain illiterate there is no basis on which the school can anticipate any understanding of its aims or activities. The lack of parental support and understanding, according to the authors, of what he is doing places the child in two segregated Worlds between which he must choose at certain critical point. With better participation of parents in their children's education and school affairs, it is believed that both pupils' performance would be better and school efficiency would be higher. Parents who are illiterate do not actively participate in school affairs no do they understand school objectives. Thus, there will be little or no support provided for the child. If the family support is very low, the child will likely fail or drop out of school.

II. Socio-Cultural Factors

Some researchers, have argued that children participation in schooling depends on cultural and religious beliefs of the society (Elliof, and Kelly 1980). The most fundamental one for understanding the underlying causes of sex disparity in education, (Combs:1985:228).is that these disparities grow primarily out of the traditional culture, customs and taboos of each particular society.

The socio-cultural customs and beliefs influence the decision to enroll children to withdraw them from schools, their performance and their grade level attainment. Some of these socio cultural factors assumed to affect children participation, dropout and repetition rates are discussed here under.

A. Parental Attitudes Towards Education

Behavioral differences springs from attitudinal difference. The parents' attitude towards schooling probably had its foundation in their own experiences and as parents they have a little hope the school benefiting their children but regard it as a means of taking children out of their hands at the time of greatest inconvenience. (Brimer and Pauli 1971:92).

Attitudes for female roles in the family and marriage also affect access to and achievement in school. A survey of Women in Lome', Togo (Brown, B. 1980:60) found that families were reluctant to keep girls at school on the grounds that it was a waste of money, since when they got married they moved out to their parents' household. In most areas where wives move to their husband's family home when they marry, this is undoubtedly a consideration.

Societal attitudes towards girl's education vary from community to community. Some Communities and parents hold a negative view of educated girls. Studies done in Chad, for instance, indicate that some parents believe that schools tend to push girls to prostitution and difficult to control by parents. (Bell et,al:1993 in Odaga and Heneueld, 1995). The findings by Commish and Brock (1994) in certain areas of Cameroon also indicate that educated girls are seen as too independent and demanding and like to challenge the traditional roles expected of them during marriage.

Historically, in all societies living closer to the survival level, male infants were valued more highly than female infants. This was basically for economic and security reasons, which then become sanctified by the social and religious mores and expressed in different sex roles and dependency relationships, and in family and community power structure. Male babies are seen as future breadwinners and old age insurance policies for their parents. In circumstances where there is not enough food to go around, (Coombs 1985:228) female babies are often seen as just another mouth to feed. They will eventually get married, leave home, and raise their own children until then they will play a useful role in caring for their younger Siblings and performing other household duties that will prepare them for their eventual role as wife, mother and provider – but in their husband's home and family.

It is natural, indeed, logical, in this context for these sex attitudes to carry over in to education. If there is a local school to go to, boys will get first priority. Even if more schools are established in backward areas, the opportunity to take advantage of them will be rationed by poor families and communities in favor of male children.

In a survey in rural India 50 percent of mothers said that sons should receive as much education "as they want". The difference is linked to the way parent's value education for their children. Gender difference in schooling often driven from differences in household investment decisions. In India, families often prefer to invest in the education of sons. Since the returns to this investment in a daughter's education will typically flow to her husband's family (World Bank 1997:125).

ii) Religion

The social practice of various communities responds differently according to their socio-cultural traditions. The cultural differences can also be derived from religion, and therefore, the response of various religious communities to education also varies.

While discussing the response of different religion to education, Chanan, K. (1988:110) explained that Christians did better than Muslim's because in Comparison to Muslim, they were not regret in their social customs. The same author further explained that the Muslim Community is slower than others in recognizing the need are and values of modern education especially for women because of their loyalty in traditional learning and religion are. Muslims were governed by narrow perspective of the social role of women.

Similarly, Coombs (1985:226) noted that parents in Muslim area were reluctant to send their daughters to schools. Similarly. Bowman and Anderson (1980:26) stated that the rate of enrollment of females was found to be very low in areas where Muslims lived.

While the Christian Missionaries were motivated to introduce education with the ultimate aim of Proseltisation the Muslim leaders, on the other hand hoped to reform society by ameliorating the position of women. Muslims has the idea of an education within the Islamic framework in mind. Muslims prefer to send their children to Maktabs, them to

medium schools because they see modern schools as Christian managed schools. (Chanan K. 1988:120).

2.5. Strategies to attain basic education

Providing equitable access to primary education and ensuing that children who are in school complete the whaled cycle are still a serious challenges for all the developing countries. Success or failure in attaining basic education will depend ultimately on the actions taken within individual countries.

As factors affecting equitable access and efficiency are related to demand and supply, policies for promoting equitable access and efficiency must also address supply-side interventions and demand-side interventions, which will be discussed below.

2.5.1. Supply-side Interventions

A first step in increasing access to primary school is to address the supply of schools, classrooms and teachers.

Lockheed and Verspoor (1991:154), explained that to push to expand access to schooling by increasing the supply of school places has dominated the agenda for education development since the 1960s, and enrollment has increased impressively since, then, but access to education is still limited, and certain groups of children are completely excluded, especially in low income countries. The authors further explained that efforts to increase supply must continue and should seek creative approaches for extending access and improving efficiency to the disadvantaged groups.

i) School Location planning

An obvious means of increasing enrollment is to bring schools closer to communities that lack facilities. Just as obvious, however are resource constraints are, the number of schools that can be built, so it makes sense to determine where they are most needed.

School location planning determines the distribution, size and spacing of schools and, where possible, the kind of education and related facilities to be provided based on an inventory and analysis of demographic, geographic, social, and economic data: its success depends on the participation of local authorities. Because it assumes the equitable and efficient distribution of resources across the country, its benefits are national as well as local. (World Bank 1980:27, Baum and Tolbert 1985:129).

Lockheed and Verspoor (1991:154-155), Similarly explained that, building more schools is an obvious and necessary means to increase the number of school places. Yet, according to the authors, the persistent disparity in school attendance among groups of children means that the location of new schools should be carefully mapped before construction begins. Since distance is a significant factor determining school attendance particularly for girls and rural children, the authors further explained, a trade off exists between building large schools that benefits from economies of scale but are hard to reach and small schools that are accessible but possibly more expensive.

Policies for expanding an educational system equitably can be implemented efficiently through school location planning. Location for new schools for example, may be selected on the basis of basic education need: that is, for the most rapid stimulation of interest and participation in education among populations that have scarcely been touched by development. (World Bank 1980:27). According to the Bank, Construction policies can also significantly affect the ability of a country to expand educational facilities rapidly. For example, while minimum standards should be meet and maintenance costs considered, the advantage of cheaper school designs that are also replicable must not be ignored.

Similarly, Lockheed and Verspoor (1991:154-155) explained that, school construction is not cheap and may require more resources than many countries can afforded. Yet, according to the authors, many countries should develop and use new school designs that meet minimum standards but are much less expensive than those typically used. The authors, further pointed out that, greater reliance on local materials could reduce the cost of school construction substantially. In Niger, (World Bank 1988:50) for example, a classroom made of concrete costs five times more than one made of banco, the most common construction material in rural areas.

ii) In Creasing the Number of Female Teachers

Lockheed and Versppoor (1991:55), further explained that increasing the supply of female's teachers is an important strategy for increasing the access of girls to schools. An increase in the numbers of female teachers is desirable for a range of reasons (Asmarv Birhanu 1998), World Bank, 1988 UNESCO, 1997), but particularly since female teachers are often the only women in position of authority in rural areas who are able to act as role models their presence is likely to encourage parents to send their children to school, both because they see opportunities for their daughters outside the household, and because of the increased sense of security for girls when female teachers are present. Additionally, World Bank (1980:34) explained that women teachers are often better satisfied with their profession than are their male counterparts.

In order to overcome negative influences of teachers' attitudes, it is necessary to give gender awareness training to avoid cultural and social biases in school Genders awareness training should also be provided to officials at different levels, for example Worked and Zonal Officials, since they have an influence over policy implementation. (Asmaru Berihun 1998).

iii) Use of Available Space

The creation of student space for expansion involves high capital costs. It is, therefore, important to maximize the use of available facilities before adding new places to serve the same area. In addition to increasing the size of a class to reflect the norms for which facilities were planned, intensive rotation and staggered scheduling of classes will optimize the utilization of teachers, use of classrooms and facilities (World Bank 1980:39). In many cases (Lockhed and Verspoor 1991) using available buildings such as churches, mosques and community centers as schools is feasible and cost effective. Building centuries is another strategy that might increase enrollment, particularly of girls (World Bank 1997).

a) Multiple Shift

In areas of high population density, double shifts can increase the use of facilities and, possibly, improve the effective teacher /student ratio without a commensurate increase in cost. (World Bank 1980:39).

Multiple shift both increase enrollment and reduce unit cost. By organizing classes in to separate sessions and having teachers share facilities (classrooms, desk, text and equipment), a multiple shift can accommodate double or some times triple the number of students that a single shift system can, as well as reduce certain capital and teacher costs. (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:156). In most cases, according to the authors, multiple shift also make more working hours available to child laborers, thus benefiting poor children. Multiple shift system can also reduce overcrowding in urban classrooms. The authors, further explained that, a short school day might be more welcome in rural areas where the opportunity costs associated with school attendance are generally higher than they are in urban areas.

b) Multi-grade Classes:-

In areas of low population density where pupils within an acceptable range of distance from school are not numerous enough to fill individual classes, student /teacher ratios and the use of space can be significantly improved by structural changes, multigrade teaching, and the nuclear satellite school networks are important (World Bank 1980:40). Multigrade classes, in which one person teaches children of different ages and grades grouped in one room, improve access in rural communities. Multigrade teaching addresses the problem of uneconomically small classes as well as that of incomplete schools. (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:158).

iv) Creating Partnership

Creating Partnership between government and NGOs, the business communities, religious groups, parents and community remains an important education for all objectives. It is hopped that such partnership will relieve pressure on the government budget by mobilizing additional financial and material resources, and will improve education quality and relevance. UNESCO (1995:86), has explained that in planning basic education and creating a supportive policy environment, there should be opportunities to bring together the actual or potential partners involved in meeting basic learning needs: family and community, Voluntary associations, religious bodies, teachers union, other professional groups, employees, the media, political parties, cooperatives, Universities and other institutions, as well as educational authorities and other government department and services.

Because basic learning needs are complex and diverse, meeting them requires multi-sectorial strategies and actions, which are integral to overall development efforts. Many partners must join with the education authorities, teachers and other educational personnel in developing basic education if it is to be seen as the responsibility of the entire population (UNESCO (1990:4). In line with this, one of the most important recommendations of the Jomtien Declaration is that "New and revitalized partnership at

all levels "should be built in order to achieve Education for all. The call for more involvement of parents, communities, NGO's, and teachers in the implementation of education programms is at the heart of the expanded vision of basic education and constitutes a great challenge for educational planners and administrators. In sum this implies the need for active involvement of a wide range of partners: families, teachers, communities private enterprise, government and non-government Organizations, institutions --- etc in planning, managing and evaluating the many forms of basic education.

V) School – Community Interaction

Community involvement in educational activities is considered as an effective tool for enhancing the demand for primary education and for articulating an acceptable mechanism for monitoring the functioning of primary schools.

The efficiency of an educational system is un imaginable with out an interaction to other systems around it. The relationship between the school and the community can be considered as one of the measures of school efficiency. (Chantavanich, 1990).

Communities and village leaders in particular, can play a helpful role in increasing enrollment. In Philippines, village leaders assisted school officials with house-to-house Campaigns and in authenticating the age of children. In Cambodia, as port of the cluster project, parents participate in the process of surveying their community to find out the number of school-age children and why some are not enrolled. (UNESCO, 1995:93). This is obviously not the only reason why communities should be involved in education. UNESCO, further explained that, it is necessary to mobilize communities to support and sustain increase in primary school enrollment particularly among girls, & to increase the demand for and interest in education, by bringing about changes in educational values and public understanding.

The effect of increasing efficiency (minimizing repetition and dropout) as many researchers believe requires partnership among pupils, teachers and the community at large. Substantiating this, Kina (1988) Suggests that the work of the teacher always requires the support of the community. Other researchers like Edmonds (1979), Scott and Welberg. (1979), also contend that the effort to make schools, particularly primary schools, efficient needs the joint venture of all in school and out of school communities. They suggest pupils counseling should not be left only for teachers and school personnel. Community participation does not only raise pupils' performance but also increases the survival capacity of each individual pupil.

Further more, UNESCO, (1995:93) has differentiated different types of community involvement. Accordingly, community can participate by donating land to setup schools, they support school repairs and classroom improvement, they give incentives to teachers in the form of housing or food, or most often they are responsible for constructing their school, contributes financially and communities can participate in identifying non-enrolled children.

In many developing countries, community participation is very weak as it is in many cases limited to demanding contributions while not allowing communities of participate in decision making (UNESCO, 1995:74)

2.5.2. Demand-Side Interventions

Strategies to mobilize demand are as important as, if not more important than, strategies to increase supply of school places. As discussed earlier, the social, economic and cultural factors have a powerful, adverse effect on the demand for schooling special factors are needed to address those constraints.

i) Community Sensitization /Awareness/

Increasing the demand for education depends largely on persuading parents that education is valuable (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:166). The authors also pointed out that parents should also be involved in schooling: When parents are active in educational process, their children are more likely to attend school. According to the authors, efforts to sensitize and mobilize community takes many forms establishing parent teacher associations, holding school open days, involving the community in building schools, and broad casting radio and television programs that highlights the positive aspects of schooling.

ii) Improving the Quality of Education

One of the most significant ways to increase demand is to improve the quality of education (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:166). Baum and Tolbert (1985:129), UNESCO, 1995:10), similarly indicated that the poor quality of schools invariably places a limit on their efficiency and thus on their capacity to attract and to retain children for the complete cycle of basic education. Thus, improving the quality of schooling to increase demand for it is the most important demand-side intervention for retaining children in school. According to the World Bank (1997:72) improving school quality can also make the flow of students more efficient; research in Brazil, according to the Bank, found that students with higher levels of learning were more likely to be promoted on time than those with lower levels of learning. The Bank further explained that, by improving the flow of students, resources that would otherwise be spent on students who repeat can be spent to improve school quality and expand access.

iii) Adapting Educational Services to Local Needs.

Overcoming the barriers that separate deprived groups from school also implies adopting basic education to the needs of local population. When cultural barriers stand in the way of participation in basic education, which may be the case with ethinic and cultural

minorities who do not identify themselves with the objectives and content of the educational programme, the national curriculum may have to be modified and complemented with materials relevant to local cultures and life, (Rojput 1996:34). The author further explained that relevance is also enhanced by taking in to account the local needs for knowledge as well as skills for improving health, welfare and living conditions. In relation to this Nyerere (1968), in March 1989 has explained that each level of education should be terminal, that is, complete in itself and a preparation to work, especially work in the rural areas where the majority of the people live.

> *We should not determine the type of things children are taught in primary schools by the things a doctor, engineer, teacher, economist, or administrator need to know. Most of our pupils will never be any of these things. We should determine the type of things taught in the primary schools by the things which the boy or girl ought to know-that is, the skills he ought to cecquire and the values he ought to cherish if he, orshe, is to live happily and well in a --- and predominantly rural society and contribute to the improvement of life there. Our sights must be on the majority: it is they we must be among at in determining the curriculum and syllabus (Nyerere 1968:63, March 1984:63).*

The important issue to be considered in this respect is to combine local relevance of the curriculum with a common core of learning needs considered to be necessary for all children in the country in order to avoid any form of duality within the system.

iv) Reducing Direct Cost

The most obvious way to increaser the demand for education is to reduce the direct cost of sending children to school. (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:164). The authors further explained that in light of the importance of primary education for development public primary education should avoid enrollment fees. Fees discourage parents from sending their children particularly daughters to school. according to the authors, they obstruct

social equity and prevent equalization of the marginal social costs and benefits of primary school enrollment, thus creating inefficiencies.

Lockheed and Verspoor (1991:174), indicated that in lieu of charging school fees, education system should concentrate on the financing strategies, a. using existing resource more cost effectively; b. expanding and diversifying their source of funding; and c. redistributing the financial burden more equitable among the population Developing countries vary in the degree of their reliance on local finance and in their methods of mobilizing local resources. As explained in Lockheed and Verspoor (1991:190) some countries rely heavily on financing primary education locally; others raise meager amounts of local funds. Some use equitable and efficient methods; many do not. Winkler (1989), quoted in Lockheed and Verspoor (1991) and Baum and Tolbert (1985) indicated that policy makers fear that inequality in educational opportunities will worsen as the reliance on local funding increases. Thus, according to Lockheed and Verspoor (1991:197) to improve the local financing of education, governments must carefully choose the means they use to mobilize local resources. Fund raising strategies should be both fair and economically neutral, which implies that they should not discourage primary school enrollment or the use of educational materials in schools.

v) Reducing indirect Costs

Reducing indirect cost is often as important as reducing direct costs. World Bank (1997:63) explained that the timing of school year in many countries does not take into account agricultural cycles, which limits attendance in rural areas. According to the Bank revising the school year to accommodate the seasonal demands for child labor on the tarms and in the field is a relatively painless and inexpensive solution. The school day may also be changed to accommodate daily work schedules by instituting multiple shifts or providing classes early in the morning or in the evening. (UNESCO, 1995, Lockheed and Verspoor 1991). This indicates flexible scheduling is a key strategy especially, for improving the schooling of girls and rural children.

Labor saving technologies are important for alleviating the significant time constraints that keep poor working children, especially rural girls from attending school. (UNESCO, 1995). Another strategy (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991) is to establish preschools close to primary schools, which not only increase the attendance of girls in primary schools, but also benefits the education of younger siblings.

More flexibility may also be needed in the way schools are structured and organized. The familiar primary school with its standard duration, sequence, age-structure and pedagogical techniques need not be the only Vehicle to basic education. Rajput (1996:35), World Bank (1997,) UNESCO, (1995), Lockheed and Verspoor (1991) indicated, similarly, Variation of the standard model incorporating elements of the non-formal approach have proved to be effective, particularly for sections of the population out side the main stream of society. Examples of such hybridization include, flexible daily hours and annual calendars of schools, satellite school centers, combining productive work and learning. These approaches are often low cost or capable of using available resources efficiently.

SUMMARY

The concept basic education has a long history and has been given many different meanings overtime. Whatever the varying connotations of basic education in the past, the term has gained wide currency in recent years in educational parlance as a short – hand description for a basic or foundation of learning for all citizens consisting of basic learning tools of reading, writing and numeracy as well as basic knowledge and skills for life.

The comprehensive approach to development underlines the significance of basic education in three interrelated ways. As a basic human right, as a basic need as a means of meeting other basic needs and as activity that sustains and accelerates over all development.

In many countries in developing world, education system are unable to meet their objectives. First they do not teach children already in school and make them complete the cycle, second ,they do not provide all school-age children, particularly girls, with the opportunity to attend school.

Enabling all children to complete primary education of good quality in a central goal and many countries education policy. The speed with which it can be achieved will be determined by the success of the countries in over coming the challenges of education development related to the issues of access ,equity ,efficiency and quality.

Broadening access to school is not juist a matter of increasing the number of school places school participation is an interaction of supply,demand and learning process. Supply refers to both the availability of school facilities, materials and teachers. Demand is created by the decisions that parents make based largely on the opportunity costs of schooling, but also on the influence of cultural and religious factors.

Educational inequality is a relative concept that should be measured in terms of service share that a certain section receives out of the rational supply. Greater equality of education opportunity will lead to a greater development of potential, human resources and will in the long run have a perceptible influence on the level of economic well being. The issue of education inequality whether looked at regional, gender or urban-rural terms simply can not be understood except in the socio-economic context in which the school function.

Establishing educational infrastructures that provides access to good education for all students is made more expensive by inefficiencies in the flow of students, which are caused by dropout and repetition. When children drop out after only one or two years of schooling, public resources are wasted because most retain little of what they learned in such a short time. When children repeat grades extra resources are requited for them to complete primary school cycle.

Lack of equitable access and inefficiency in the achievement of educational objectives that may be caused by various factors including the incidents of repletion and dropping out or their combined effect; abstract the effort of universalizing primary education.

CHAPTER THREE

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This part of the study deals with the presentation and analysis of data gathered from document, questionnaire administered to regional education bureau officials and interview with officials in the MOE and regional education bureau.

3.1. Accessibility and Educational Coverage.

3.1.1. Accessibility

The indicators of access to education system are those that relate the number of new entrants to first grade of a certain level to the corresponding population of school. Admission rates measures the extent to which children have got access to primary level of education (Johnston 1981). To know the magnitude of children coming to school for the first time, there are two indicators. The apparent intake rate and the net intake rate. The apparent intake rate compares the total number of new entrants to first grade of primary with population of 7 years old. This is a rough measure of access to the first grade because there are averaged and under aged new interants in grade 1. This rate can be over 100 percent depending on the number of over aged and under aged children to grade 1. The net intake rate compares pupil in grade 1 who are 7 years old with total 7 years old population. It measures the extent of access of the population of school admission age. In theory, the net intake rate is preferable to the apparent intake rate but in our case, where the percentage of over aged children is high, it is better to use the apparent intake rate.

$$AIR = \frac{\text{New Entrants to Grade 1 (All age)}}{\text{Population of the Official School Admission Age}} \times 100$$

$$NIR = \frac{\text{New entrants of the official school admission age}}{\text{Population of the official school admission age}} \times 100$$

Table 1. Trends of new students admitted to grade one 1995/96 to 1999/2000

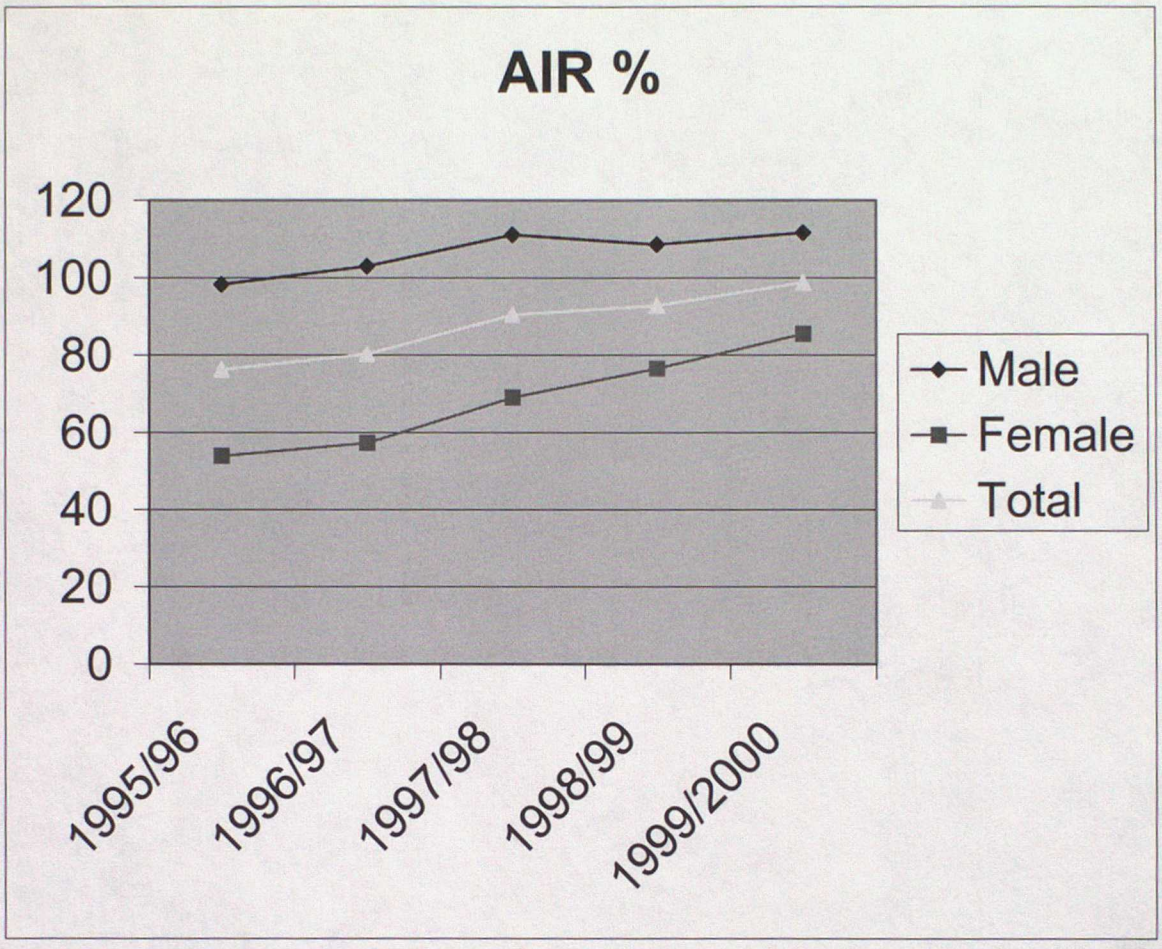
Year	Sex	[1]population of age 7	[1]New entrant of all age	[1]New entrants of age 7	[2]AIR %	[2]NIR %
1995/96	M	867590	852141	157828	98.3	18.19
	F	854175	460400	112785	53.9	13.20
	T	1721765	1313241	270613	76.3	15.7
1996/97	M	887612	914383	203443	103.01	22.92
	F	873083	500491	145680	57.26	16.67
	T	1761595	1414874	349123	80.31	19.8
1997/98	M	832082	925275	200532	111.2	24.1
	F	505819	556821	149077	69.1	18.5
	T	1637901	1482096	349609	90.5	21.4
1998/99	M	840799	9139491	224493	108.7	26.7
	F	812752	622568	178805	76.6	22.0
	T	1653551	1536517	403298	92.9	24.4
1999/2000	M	848285	947317	280078	111.7	33
	F	822110	704462	231318	85.6	28.1
	T	1670395	1651779	511396	98.8	30.6

Source:- [1]Educational Statistics Annual Abstract, MOE, 1995/96 - 1999/2000

[2]Calculated from the data by the author.

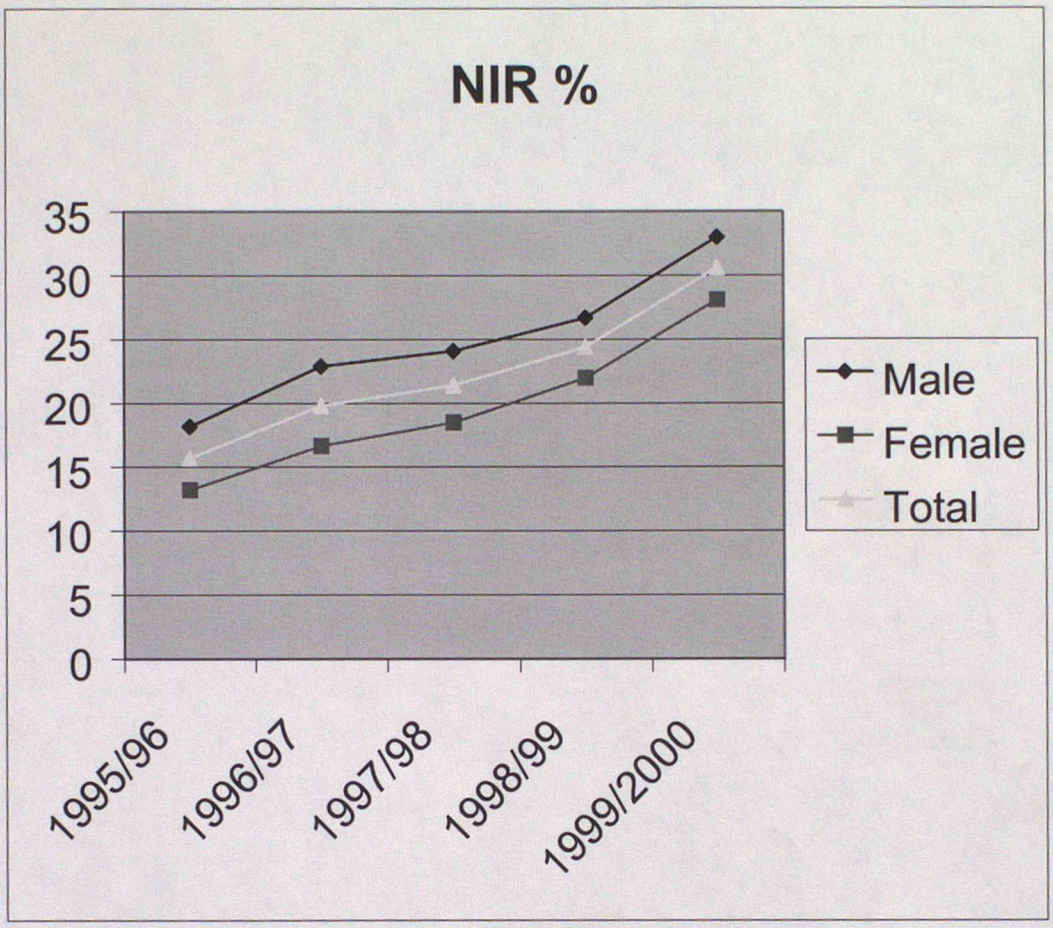
As can be seen from Table 1, for the years 1995/96 to 1999/2000, the total apparent intake rate has grown from 76.3% to 98.8 percent. For the period under consideration the apparent intake rate for male and females has increased from 98.3 to 111.7 and from 53.9 to 85.6 percent respectively. This shows that the AIR for females has increased by 37.2 percent and that of males has increased by 23%. The gap between the male and female apparent in take rate has grown from 44.4 percent to 47.5 percent 1996/97. But the gap was reduced to 42.1 percent in 1997/98 and to 29.1 percent in 1999/2000. In the five years period, the number of new entrants of all age to grade one shows an average annual growth rate of 5.9 percent (2.66% males, 11.2 percent female). In general girls school attendance is rising, but the gender gap persists.

Figure 1: Apparent in take rate for boys and girls 1995/96 to 1999/2000



The net intake rate gives a better picture of access than the apparent intake rate when we consider children of the right entrance age. For the years 1995/96 to 1999/2000 the total net intake rate has grown from 15.7 percent to 30.6 percent. During this period the net intake rate for males and females has increased from 18.19 to 33 and from 13.20 to 28.1 percent. This indicates the difference in increase for males and females is insignificant. The gender gap in NIR, which was 4.99 in 1995/96, was reduced to 4.90 percent in 1999/2000, showing insignificant reduction of gap (0.09%).

Figure 2: Net in Take Rate for Boys and Girls 1995/96 to 1999/2000.



When the AIR and NIR are compared, obviously the NIR is much lower than the AIR. This is because the number of over aged children in grade one outnumbers the number of 7 years old. How ever, the policy does not limit entrance to grade 1, only to those who are 7 years old.

3.1.2. Coverage

Enrollment ratios are used to measure the extent of coverage of an educational program. Gross enrollment ratios are the most commonly used indicator of participation in education. This ratio relates enrollment to the population eligible to participate in education and it is used for assessing how far the educational system has succeeded in bringing to school all those who have the right to attend.

Table 2. Trends in enrollment and participation rate for primary education (1-8) 1995/96 - 1999/2000.

Years	1 School age population 7-14			2 Enrollment			3 GER			3 Gender Gap
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	
1995/96	6461558	6116931	12578489	2394424	1393495	3787919	36.6	22.7	30.1	13.7
1996/97	6612515	6261510	12874025	2842391	1625903	4468294	43.0	26.0	34.7	17
1997/98	6231002	6020570	12251572	3224065	1866605	5090670	52.0	31.2	41.8	20.8
1998/99	6335338	6110850	12446188	3544323	2157910	5702233	55.9	35.3	45.8	20.6
1999/2000	6447810	6235775	12683585	3927270	2535233	6462503	60.9	40.7	51.0	20.2

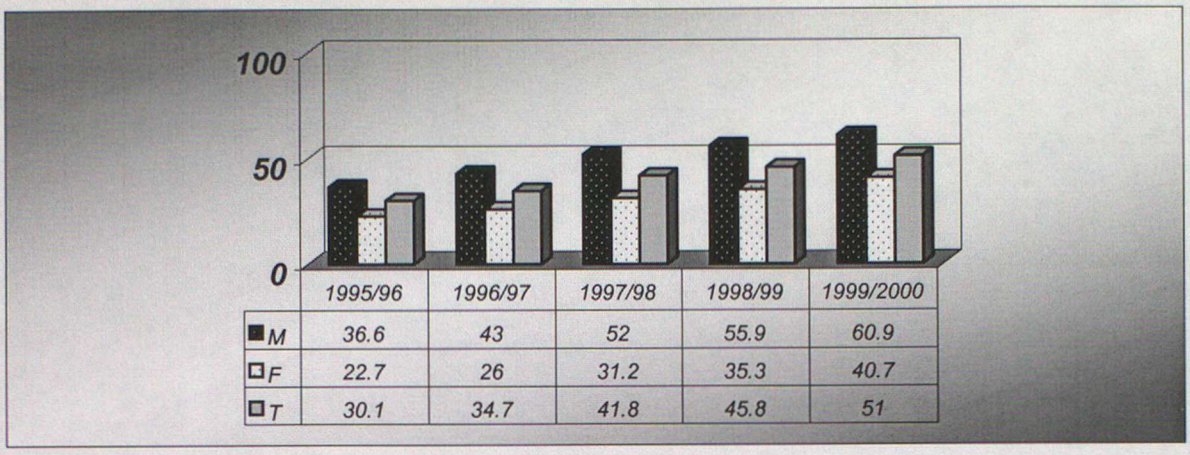
Source 1. Central statistical authority

2. Educational statistics annual abstract EMIS MOE 1995/96 - 1999/2000.

3. Calculated by the author.

Table 2 and figure 3 shows participation rate in primary for the last five years. Participation rate in primary increased from 30.1 percent in 1995/96 to 51% in 1999/2000. In the years under consideration, the male and female participation rate has increased from 36.6 percent to 60.9 percent and from 22.7 percent to 40.7 percent respectively. This shows that the male participation rate increased by 24.3 and that of females increased by 18 percent respectively however, the gender gap is rather widening from 13.7 in 1995/96 to 20.2 in 1999/2000. This implies that there are more boys coming to school than girls. The total enrollment ratio has shown an average annual growth rate of 14.29 percent (Male 13.17 % and female 16.14%).

Figure 3: Trends in participation rate for primary (1-8) 1995/96 - 1999/2000



3.1.3. Provision of opportunities to primary schooling

These are supply side factors affecting Accessibility and Educational coverage.

3.1.3.1. Patterns of Distribution of primary schools

The first logical step in increasing the distribution of educational opportunity is to open schools within the reach of school age children (World Bank 1997:67). Other things being normal access depends on the availability of schools.

Table 3: Change in the number of primary (1-8) schools 1995/96 - 1999/2000.

Region	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000	Average annual Growth rate %
Tegiray	683	769	790	811	852	5.7
Afar	80	80	80	101	124	11.6
Amhara	2578	2702	2260	2819	2895	2.9
Oromiya	3776	3926	4067	4200	3459	3.7
Somali	167	167	167	167	222	7.4
Beneshangul	218	236	254	257	272	5.7
SNNP	1977	2101	2192	2228	2271	3.5
Gambella	82	101	110	123	129	12.0
Harari	36	41	43	44	46	6.3
Addis Ababa	225	231	240	248	267	4.4
Diredawa	25	40	49	53	53	20.7
Ethiopia	9847	10394	10752	11051	11490	3.9

Source: - Educational statistics annual abstract MOE 1995/96 -1999/2000

As can be seen from Table 3, at national level the number of schools has increased from 9847 in 1995/96 to 11490 in 1999/2000. This indicates 1643 additional schools were constructed within the five years. The number of schools has grown at average annual growth rate of 3.9%. But increasing the number schools may not necessarily indicate accessibility and educational growth. However, effort to increase supply must continue and should seek creative approaches for extending access to disadvantage groups.

Since distance is a significant factor determining school attendance, particularly for girls and rural children, location for new schools should be carefully mapped before construction begins. This indicates, accessibility refers to the distance between home and school and it is when schools are located properly that increase in the number of schools make a difference in accessibility. Therefore, the way in which location for new school construction is planned is at the heart of furthering access and equality of educational opportunity.

Even though the number of schools has increased within the past five years, based on the above facts, it is important to know the way in which location for new school construction are planned. The researcher has tried to gather information in the three sample regions (Amhara, Oromiya and SNNP) regarding the planning of school location. The questions raised are how they locate schools considering equitable access and equity? What is the minimum school population served by one primary school? What are the catchment area of a primary school and the minimum of school age population served by one school? What is the reasonable home-school distance? In general the response from the three regions shows that, their experience of planning the location of schools is not systematic and they do not use school location planning in its right sense and there planning system do not answer the above questions. There are no norms on which school location planning is based Oromia and SNNP has tried to compel a map showing a distribution of schools for some zones. However, school location planning is more than simply compiling a map, of course, is necessary as starting point in the process of identifying current inadequacies in distribution and to realize appropriate type and patterns of school provision. However, SLP goes beyond this, and is concerned with the

planning and distribution of inputs such as learning materials and teachers for efficient functioning of school system. Hence, it is important to look at some aspects of school location planning to answer the above questions.

A) School Location Planning.

The first step toward making educational access to school age children is to establish schools within children's reach. Systematic planning of the location of school is vital in furthering access. According to Forojalle (1994:244) it ensures a better distribution of schools so that every child has the chance to attain initial access to school because his home is within an easy reach of school. This indicates, home school distance is a greater cause of an equal access.

I) Threshold Population and the Range factor

In practice, schools and classes cannot be provided everywhere. The threshold population (Forojalla 1994) refers to the minimum total population sufficient to establish a school within the minimum acceptable capacity in terms of student spaces or potential enrollment. To establish a spatial distribution of primary schools of Ethiopia or a particular region and include a distance factor, the range and population density threshold (TD) is used.

Threshold population (TP), which helps to establish a minimum population size to be served by a school is represented as (Forjalla 1994:248).

$$TP = \frac{SxC}{axe}$$

Where, TP = Threshold population

S = Class size

C = number of class perschool

A = relevant age group as percentage of total population.

e = target enrollment rate.

Based on the above formula, in Ethiopian case a primary school has eight grade capacity of 400 (8 classes of 50 students space) and the national primary school age population is 20 percent of the total population and assuming a 100 percent enrollment, then the threshold population for the school would be 2667.

If 20% of T = 400, then

$$TP = \frac{50x8}{0.15 \times 1} = 2667.$$

Hence for a school to have 400 pupils, there should be a total population of 2667 in its catchment area. But in reality distance or range is an important factor for children to attend school. Hence, there is a need to look at the distance factor that students should travel to arrive School. Range is Forajalla (1994) the maximum acceptable distance children are expected to travel to school each day.

The School Catchment Area

In deciding the location of school, the first consideration is the need for, and the place of the new school within overall network of schools. A new school should be started on the grounds that there are learners whom the existing schools of the same type serve poorly or even not at all. The school catchment area (Forjalla 1994:246) is the administratively defined geographical area served by a school, that is, the area from which the school recruits its pupils. The catchments area for each school, according to the author, is defined partly in relation to the location of the maximum acceptable distance a child can travel between home and school, the size of the school and the density of school age population. The norm for calculating circular catchment area (A) of a school is by using πr^2, which is the area of a circle.

Theoretically, the ministry of educations standard is that a primary school child should travel 3 kms on average to arrive a primary school. Thus, where the range is 3km, norm for catchment area pupils walk to school would be πr^2.

Theoretically, therefore, the catchments area of the school to be reached on foot is a circle whose radius is the maximum distance from home to school. But the size of the catchment area of school, according to the same author, is based on not only the most acceptable walking distance from home to school, but also on the potential school age population from which the school can draw its enrollment. Thus the manner of estimating the catchment area in relation to population density is calculated by using the formula.

$$\mathbf{TD} = \frac{\mathbf{S.C}}{\mathbf{A.e}} \times \frac{\mathbf{1}}{\boldsymbol{\pi r^2}}$$

Where, TD = Population density Threshold

r = range or distance a primary school student should travel.

Based on the above formula, in Ethiopia, to open one primary school (1-8) with 50-class size with distance of 3km, the minimum population density per square km is

$$TD = \frac{50 \times 8}{0.20 \times 1} \times \frac{1}{3.14 \times 9} = 70.77.$$

The model assumes that there was an even distribution of population through out the regional states. The above model is crude indicator of the minimum number of population that must be available in a particular locality in order to open a primary school at a given village or locality. Because population density of regions varies, there is a need to establish standard that can fit regional realities and national aspiration on enrollment and school catchement area.

Circular catchement areas, according to Forojalla (1994) have one major draw back, which is that either some areas fall outside any catchement diagrams or some belongs to more than one catchment scheme. Hence catchment area can be shown more statistically by Hexagonal catchment area. For hexagonal catchments area, enrollment numbers are given by the formula.

$$\mathbf{E = 2.589r^2xd}$$

Where $2.589r^2$ - gives the area of an hexagonal cell.

d = is the school age population density.

r = range /distance/

Depending on the above formula, to open a primary school with a standard of 50 class size and of a school having 8 classrooms and if students should not travel more than 5 kames then the minimum density of the school age children should be

$$D = \frac{E}{2.589r^2} = \frac{50 \times 8}{2.6x25} = 6.15 \text{ per sq. km.}$$

In Ethiopia, to open primary school with hexagonal catchments area and with standard of a primary school having 8 classrooms and a class size of 50 students then the extent of the catchments area would be

$$D = \frac{E}{2.6r^2}$$

$$D = \frac{Sac}{2.6r^2}, 11.64 = 50x8, ^{r} = \underline{3.63 \text{ km}^2}$$

$$2.6r^2$$

The value 3.63 indicates, at national level, the area from which a school recruits its' pupil and it also indicates a maximum acceptable distance a child can travel to school.

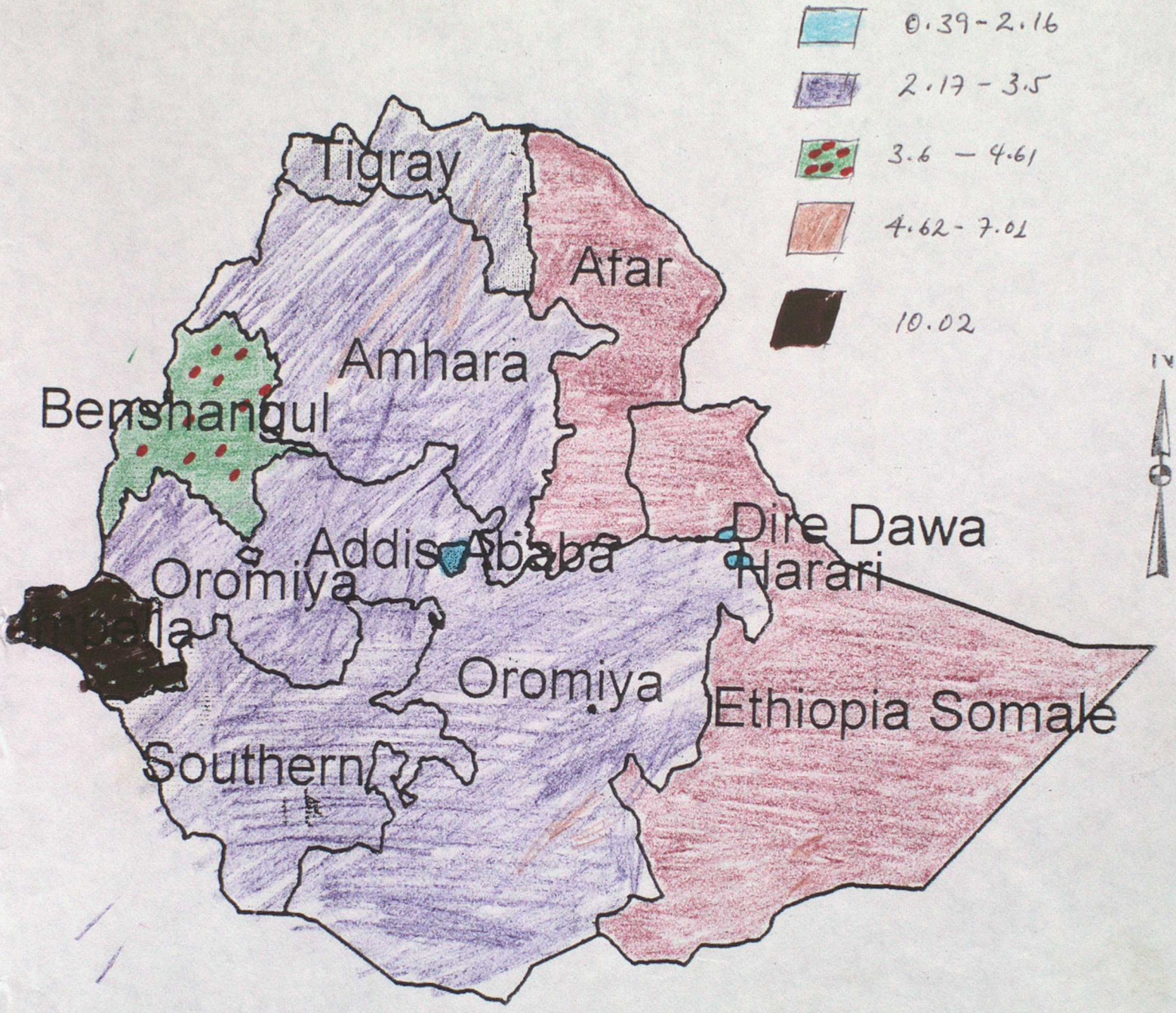
Following the same standard, the extent of the catchment area of primary school in the regional states of Ethiopia can be calculated on the basis of the density of their school age population and with the enrolment target of 100.

Table 4. Depicts that at the national level, the average distance a child should travel to arrive at a primary school should not be less than 3.63 kms while this standard vary from region to region to accommodate local realities. In regions Afar, Somali Beneshangul and Gambella the average distance a child should travel to arrive at primary school is greater than the national average. In general the distance a child should travel varies from smallest distance 0.39km in Addis Ababa to the highest 10km in Gambella, Regarding the interaction between the distance and population density, as can be seen from Table 4, the lower the population density the greater the distance to be traveled by children. In regions like Afar, Ethiopia Somale, Beneshangul Gumz and Gambella, the density of school age children is low and where permanent settlement is lacking (Somali, Afar) constructing formal schools like other regions will not further access, instead the need for alternatives Strategies is at the heart of the matter.

Table 4: Hexagonal catchments area by regions 1999/2000.

Region	[1] School age population (7-14)			[2] Area of regional states km^2	[3]Density of school age population	[3] % share of school age popu.	[3] Extent of Hexagonal catchments area km^2
	M	F	T				
Tigray	377778	366839	744617	60200	12.36	5.87	3.5
Afar	139499	102240	241739	77000	3.13	1.9	7.01
Amhara	1625828	1594619	3220447	188800	17.0	25.39	3.0
Oromiya	2289593	2244732	4534325	366000	12.5	35.75	3.5
Eth. Somali	442642	358053	800695	215900	3.70	6.31	6.45
Beneshangul	55981	53736	109717	46800	7.22	0.87	4.61
SNNP	1267856	1248341	2516197	112000	22.46	19.84	2.81
Gambella	20537	19396	39933	26100	1.53	0.31	10.02
Harari	13377	12823	26200	300	87.33	0.21	1.32
Addis Ababa	188191	209019	397210	400	993.02	3.13	0.39
Deredawa	26528	25977	52505	1600	32.81	0.41	2.16
Ethiopia	6447810	6235775	12683585	1089100	11.64	100	3.63

Fig. 4. Hexagonal Catchment by Region 1999/2000



The assumptions on which such calculations of catchment areas based include homogeneous population distribution, and equal possibilities of reaching the school from all places within the catchment area. Despite all these the model can be useful especially for planners working at, federal, regional or zone level for planning the location of schools.

The preparation of such Tables, like Table 4 above, will serve the dual purpose of having a general application in the country as a whole, and can be used by local authorities for more detailed analysis of school location at local level.

3.1.3.2. School Construction

Systematic school construction policies, like school location planning, are vital in furthering access and equality of educational opportunity. It ensures a better distribution of schools so that every child has a chance to attain initial access to school because his home is within easy reach of school. Under this issue, two points will be raised, the cost of school constructions and the size of schools.

School construction is not cheap and may require more resources than the country can afford. The researcher has investigated the cost and the materials from which primary schools are constructed in Amhara, Oromia and SNNP regional states. In all the sample regions, similarly, the primary schools constructed with government budget are constructed from concrete, and only few schools constructed by community participation used local materials. Regarding the construction cost, according the data from the three regions, at average the cost of constructing one first cycle (1-4) primary school, with 4 classes, which have 200 student places, from concrete and local material are 400,000 birr and 100,000 birr respectively. This shows constructing schools by using local materials is very cheap as compared to concrete, and the cost used to construct one school from concrete can construct four schools from local materials. This means by changing the material used for construction from concrete to local materials, the cost can be reduced by four times. Obviously, this has an implication on provision of primary schools and

increasing access. That is, the cost (400,000 birr.), which was used to construct one school to serve 200 students, can be increased to four schools, which provides educational opportunity for 800 students.

In addition to cost reduction and increasing access, building schools from local materials has another advantage that is, schools of such type can be constructed every where irrespective of geographic (physical) barriers. This again has implication on access. More over the advantage of such schools is that, such schools help the transfer of responsibility for construction and maintenance from the government to the local community. The only disadvantage of such schools, mentioned commonly, is their durability. But as seen from above, the advantages overweigh the disadvantages. Involving community in maintenance activities can solve the durability problem.

With regard to the size of schools constructed, the smallest standard size of a school is, a school with four class rooms, since, as seen in school location planning earlier, distance, threshold population, school age population density and geographic (physical) barriers, are significant factors affecting school attendance, a trade off should exist between building large schools that benefit from economies of scale but are hard to reach and small schools that are accessible and cheaper.

3.1.3.3. Use of Available Buildings

Given the financial and logistical difficulties of building government schools, the use of existing available buildings such as churches, mosques and community centers for formal schooling could be a convenient solution for increasing access. According to the data obtained from the three sample regions, there are no formal schools conducted in existing buildings such as churches, mosques and community centers, except for 18 mosque schools in Oromia region.

3.1.3.4. Use of Available Space

Double shift and multigrade classes – As a whole, according to MOE (1999/2000), out of 11490 primary schools in 1999/2000, only 4354 of them use shift system. This indicates 37.90 percent of the primary schools use shift system. With regard to increasing access multiple shift can accommodate double the number of students that a single shift can. However, this will be applicable only in areas of high school population density. The presence multigrade classes are reported only in very few schools of Oromia.

3.1.3.5. Pre-School Education

Because pre-school education is now seen as an important leverage to improve readiness for primary schooling and affects the entrance age in to primary schools, it can be included under, factors which affects access to primary schooling.

As can be seen from Table 5, there are 843 kindergartens in the country. The highest number of kindergarten 227 (27.22%) is recorded in Addis Ababa and the lowest number, one (0.12%) in Gambella. From the total 843 Kindergarten 723 (86.69%) of them are found in four regions Amhara, Oromia, SNNP and Addis Ababa. The national Gross enrollment ratio is 1.8 percent. Addis Ababa has the highest gross enrollment ratio 32.2 percent, followed by Hariar and Diredawa 8.7 percent. Even though the GER for Kindergarten is negligible, the condition is worst in Afar, Somali and Gambella regions where the GER is less than 1 per cent. This result is consistent with the GER for primary education in which the conditions were worst in these regions. This shows enrollment in pre-school education has an effect on access to primary schooling.

The kindergarten are run by non-government organizations, owned by community, missions, private individuals, religious institutions --- etc. This shows the government has no contribution in furthering access to early childhood education, which affects the child's entry age, staying in the system and performance.

Table 5:Enrollment and GER in kindergarten 1999/2000

Region	Enrollment			GER %	No. Of kindergarten
	M	F	T		
Tigray	2571	2755	5326	1.6	72
Afar	340	299	639	0.7	5
Amhara	10267	8823	19090	1.4	182
Oromiya	11415	10955	22370	1.1	202
Eth. Somali	450	464	914	0.3	4
Beneshangul	426	446	872	1.9	9
SNNP	8284	7282	15566	1.4	112
Gambella	50	60	110	0.7	1
Harari	458	415	873	8.7	6
Addis Ababa	16572	15611	32183	32.2	227
Deredawa	948	819	1767	8.7	14
Total	51781	47929	99710	1.8	834

Source- Education Statistics annual Abstract MOE, 1999/2000

3.1.3.6. Non-Government Schools

According to MOE (1992), out of 11490 primary schools 526 (4.57%) of them are non-government schools and from 6462503 students enrolled in primary education only 318844 (8.25%) are from non-government schools. This shows government schools enroll 91.75% of all primary school students and the contribution of non-government organization and private sectors is insignificant.

Concerning the regional distribution of Non-government primary schools Addis Ababa has the highest proportion (57.40%), followed by Oromia (21.19%) and SNNP (13.13%). The involvement of non-government organization is limited to these regions.

Table 6: Non-government schools and Enrollment 1999/2000

Region	No. Of schools	Enrollment	Proportion of NGO schools (%)
Tigray	29	8727	2.73
Afar	7	412	0.13
Amhara	13	7336	2.30
Oromiya	158	67575	21.19
Eth. Somale	6	1066	0.33
Beneshangul	7	2331	0.73
SNNP	86	41870	13.13
Gambella	0	0	0
Harari	7	1965	0.62
Addis Ababa	201	183038	57.40
Deredawa	12	4424	1.39
Ethiopia	526	318844	0

Source- Educational statistics annual abstract 1999/2000.

3.2. Educational Disparity /Inequality/

3.2.1. Regional Disparity

3.2.1.1. Regional Disparity in Participation Rate

The gross enrollment ratio (GER), that is the relationship between enrollment and school age population by region, serves as a rough measure of interregional disparities. As can be seen from table 7 the disparity ranges from the smallest 9.1% (Afar) to 96.2% (Harari). Regions Afar, Amhara, Somali have the lowest participation rates, that is, below the national average (51%). When we see the girls' participation, Addis Ababa scored highest (92.1%). and the lowest Somali region (5.6%). Afar, Oromia and Somali regions have lowest female participation rate below the rational average 40.7%.

The average annual growth rate in enrollment is calculated by using the formula

$$\mathbf{En = Eo\,(1+r)^2}$$

Where En = the number of student enrolled in the last year

Eo = the number of students enrolled at the beginning year

n = the difference of the years between the beginning and last year

r = average annual growth rate

The average annual growth rate helps us to understand how coverage is progressing every year in each region and at national level. In the last five years the highest annual growth rate is recorded in Amhara region (20.8%) and lowest in Addis Ababa (0.5%).

The national average growth rate is 14.3%. Tigray, Afar, Somali, SNNP, Harari, Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa recorded average annual growth rate below the national average.

Figure 5:– Regional Disparity in Participation Rate 1999/2000

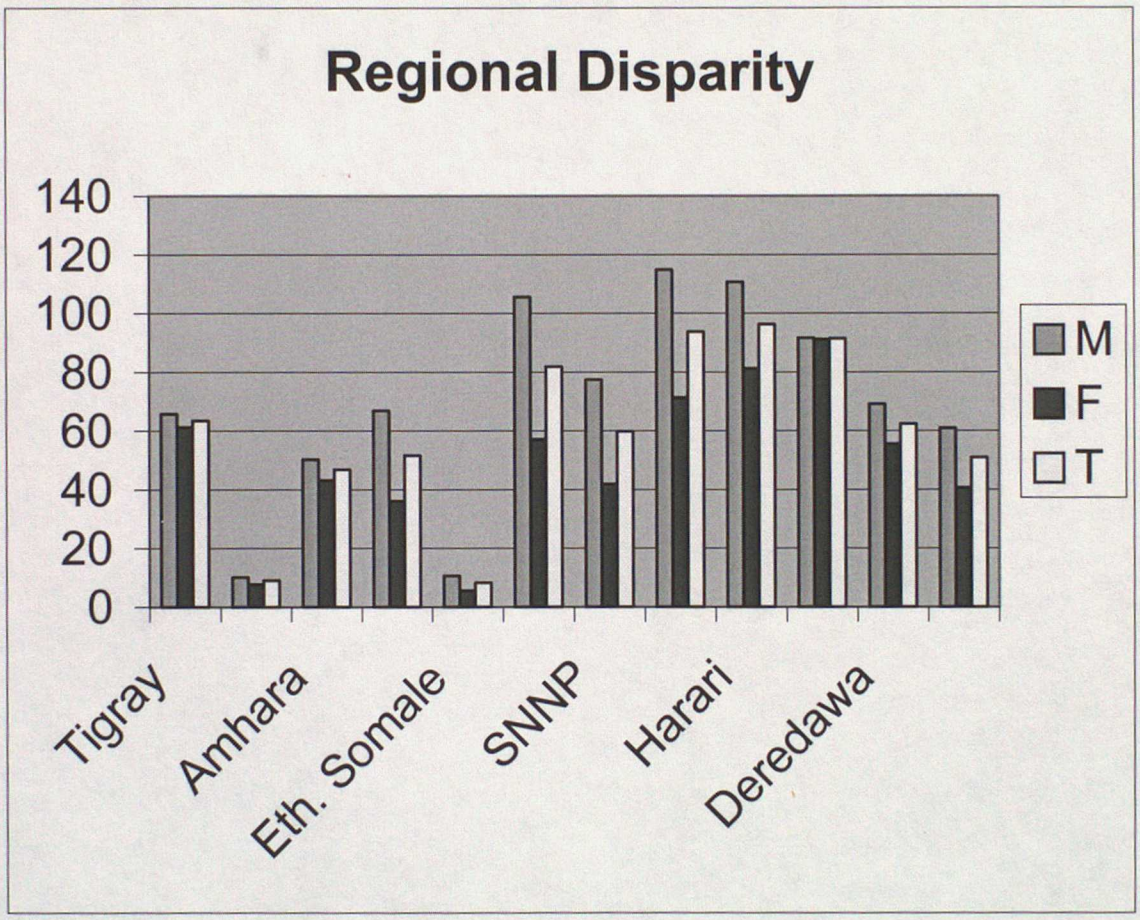


Table 7: Trends in Enrollments and participation Rates- 1995/96 and 1999/2000

	[1] ENROLMENT															[2] Gross Enrollment Ratio													
Region	1995/96			1996/97			1997/98			1998/999			1999/2000			1995/96			1996/97			1997/98			1998/999			1999/2000		
Tigray	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
	181303	136931	318234	183314	143902	327216	222293	175650	397943	232384	193284	425668	248427	224407	472834	49.3	40.3	45	48.6	41.3	45.1	61.7	50.2	56.1	63	53.8	58.4	65.8	61.2	63.5
Afar	9040	5752	14792	9040	5752	14792	9040	5751	14791	10398	6545	16943	74247	7841	82088	10	6.8	8.4	10	6.8	8.4	10	6.8	8.4	7.4	6.5	7.1	10.2	7.7	9.1
Amhara	386796	320444	707240	504978	405736	910714	592768	467318	1060086	701630	573016	1274646	817456	689668	1507124	23.7	20.8	22.3	30.2	25.7	28	38.4	30.8	34.6	44.1	36.7	40.4	50.3	43.2	46.8
Oromiya	821056	390100	1211156	1007355	458593	1465948	1169687	541231	1710918	1338230	659465	1997695	530614	810581	1341195	34.4	17.2	26	41.2	19.7	30.8	53.6	25.4	39.6	59.6	30	45	66.9	36.1	51.6
Eth. Somale	44737	17100	61837	44737	17100	61837	447337	17100	464437	44737	17100	61837	46808	20026	66834	16.2	6.6	11.6	16.2	6.6	11.6	16.2	6.6	11.6	10.3	5.1	8	10.6	5.6	8.3
Beneshangul	33700	12915	46615	39017	15197	54214	50642	22083	72725	54222	26045	80267	59062	30715	89777	59.3	24.8	42.8	66.9	28.5	48.6	95.6	43.3	69.9	99.3	49.5	74.9	106	57.2	81.8
SNNP	712056	298915	1010971	83584	361112	444696	913725	417468	1331193	939609	461880	1401489	981583	522768	1504351	52.3	23.4	38.4	60	27.7	44.4	75.8	35.2	55.7	75.6	37.7	56.8	77.4	41.9	59.8
Gambella	14303	7572	21875	19374	10114	29488	21119	11373	32492	22653	12925	35578	23591	13830	37421	61.8	37.4	50.4	81.6	48.7	66.3	1060	59.9	83.5	111	66.5	89.1	115	71.3	93.7
Harari	9022	7115	16137	11660	8231	19891	12133	8695	20828	14038	9719	23757	14790	10417	25207	58.9	50.6	54.9	73.8	56.7	65.6	86.7	66.9	77.1	105	75	90	111	81.2	96.2
Addis Ababa	170220	185904	356124	171247	187148	358395	171093	186636	357729	168824	184019	352843	172360	190561	362921	82.1	83.6	82.9	79.5	81	80.3	83.9	80.4	82	86.1	83.5	84.7	91.6	91.2	91.4
Deredawa	12191	10747	22938	101316	130181	231497	16748	13300	30048	17598	13912	31510	18332	14419	32751	43.2	40	41.6	54.3	46.8	50.7	64.4	53.2	58.9	66.4	53.4	60	69.1	55.5	62.4
Total	2394424	1393495	3787919	2175622	1743066	3918688	3626585	1866605	5493190	3544323	2157910	5702233	2987270	2535233	5522503	36.6	22.7	30.1	43	26	34.7	52	31.2	41.8	55.9	35.3	45.8	60.9	40.7	51

Source: [1]Education statistics annual abstract MOE, 1995/96 – 1999/2000

[2]Calculated by the author

Trends in Regional Disparity in participation Rate.

Gross enrollment ratios of the years 1995/96 and 1999/2000 were used to compare trends in regional disparity and the statistical tools employed were Gini coefficient, mean, standard deviation, and coefficient of variation and Lorenz curve. The Gini coefficient relates the cumulative percentage or proportion of the criterion and cumulative proportion of the characteristics whose equality is being measured.

Gini Coefficient (Johnston 1981:94) expressed mathematically as

$$G(x) = \frac{1}{1+n} - \frac{2}{n^2 \bar{(x)}} (Y_1 + 2Y_2 + \text{---} + nyn)$$

Where **n = number of units**

$\bar{x}$ = average valve of characteristics across all unit

yi = proportion of characteristics in unit i.

Johnston (1981:94) has explained the value of **Gini Coefficient** and the way of representing it diagrammatically. The coefficient has the potential to range from zero to one with higher values representing greater inequality. One way of representing, inequality in a diagrammatic way is to graph **Lorenz curve**, which is formed by plotting the cumulative percentage of characteristics against the cumulative percentage, calculated for an appropriate criteria on measure. In a situation of perfect equality, the corresponding cumulative percentage for the characteristics and the criterion should be identical. When graphed this produces a straight line referred to as the line of equality. The greater the equality of a particular characteristics the closer the value of the Gini Coefficient is to 0. The greater the inequality, the further away the Lorenz Curve is from the line of equality and the value of Gini Coefficient approaches 1.0

Table 8: Inequalities in participation rate 1995/96 –1999/2000 measured by Gini Coefficient (G)

Region	1995/96				1999/2000				
	GER	enrollment (characteristics)% Yi	education (criterion)	Cumulative Proportion of Enrollment Pi	Region	GER	Yi	Pi	Cumulative prop-Portion of education
Addis Ababa	82.9	0.19	0.09	0.19	Harari	96.2	0.14	0.14	0.09
Harari	54.9	0.13	0.09	0.32	Gambella	93.7	0.14	0.28	0.18
Gambella	50.4	0.12	0.09	0.44	Addis Ababa	91.4	0.14	0.42	0.27
Tigray	45	0.11	0.09	0.55	Beneshangul-Gumuz	81.8	0.12	0.54	0.36
Beneshangul-Gumuz	42.8	0.10	0.09	0.65	Tigray	63.5	0.10	0.64	0.45
Dire Dawa	41.6	0.10	0.09	0.75	Dire Dawa	62.4	0.10	0.74	0.54
SNNP	38.4	0.09	0.09	0.84	SNNP	59.8	0.09	0.83	0.63
Oromiya	26	0.06	0.09	0.90	Oromiya	51.6	0.08	0.91	0.72
Amhara	22.3	0.05	0.09	0.95	Amara	46.8	0.07	0.98	0.81
Somale	11.6	0.03	0.09	0.98	Afar	9.1	0.01	0.99	0.90
Afar	8.4	0.02	0.09	1.00	Somale	8.3	0.01	1.00	1.00
	Gini Coefficient (G) = 0.28				Gini Coefficient (G) = 0.26				

Table 9: Trends in Regional Disparity in participation rate.

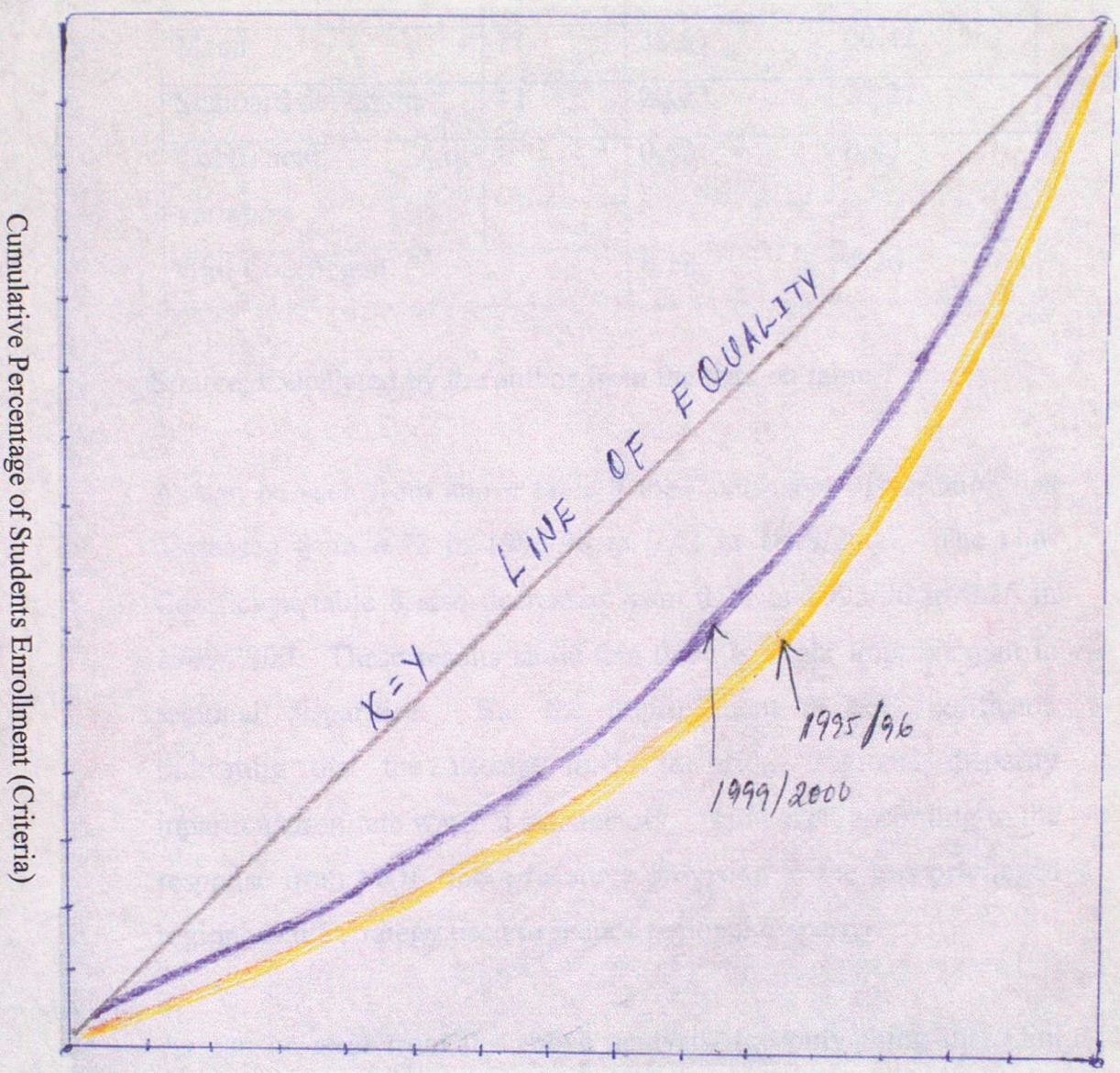
Item	N	1995/96	1999/2000
Mean	11	38.57	60.42
Standard deviation	11	20.23	29.27
Coefficient of variation		0.52	0.42
Gini Coefficient		0.28	0.26

Source: Calculated by the author from the data on table7.

As can be seen from Table 9 the Coefficient of variation has decreased from 0.52 in 1995/96 to 0.42 in 1999/2000. The Gini Coefficient has also decreased from 0.28 in 1995/96 to 0.26 in 1999/2000. These results show that there is slight improvement in regional disparities. But the improvement is not significant; indicating that the attempt made to bridge regional disparity in participation rate was not satisfactory. However,

Fig. 6: Trends in Regional Disparity between the Years 1995/96 and 199/2000

LORENZ CURVE



1995/96 G = 0.28

1999/2000 G = 0.26

according to the response from MOE, more resource provision to the less privileged regions is the strategy used to reduce regional disparity.

As can be seen from the above analysis, the only thing that Gini Coefficient shows is that inequality exists. But it does not locate where the in equality is. Therefore, it is important to see where the inequality exists and its pattern using another indicator.

ii) Patterns of Regional Disparity

Is schooling evenly distributed between regions? Which region is better off? And which ones are worse off in terms of schooling received? To answer these questions, data by regions was analyzed using **Representation Index.**

Table 10, Expresses the relationship between enrollment and school age population within each region. The ideal value of Representation Index (RI) is 1. The value of 1 means that all children, who are eligible for primary schooling, have got access to schooling. As shown in Table 10 regions Tigray, Oromiya, Beneshangul Gumuz, SNNP, Gambella, Harari, Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa are more represented in enrollment. In fact, the value for these regions is higher than the ideal value 1. This could be an indication that over aged children are occupying most of the school places. On the other hand, regions, Afar, Amhara and Ethiopia Somali are least represented in terms of receiving schooling. The conditions of these regions is the same as that of five years ago, in which case they were also less privileged. Currently, in Afar and Ethiopia Somali, more than 90 percent of children who are eligible to go to school have not got access to schooling. Concerning the pattern of the last five years, the situation seems to be worst along north West (Amhara) and eastern frontiers from Afar (top eastern) to Somali (bottom eastern).

Table 10 Enrolments and Male Female Representation Index – 1999/2000.

Region	1 School age population 7-14			2 Proportion of school age population			3 Primary Enrollment			4 Proportion of Enrollment			5 Enrollment Representation Index			6 Gender Gap
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	
Tegray	377778	366839	744617	5.86	5.89	5.87	248427	224407	472834	6.33	8.85	7.32	1.08	1.50	1.25	-0.42
Afar	139499	102240	241739	2.17	1.64	1.91	14247	7841	22088	0.36	0.31	0.34	0.17	0.19	0.18	-0.02
Amhara	1625828	1594619	3220447	25.21	25.57	25.39	817456	689668	1507124	20.81	27.20	23.32	0.83	1.06	0.92	-0.23
Oromia	2289593	2244723	4534325	35.50	36	35.75	1530614	810581	2341195	38.98	31.97	36.23	1.09	1.89	1.01	0.2
Somale	442642	358053	800695	6.86	5.73	6.31	46808	20026	66834	1.19	0.79	1.03	0.17	0.14	0.16	0.03
Beneshangul-Gumz	55981	53736	109717	0.87	0.86	0.88	59062	30715	89777	1.50	1.21	1.39	1.72	1.41	1.58	0.31
SNNP	1267856	1248341	2516197	19.67	20.01	19.83	981583	522768	1504351	24.99	20.62	23.27	1.27	1.03	1.17	0.24
Gambella	20537	19396	39933	0.32	0.31	0.31	23591	13830	37421	0.60	0.55	0.58	1.88	1.77	1.87	0.11
Harari	13377	12823	26200	0.21	0.21	0.21	14790	10417	25107	0.38	0.41	0.39	1.81	1.96	1.86	-0.15
Addis Ababa	188191	269019	397210	2.92	3.36	3.13	172360	190561	362921	4.39	7.52	5.62	1.50	2.23	1.78	-0.73
Dire Dawa	26528	25977	52505	0.41	0.42	0.41	18332	14419	32751	0.47	0.57	0.51	1.15	1.36	1.24	-0.21
Total	6447810	6235775	12683585	-	1	1	3927270	2535233	6462403	60.90	40.65	51.0				

Source: 1,3. Educational statistics annual abstract MOE 1999/2000

2,4,5,6 Calculated by the author from the data.

3.2.1.2. Regional Disparity in Distribution of primary schools

Table 3 reveals, in the past five years, the number of primary schools has grown with an average annual rate of 3.9% and the trend in school provision shows variation between regions. The highest average annual growth rate (20.7%) is recorded in Dire Dawa and the lowest is Amhara region (2.9%). In general Dire Dawa, Afar, Gambella, Harari, Tigray and Beneshangul Gumuz regions had shown remarkable growth rate in school expansion, while Amhara, Oromiya, SNNP and Addis Ababa regional states did not. The annual growth rate of schools in an indicator of the average rate or speed at which schools are constructed every year. But annual growth rate of schools may not necessarily indicate educational growth.

Table 11: Inequality in growth rate of schools 1995/96-1999/2000 Gini Coefficient.

Region	School growth rate	Proportion of school growth rate (Yi) characteristics	Proportion of school criterion average proportion	Nyi
Dire Dawa	20.7	0.25	0.09	0.25
Gambella	12.0	0.14	0.09	0.28
Afar	11.6	0.14	0.09	0.42
Somali	7.4	0.09	0.09	0.36
Harari	6.3	0.08	0.09	0.40
Beneshangul	5.7	0.07	0.09	0.42
Tigray	5.7	0.07	0.09	0.49
A.A	4.4	0.05	0.09	0.40
Oromia	3.7	0.04	0.09	0.36
SNNP	3.5	0.04	0.09	0.40
Amhara	2.9	0.03	0.09	0.33
Gini Coefficient = 0.34				**nyi = 4.11**

The Gini Coefficient value (G) = 0.34 shows a significant variation (disparity) in the growth rate of schools among the regional states.

School Representation Index (RI) 1999/2000

School Representation index is one of the major indicators of disparities in distribution of schools. It shows the relationship between the proportion of schools and the proportion of school age population of a particular region.

Table 12: School Representation index 1999/2000.

Region	School age popu.	Proportion of school age popu.	Number of schools	Proportion of school	School Representation Index
Tigray	744617	5.87	952	7.42	1.26
Afar	241739	1.91	124	1.08	0.57
Amhara	3220447	25.39	2895	25.20	0.99
Oromiya	4534325	35.75	4359	37.94	1.06
Somali	800695	6.31	222	1.93	0.31
Beneshangul	109717	0.08	272	2.37	2.69
SNNP	2516197	19.83	2271	19.77	0.99
Gambella	39933	0.31	129	1.12	3.61
Harari	26200	0.21	46	0.40	1.90
A.A	397210	3.13	267	2.32	0.74
Dire Dawa	52505	0.41	53	0.20	0.49
			11490		

Table 12 Depict a situation of low school representation index in Afar, Somali, Dire Dawa. The over school representation index is recorded in Beneshangul, Gambella, Oromiya and Tigray regions. Of all the regions, the smallest (0.31) representation index is recorded in Somali and the highest representation (3.61) in Gambella. When we relate the school representation and enrollment representation (Table 11 and Table 12) for Afar and Somale, in both cases these regions show less representation.

3.2.2. Gender Disparity

Representation index is one of the major indicators of disparity between genders. In Calculating gender representation index by region, relationships are established between the proportion of enrollment of girls out of the total enrollment and total school age girls out of the total enrollment and total school age girls. As seen from Table 10 the index for girls is slightly higher than that of boys in regions Tigray, Amhara, Harari, Addis Ababa

and Dire Dawa. This shows Girls are more advantaged than boys is these regions. Of these regions the situation of girls is much better in Addis Ababa and Harari. In the remaining regions girls are disadvantaged as compared to boys. Of the regions, where the girls are disadvantaged the case of Somali and Afar is the worst of all.

Another statistical tool used to see the variation between genders is Gender parity index (GPI), which is the ratio of female to male enrollment ratio. The minimum value of GPI is 0. This indicates maximum disparity. The maximum value for GPI is 1. This indicates perfect parity between genders.

Table 13 shows; at national level the gender gap is 20.3%. Beneshangul, Gambella, Harari, Oromiya and SNNP regions have gender gap above the national average. Of the five regions the gender gap observed in Bereshangul and Gambella regions is the worst. On the other hand, the least gender gap is observed in Addis Ababa (0.4%).

Table 13 also illustrates the GPI at regional and national level. It can clearly be observed that in 1999/2000, the national GPI is 0.7, which indicates that girl's participation is lower than boys are. This is true for all regions except Addis Ababa, which has GPI equal to 1. Oromia, Somali, Beneshangul Gumuz and SNNP have 0.5, the largest disparity between male and female enrollment.

Table 13: Gross enrollment ratio, Gender gap and Gender party index1999/2000.

Regions	GER			GG	GPI
	M	F	T		
Tigray	65.8	61.2	63.5	4.6	0.9
Afar	10.2	7.7	9.1	2.5	0.8
Amhara	50.3	43.2	46.8	7.0	0.9
Oromiya	66.9	36.1	51.6	30.7	0.5
Eth. Somale	10.6	5.6	8.3	5.0	0.5
Beneshangul	105.5	57.2	81.8	48.3	0.5
SNNP	77.4	41.9	59.8	35.5	0.5
Gambella	114.9	71.3	93.7	43.6	0.6
Harari	110.6	81.2	96.2	29.3	0.7
Addis Ababa	91.6	91.2	91.4	0.4	1.0
Deredawa	69.1	55.5	62.4	13.6	0.8
Total	60.9	40.7	51.0	20.3	0.7

As can be seen from Table 14 in the past five years, from 1995/96 to 1999/2000, the gender gap is widening from 17.6 % to 20.3%. The gender parity index increased from 0.59 to 0.70. This shows more girls are attracted to school but the gender gap still persists.

Table 14 Gender gap and Gender parity Index 1995/96 – 1999/2000.

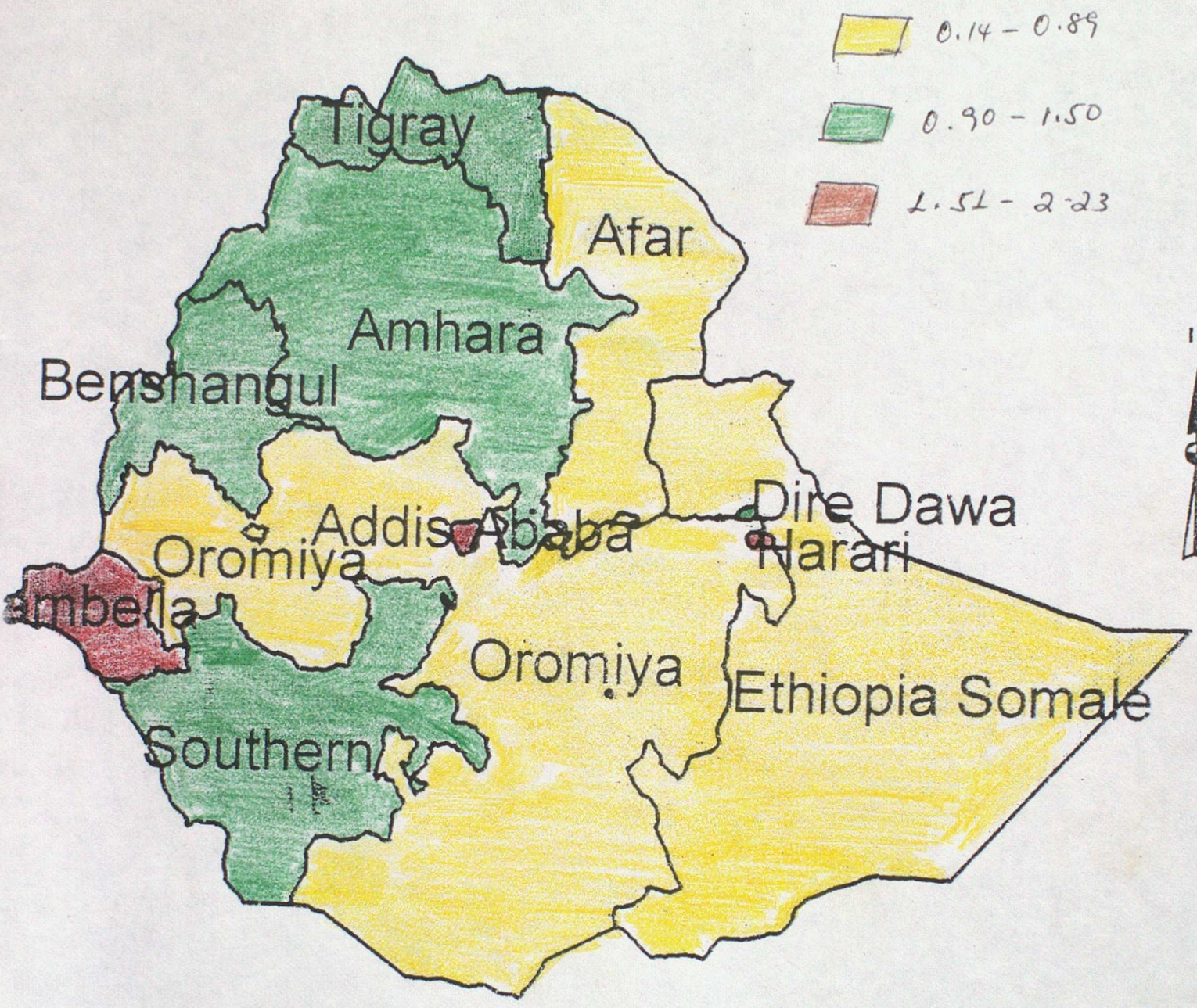
Regions	GER			GG	GPI
	M	F	T		
1995/96	43.2	25.6	34.6	17.6	0.59
1996/97	43.0	26.0	34.7	17.0	0.60
1997/98	52.6	31	42	20.8	0.60
1998/99	55.9	35.3	45.8	20.6	0.60
1999/2000	60.9	40.2	51	20.3	0.70

With regards to strategies employed by sample regions; Amhara, Oromia and SNNP, to increase female student participation and performance, they reported that they employed affirmative action in recruitment of female teachers to increase the number of female teachers is the system.

Table 15: Change in the number of female teachers 1995/96 – 1999/2000.

Region	1995/96			1999/2000			
	Both	Female	% Females	Both	Female	% Females	Female average annual growth rate %
Tigray	6832	2762	40.4	7671	2999	39.1	2.07
Afar	662	133	20.1	795	183	23.0	8.3
Amhara	21973	5878	26.1	24401	7918	32.4	7.7
Oromiya	38292	8966	23.4	43900	12388	28.2	8.41
Eth. Somali	3053	498	16.3	1820	318	17.5	-10.6
Beneshangul	1235	273	22.1	1805	557	30.9	19.5
SNNP	20680	4062	19.6	24692	5572	22.6	8.22
Gambella	626	169	27.0	1068	240	22.5	9.16
Harari	755	343	45.4	981	430	43.8	5.81
Addis Ababa	7392	2977	40.3	7883	3165	40.1	1.54
Diredawa	621	197	31.7	761	233	30.6	4.28
Total	102121	26253	25.7	115777	34003	29.4	6.68

Fig 8: Female Representation Index by Region.



As can be seen from Table 15 above, the percentage of female teachers has increased from 25.7 in 1995/96 to 29.4% in 1999/2000. In the years under consideration the number of female teachers has grown at an average annual rate of 6.68%, whereas the number of male teachers has grown at an average annual growth rate of 1.89%. According to the investigation made in Amhara, Oromiya and SNNP regions, there is affirmative action is recruitment of female teachers, that is females are given quota of (50%). This was not without reason. They respond that increasing the number of female teachers is employed as one strategy to increase female student participation and performance. However, as the responses of regional education bureau experts indicate, lack of living houses, in rural areas, lack of incentives to work in remote areas and assignment policies that concentrates women teachers is urban and economically advantaged areas prevent many female pupils in other areas from having relevant role models and the teachers best able to appreciate the specific learning needs of girls.

Generally, even though, there is an affirmative action in recruitment of female teachers, the number of female teachers is still by far behind their male counterparts.

3.3. Internal Efficiency

The Problem of educational efficiency was assessed here, from its two internal dimensions: the flow of students through the system and the quality of learning in the system.

3.3.1. Quantitative Efficiency. (Technical efficiency)

3.3.1.1. Pupils flow through the educational system.

Three key rates are used to analyze the flow of pupils through the system. These are promotion, repetition and dropout rates. Promotion, repetition and drop out rates are the three paths of students flow from grade to grade and characterize the efficiency of the educational system in producing graduates. Therefore, these rates and related tools are

used for studying of the efficiency of the student flow in of primary education. The method employed to calculate the flow rate of pupils through the system is the reconstructed cohort method. To apply this method date on pupils by grade for two consecutive years and repeaters by grade for the latter year were used.

I. Promotion Rate (PR).

Is the proportion of pupils who have successfully completed a grade (g) and proceeded to the next grade (g+1), the following year (y+1) to the total enrollment in that grade the previous year? The basic formula for calculating the promotion rate is

$$= E^{y+1}_{g+1} - R^{y+1}_{g+1}$$

$$PR^{Y}_{G} \quad E = \frac{}{E^{Y}_{G}}$$

Where PR = promotion rate

E = Enrollment

g = Grade

Y = year

R – Repeaters

Based on the above formula, for example, the promotion rate of grade 1, 1991 E.C can be calculated as

$$1991 = \frac{E^{1992}_{2} - R^{1992}_{2}}{}$$

$$PR_1 \quad 1991$$

$$E_1$$

$$= \frac{1235823 - 19572}{1840185} \quad 0.6370$$

As can be seen from Table 16 the promotion rate of grade 1 is lower than promotion rate in other grades. In all grades the promotion rate for girls is lower than promotion rate for boys.

Table 16: Primary 1-8 flow rates 1996/97 – 1998/99

Year	Sex	Promotion rate %	Repetition rate %	Dropout rates %
1996/97	Both	79.16	10.37	10.47
	F	77.26	12.44	10.30
	M	80.44	8.97	10.59
1997/98	Both	75.94	11.99	12.07
	F	74.12	14.59	11.28
	M	77.25	10.39	12.36
1998/99	Both	72.88	8.18	18.94
	F	72.41	10.09	17.50
	M	73.17	7.02	19.82

II. Repetition Rate (RR)

Repetition rate is the proportion of pupils who repeat a grade once or twice. The repetition rate measures the rate at which pupils repeat grades. Repetition rate can be calculated using the formula.

$$RR_g^y = \frac{R_G^{Y+1}}{E_g^y}$$

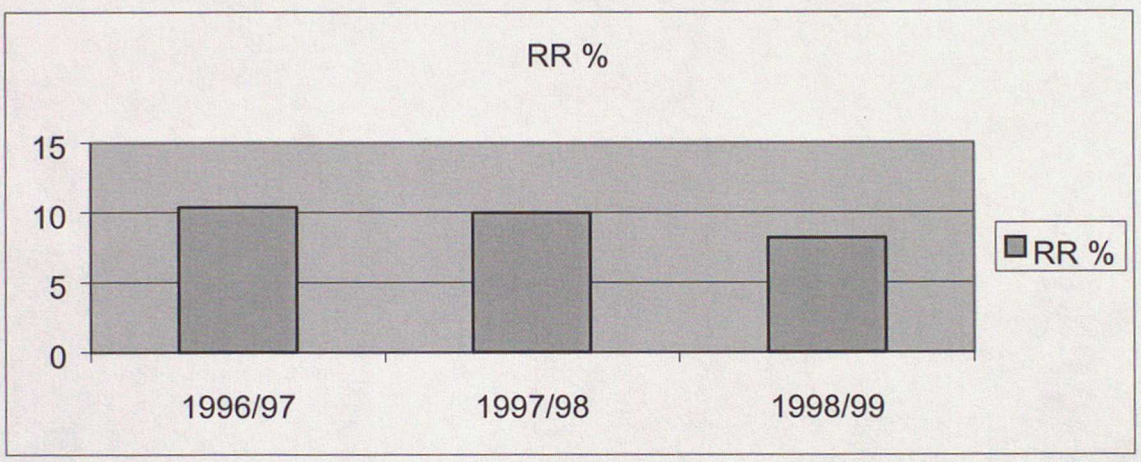
Where RR – Repetition rate

G,y as defined above

a) Repetition rate by years

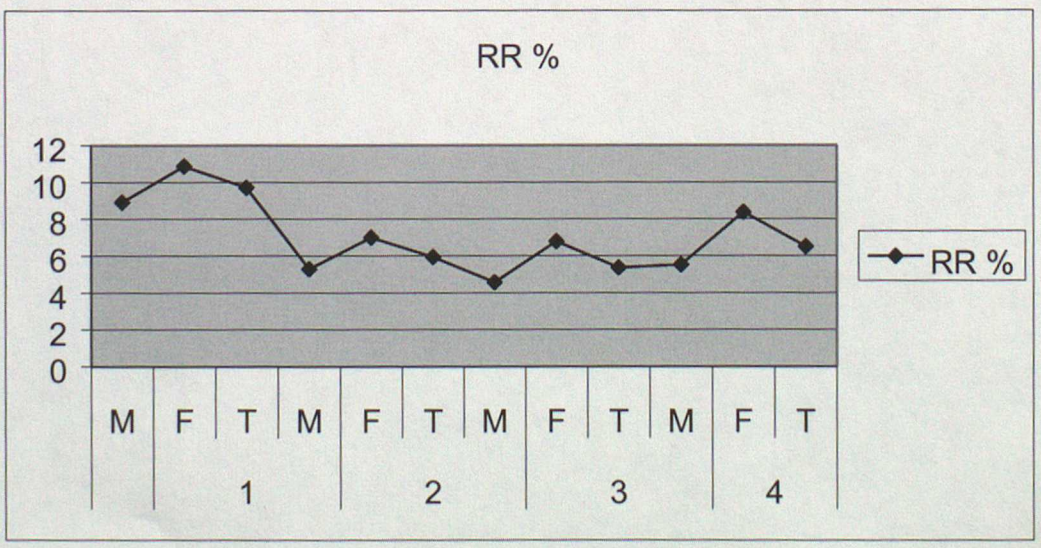
In the past three years, as can be seen from table 14 repetition rate decreased from 10.37% in 1996/97 to 8.18% in 1998/99. In a similar way the repetition rate for males and females decreased from 8.97% to 10.09% and from 12.44% to 10.09% respectively. This shows the extent of implementing the policy of automatic promotion is on being improved.

Figure 9 Repetition Rate by Years



b) Repetition rates by grades.

Figure 10: Repetition Rate by Grade and Gender for 1998/99 Cohorts.



This indicator measures the proportion of students who have remained in the same grade over one year, and have used more resource for that grade. Table 17 and figure 11 shows repetition rate of pupil in basic primary (1-4) by grades. Two major points can be observed from the graph and the table. The rate of repetition is highest in grade 1, than in other grades, that is the rate of repetition decreases as the grade level increases up to grade four. The second important point observed is that girls repetition rate in all grades (1-4) is higher than that of boys. This result is consistent with the findings of UNESCO, 1984 and Brimer and Pauli (1971), who reported that repetition rates were

highest in the first grade of primary education in developing countries. Concerning the patterns of repetition by sex, the result of this study is also consistent with the findings of World Bank (1980), and Brimer and Pauli (1971) who reported that the tendency to repeat classes is higher among girls than among boys, because girls are the major source of labor force both in the family and production and engaged in these activities from an early age than boys.

III. Patterns of Dropouts

a) Dropout Rates by Years.

The proportion of pupils who leaves the system with out completing a given grade in a given school year. High dropout rates imply high input/out put ratios and hence lead to Low internal efficiency.

Table 17: Pupil flow rates for basic primary (1-4) 1998/99 Cohort.

	GRADES											
	1			2			3			4		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
Enrollment (1991) 1998/2000	1091065	749120	1840185	669233	401149	1070382	529978	288108	818086	417639	221637	639276
Enrollment 1999/2000	1124386	830649	1955035	738052	497771	1235823	586421	354470	940891	476600	265334	741934
Repeaters 1999/2000	97346	81475	178821	24287	28109	19574	24287	19574	43861	23036	18573	41609
Promotion rate	64.39	62.69	63.70	83.99	81.35	83.80	85.58	85.64	90.12	84.85	83.95	84.54
Repetition rate	8.92	10.88	9.72	5.30	7.01	5.94	4.58	6.79	5.36	5.52	8.38	6.51
Dropout rate	26.69	26.43	06.58	10.71	11.64	10.26	9.63	7.57	4.52	9.63	5.23	2.63

Figure 11: - Drop out Rate by Gender and Year 1996/97 to 1998/99. Grades 1-8.

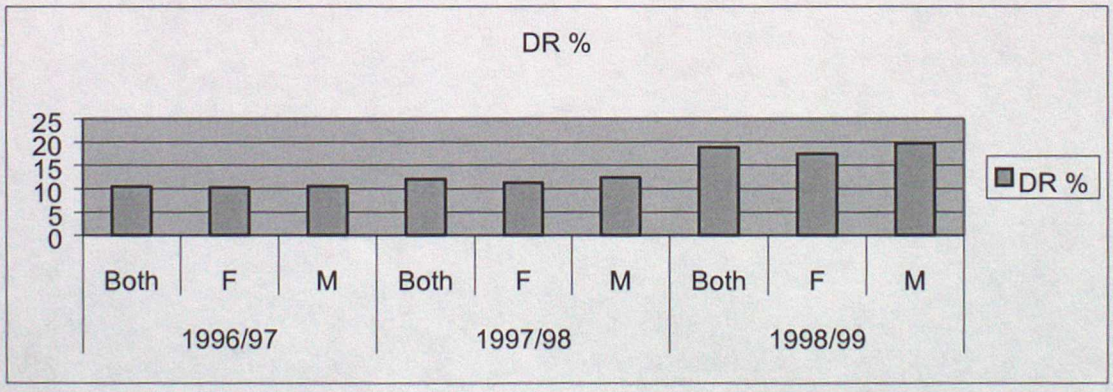
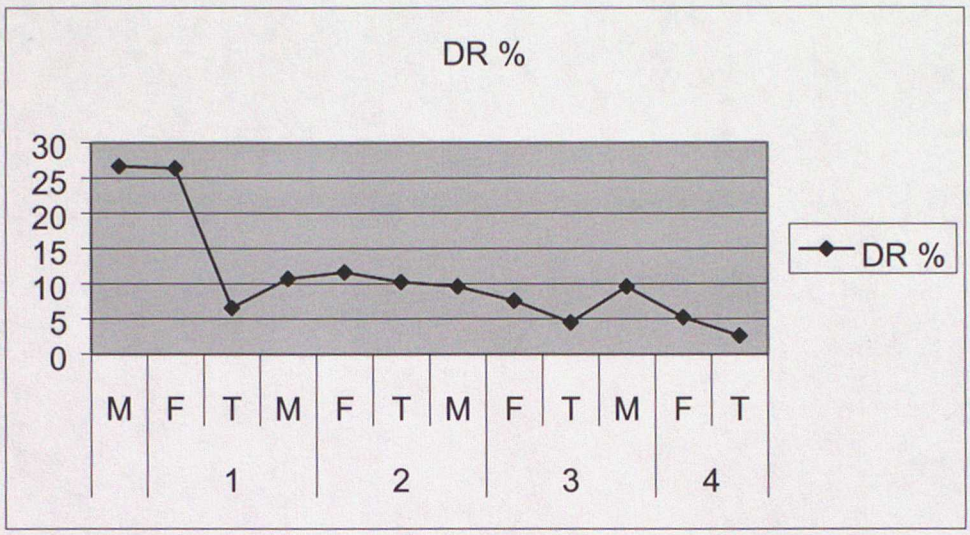


Table 17 and figure 11 illustrates that in the three years period, the dropout rate increased from 10.47% in 1996/97 to 18.94% in 1998/99. The dropout rates for both male and female students also shows similar pattern.

b) Dropout Rates by Grade.

Fig. 12: Dropout Rates by Gender and Grades, for cohort 1998/99.



As illustrated in Table 17 and figure 12, of the children enrolled in grade 1 in 1998/99, 26.58% of them have left school before reaching grade 2. The dropout rate is highest in grade 1 and decrease as the grade level increases up to grade 4. Of those who do not complete their basic primary education, according to the reconstructed cohort analysis, of cohort 1998/99 boys spend an average duration of study of 1.58 years and girls spend 1.56 years in schools. When children dropout after only one or two years of schooling, public resources are probably wasted because most retain little of what they learned in such a short time.

c) Survival Rate to Grade 5.

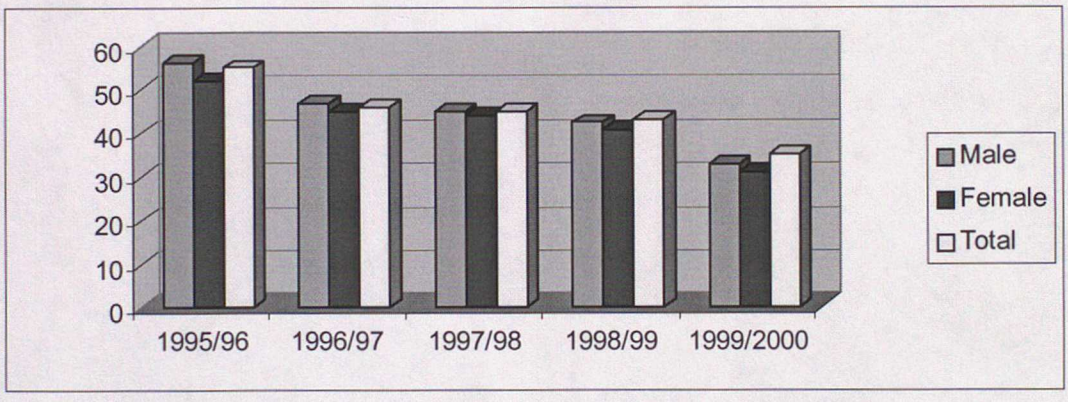
This is the percentage of a cohort of pupils enrolled in the first grade of basic primary education in a given school year who are expected to reach grade 5. Survival to grade 5 tells us the proportion of pupil's cohort that completes grade 4 and reaches grade 5. The indicator is used to assess the retaining power and internal efficiency of an education system. This rate is of a particular interest since the completion of at least 4 years of schooling is commonly considered a pre-requisite for a sustainable level of literacy.

Table 18: Survival rate to grade 5 by years 1995/96 to 1999/2000

Sex	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000
Male	56	47	45	42.4	33
Female	52	45	44	40.9	31
Total	55	46	45	43	35

Table 18 shows that survival rate to grade 5 is decreasing over time. The rate for girls is slightly lower than that of the boys in all the years under consideration. This shows the retaining power of the system is decreasing during the period under consideration.

Figure 13: Survival rate to grade 5 by years 1995/96 to 1999/2000



d) Completion Rate.

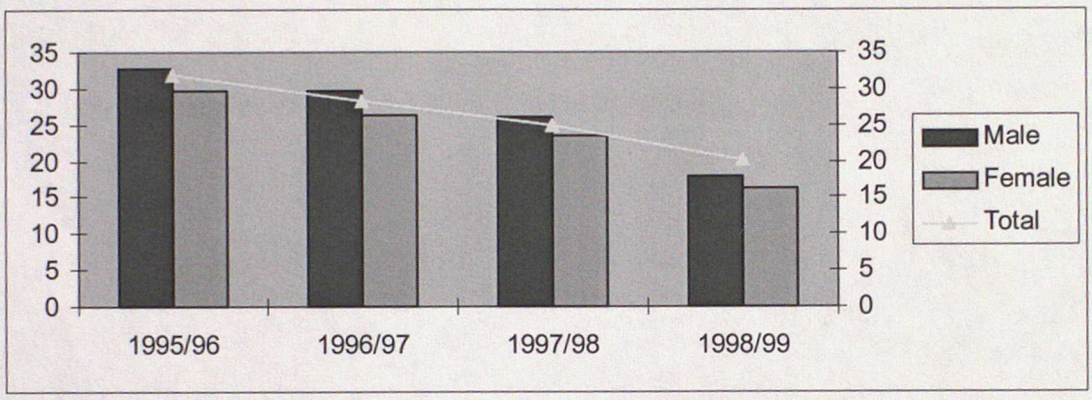
Participation by student until the end of the first cycle of primary school cycle may, however, a necessary if not sufficient condition for achieving an acceptable level of basic learning. As can be seen from Table 19 and figure 14 for the years 1995/96 to 1998/99, completion rate (the proportion of grade 1 enrollees who completed the basic primary cycle) was decreasing from 31.8% in 1995/96 to 20.1% in 1998/99. The completion rate for girls is lower than that of boys. This is consistent with the above finding of survival rate to grade 5 in which the rate for girls was lower than that of boys. This indicates girls drop out than boys. Which could be attributed to economic and socio cultural obstacles discussed in the literature. More over there are no mechanisms of measuring student learning.

Table 19: Completion rate of basic primary /1-8/ by years 1995/96 to 1998/99

Sex	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99
Male	32.9	29.6	26.1	17.9
Female	29.8	26.2	23.6	16.2
Both	31.8	28.3	24.9	20.1

This finding also supports the analysis under dropout, that in the past five years the rate of dropout was increasing which causes the completion rate to decrease.

Figure 14 Completion rate. 1995/96 to 1998/99



e) Duration of Study

The average duration of study analyzed below are based on the 1998/99 cohorts for first cycle of primary education. (See Appendix B).

Average duration of study for graduates (ASTG): - This is the estimated number of years taken by graduates to complete the cycle. Successful pupils complete the cycle and graduate in four years. But repetitions are allowed, at most two times. Out of the 1000 pupil who started grade 1, only 538 (53.8%) of them graduated completing the cycle. The average duration of study for graduates is 4.27 years. This means it takes some pupil more than 4 years to complete the cycle and eventually graduate. This indicates, even, those who graduate completing the cycle repeating grades has an effect on the efficiency of the system by increasing cost per graduate.

ii) Average duration of study for dropouts (ASTD): -

This is the estimated average number of years drop out spent in the system before dropping out. This shows how many years, on average, pupils received education before leaving the school. 462 (46.2%) of the pupil dropout from the system after spending 1.71 years in schools. The average duration of study for boys and girls is 1.58 and 1.56 respectively. This indicates male students stay in the system than female students. The more pupil stay in system, the more they learn.

3.3.1.2. Wastage In The Primary Education.

I) Coefficient of Efficiency – (CE).

This ratio is commonly referred to as an indicator of internal efficiency, which is the measurement of performance within the educational system. The coefficient of efficiency is the ratio of the ideal (optimal number of pupil year required (with no repetition or dropout) to produce a number of graduates from first cycle of primary school cohort expressed as a percentage of the actual number of pupil-year spent to produce the same number of graduates. In short, it is the reciprocal of input-out ratio. The maximum value of CE is 100, percent which indicates high efficient system. Thus CE tells us the extent to which the system is efficient or inefficient.

Planners agree that the pupil-year is a convenient, non-monetary way of measuring inputs. One pupil year stands for all the resources spent to keep one pupil in school for one year. Two pupil years, for example, represents the resources needed to keep one pupil in school for two years. Therefore, when pupils flow through the educational cycle, inputs are defined and measured in terms of pupil-year.

Based on the result of cohort analysis (see Appendix)

$$\text{Pupil year per graduate} = \frac{\text{total number of pupil year}}{\text{Out put}}$$

$$= \frac{3155}{538} = 5.86$$

Ideally, it takes 4 years to graduate from the first cycle of primary education, but this cohort took almost 2years more to produce one graduate. Therefore,

$$\text{Wastage ratio} = \frac{\text{Actual input-out ratio}}{\text{Ideal input output ratio}}$$

$$= \frac{5.86}{4} = 1.47$$

Therefore the system under consideration, Ethiopian first cycle primary schools, is characterized by a wastage ratio of 1.47 for the cohort 1998/99. This shows, in this system, the graduates are being produced at 47% higher than the ideal cost.

$$\text{Coefficient of efficiency (CE)} = \frac{\text{4-x number of graduates}}{\text{Total pupil year}}$$

$$= \frac{4x538}{3155} = \frac{2152}{3155} = 68.20\%$$

This shows, that the efficiency of the system is 68.20% of the optimal level, and 31.8% is wastage which is due to dropouts and repeaters repeating grades.

II. Proportion of total wastage due to repetition and dropouts.

The total wastage (31.8%) indicated above is due to dropouts and repeaters. Therefore, it is important to separate wastage due to dropout and wastage due to repetition. This enables to see clearly which one is contributing the most wastage (low infernal efficiency) dropouts or repeaters. The calculation from cohort analysis shows that, the total wastage is more due to dropouts (77.57%) leaving the system than repeaters repeating a grade (22.43). However, as investigated in the sample regions, there was no clearly defined strategy employed to reduce dropout rates. With regards to repetition, as indicated by experts working in regional education offices, the policy of automatic promotion was not fully implemented due to the less understanding of teachers at school level as how to implement the policy fully with no detention.

Figure 15: coefficient of efficiency for primary (1-8) male and females for 1995/96 to 1999/2000

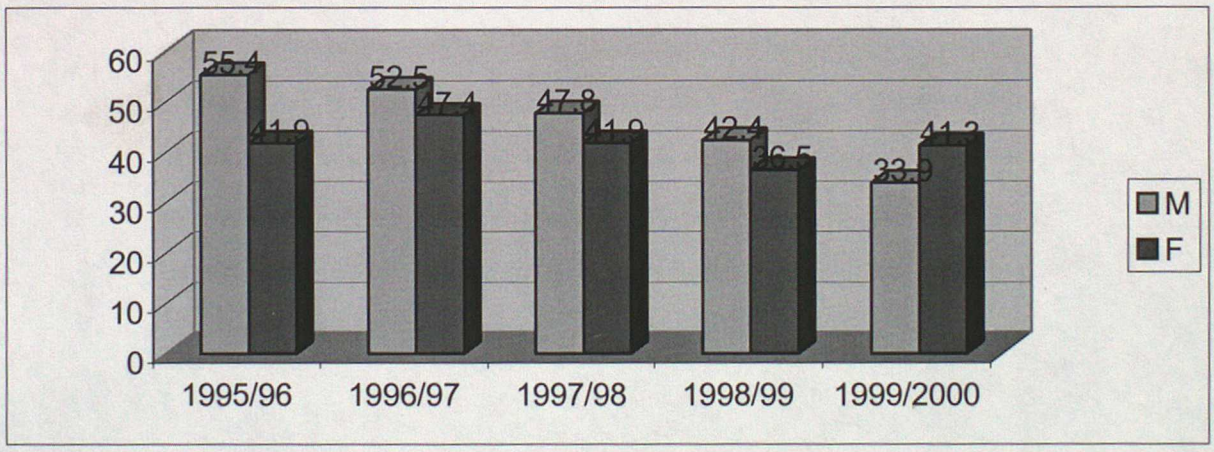


Figure 15 shows that, in the past five years the coefficient of efficiency for primary education is decreasing from male 55.4 percent and female 36.5 percent in 1995/96 to male 33.9 and female 41.3 percent to 1999/2000. This shows that the retention capacity of the system was decreasing in the past five years.

3.4. Demand for Primary Education

It cannot be assumed that a service will be used simply because it exists. Participation in schooling is determined not only by the educational opportunities that are provided to the people, but the degree of their use. Therefore, there is a need to mobilize demand and create conditions in schools and community to ensure full participation of children. The proportion of school age population to the total population and the average yearly growth of school age population can be used to measure the extent of demand for primary education across regions. But, because demand is created by the decisions that parents make (Lockheed and Verspoor 1991) based largely on the opportunity cost of schooling and on the influence of cultural and religious factors, the researcher has tried to investigate the level of demand, their causes and the mechanisms by which the regions, Amhara, Oromia and SNNP has mobilized demand and create conditions in school and community to ensure full participation.

The questionnaire and interview responses in Amhara, Oromia and SNNP regions shows that the level of demand in these regions is low and poverty (demand for child labor), distance to school, lack of awareness of the value of education are cited as major contributing factors for low demand. In additions the culture of early marriage (Amhara region) and Un employment trends are also reported as factors.

Explaining the effect of the factors poverty, in Amhara and Oromiya, the respondents pointed out that in poor families, children's labor is often critical to the income or survival of the household, especially in rural areas. When working children do attend schools, the respondents added, they have little time to study, especially females, which weakness their academic performance, and they are also malnourished which lowers their achievement level even further. From the respondent's explanation, it can be argued that poverty affects not only whether children enroll in school, but also whether they stay in school, how much they learn and exacerbates gender gaps in school participation.

Concerning the distance factor, the respond ants from SNNP, demonstrated that distance from school is a critical factor for low demand in their region. They explained the effect of the distance factor from two points. The first one is when children walk long distance to school, families incur indirect costs and the second is cultural /social problems related to walking long distance especially for girls.

Increasing the demand for education depends largely on persuading parents that education is valuable. With regard to mobilizing community support in increasing awareness and demand, in the three regions, is limited to demanding contributions and construction of schools while the trend of allowing the communities to participate in decision making is not common except in issues placed in legislation. In addition there is no flexible scheduling in the three regions other than double shift and the right of revising the school year to accommodate the seasonal demand for child labor on the farm was not give to schools. This also has a negative effect on demand for education.

In effort to mobilize community support and create awareness, only Oromia region has reported that Education week was celebrated from regional level to schools at all levels with the programs that highlights the positive aspects of schooling such as Exhibition, workshops, Seminars and Conferences involving the community.

CHAPTER- FOUR - SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

4.1 Summary

The major purpose of this study was to make a diagnostic study of the educational system and detect change in the system identify the short coming, the pressing problems which need to be solved and the area in which more effort and investment are required for improvement. Ultimately, its findings are meant to help the national and regional educational planners and policy makers and other educational experts to explore possibilities of developing more effective strategies for improving primary education to speed up progress toward the ultimate goal of Uuniversalization.

In order to achieve this purpose the following basic questions were raised.

1. What are the extents of Coverage and access to basic primary education?
2. What are the trends and patterns of educational inequality in participation rate?
3. What is the level of internal efficiency of the system?
4. What strategies should be employed to attain basic education?

The specific objectives of the study are

i. To describe the patterns of distribution of educational opportunities (schools)
ii. To identify the distinct groups who uses and who do not use educational provision.
iii. To statistically indicate the magnitude of wastage and completion rate of the system.
iv. To describe the mechanisms of gender inequalities.
    To identify the main cause of wastage in the system.

4.1.1. Access and Coverage

In the past five years, enrollment and participation rate was increasing. However, this participation rate is still lower than participation rate in many developing countries. To cite examples (UNESCO 1994), for academic year 1993, the NER for Zimbabwe and Kenya was 98 percent and 94 percent respectively. In our case, Over-aged children

dominate access to primary education. Very few children (30%) of the right age are coming to school for the first time. In the period under consideration, more boys are coming to the system than girls, there by widening the gender gap. This shows, even though enrollment has increased, access is limited mostly to over aged children and the extent of coverage is still low.

In measures taken to increase the supply of school places even though many new schools were constructed, they couldn't attract children of the right school age. Here, the major problem seems to be distance from home to school. This shows that the problem is in the pattern of distribution of schools. The way in which location for new school is planned plays a vital role in furthering access and equalizing of educational opportunity, especially for children of right school age. As indicated in the study, the trend of planning the location of schools is not systematic and there are no standardized norms established at national or regional level on which school location planning is based. In addition, the cost of school construction is very expensive and requires more resources than the country can afford. Besides increased cost, such schools cannot be constructed in remote /deprived rural areas due to geographical barriers. Given the financial and logistical difficulties of building government schools in scattered rural settlement and for reducing opportunity costs of schooling, the possibilities of using available buildings such as community centers, churches and mosques are not explored. More over, the study also shows that, in the provision of opportunities to basic primary education, the contribution of NGOs and private sectors was very low. From this it can be argued that the system was week in creating partnership between the government and NGOs, business communities, religious groups etc.

On the other hand, the investigation made through questionnaire and interview to know the level of demand for primary education shows, that the level of demand is very low. The major factors cited as affecting demand are, poverty (need for child labor), distance to school and lack of awareness about the importance of education. In increasing access, strategies to mobilize demand are as important as, if not more important, strategies to increase the supply of school places. With respect to this, the rigidity of the system, that

is, the absence of flexible school schedule other than using double shift and the absence of programs designed to demonstrate the importance of education of children indicate the attempts made to increase demand was very low. In sum, from the above explanations, it can be argued that in the past five years, to push to expand access to schooling by increasing the supply of school places only through the construction of new schools seems to dominate the agenda of increasing access and on the other hand much attention was not given to the demand side. Both the supply side and demand side of the equation were not treated well, in such a way that they can increase the extent of access.

4.1.2. Educational Inequality

Participation in primary education has increased over the past five years from 31 percent to 51 percent, but with varying degree of equity in pupil's access to schooling. Because, expanding access to basic education is an effective way to improve equity, the above finding, limited access, shows there would be inequality. The finding of the study under this section shows individuals are suffering from learning inequalities because of their location and gender.

4.1.2.1. Trends and patterns of Regional Inequality in Participation Rate.

In the past five years, the regional disparity in participation rate has decreased very slightly indicating the attempt made to reduce regional disparities was not satisfactory. Three regions, Somali, Afar and Amhara has participation rate below the national average indicating they are less represented in receiving schooling. The condition is worst in Somali and Afar regions where more than 90% of school age children are out of schools. These three regions were also less privileged before five years in 1995/96 and remained unchanged in their representation in enrollments. This shows, the pattern remained unchanged and Amhara (West North) and Eastern Part (Afar Eastern top to Somali Eastern bottom) are less privileged in access to primary education, and the effect was accumulating for many years.

When we look at the two ends of continuum of disparity, least privileged (Afar, Somali) on one side and most privileged (Addis Ababa, Dire Dawa and Harari), on the other side, one can argue that the most privileged regions are urbanized and better developed hence, tend to be better in primary school coverage than non urbanized areas. Because they were the central area of economic, social and political activities, they are more advantaged. This indicates the pattern of socio economic inequalities between regions has an effect on patterns of inequality in participation rate in primary education. Therefore, participation in schooling is mainly a function of socio economic dynamics than any other variable because this factor is the one, which plays active role on both supply and demand side. The demand for education is higher in regions highly represented in receiving schooling. This can be best explained by the words of coombs. Educational demand feeding on itself creates its own dynamics. A population that suddenly starts getting more education soon wants still more (Coombs 1985). Schools are also concentrated to the privileged regions and Somale and Afar are less represented in schools they receive.

With regards to patterns of inequality, with the exception of Tigray regional states, the usual north south pattern in educational disparity continued to persist. This finding is consistent with the finding of other studies.

As shown earlier, the two regions, Somali and Afar has the lowest level of educational status in that they have the highest percentage of illiterate population. As socio economic variable, the educational status of the region has an impact on participation rate of school age children. Where parents have not themselves been to school, and remain illiterate there is no basis on which the school can anticipate any understanding of its aims or activities.

4.1.2.2. Gender Inequality

In the past five years, even though girl's participation is getting better, more boys are still coming to the system than girls. Hence girl's participation is still lower than that of boys. Even though in all regions, except Addis Ababa, girl's participation is lower than that of boys, in Oromiya, Somali, Beneshangul Gummuz and SNNP girls' participation is half way behind their male counterparts.

Examining the equity issue relating to the education of girls, the share of boys attending school is still higher than the share of girls is. Female participation rate, like total participation rate, is higher in more urbanized and privileged regions than in less privileged regions. As a whole, the mechanisms of gender in equality takes place in three ways: The first one is inequality in access (participation) that is male participation is higher than that of females indicating the absence of equal opportunity to enter school. The second is inequality in process. Inefficiency in student flow, for example, is often accompanied by inequality, in that repetition and dropout are most common among females than among males. Third in equality of success (out come) Completion rate is relatively higher for males than for females. What is stressed here is that inequality of opportunity or access is not the only way of gender inequality in education, and inequality is high even after being in the process.

In sum, it can be argued that, in the past five years even though, more girls were attracted to schools, the number of boys coming to schools is still greater than that of girls, and the gender gap still persists.

4.1.3. Internal Efficiency

Between the years 1995/96 and 1999/2000, the repetition rate shows a decreasing trend. Even though the policy states automatic promotion in the first three grades of basic primary, in practice repeaters in these grades are still reported. This shows weak implementation of the policy at school level. For the cohort 1998/99, the repetition rate

is highest in grade 1. The rate for other grades is less than that of grade 1. In addition, girls repeat in all grades (1-4) than boys. High repetition, in grade 1 could be explained by an increase in class size and lack of experience of children before they begin formal primary schooling, because the highest class size is observed in grade 1 and 98.2 percent of the kindergarten age population did not get access to early childhood education.

Participation by student until the end of the first cycle of primary school may, however, is a necessary if not sufficient condition, for achieving an acceptable level of basic learning. From the years 1996/97 to 1999/2000 the dropout rate shows an increasing trend. That is, the survival rate (retention capacity) of the system was decreasing. Gender wise the survival rate of males was found to be slightly better than that of females. This shows primary schools completion rates declined over the past five years. The cumulative effect of repetition and dropout on primary education shows that only of the students who enter first cycle of primary education ever graduate from it. With regards to dropout rate by grade, it is highest at grade one. When students dropout after only one or two years of schooling, public resources are wasted because most retain little of what they learned in such a short time.

As a result of high wastage due to repetition and dropout, especially at early grads, the internal efficiency at primary level was found to be low. In the years under consideration the efficiency of the system decreases tremendously. One child according to 1998/99-cohort analysis is being produced (trained) at 47% higher than the ideal cost. The low internal efficiency (wastage) is more due to dropout. Thus the problem of dropout is more serious than that of repetition. Pupil leaves the system even before they obtain skills in basic literacy and numeracy. These dropouts have occupied school spaces, there by obstructing other children who did not have chance of coming to school. They have used resource that could have been utilized for others in the system or could be used to attract others to come to the school.

The finding of this study in relation to access, mentioned earlier, shows that, access to basic primary education is dominated by over aged children. The effect of attracting many over aged children to the system is seen now, in that most of them tend to drop out.

In sum, it can be argued from the above that the problem in the system is not only to attract more children to school but also to keep those who have already joined the school in the system.

4.2. Conclusion

4.2.1. Access - Even though enrollment was increasing, because the system is in a problem of recruiting children of right school age, access to basic primary education is limited and dominated by over aged children. As a result of limited access, more than of the children of the right school age are out of schools. The two sides of access, provision and utilization are in red. Reaching full enrollment of age group 7-10 remains a major challenge in the future. This is because, the relatively initial expansion of enrollment apparently occurred is largely among those segment of the population where the demand for schooling was already high. Those groups not yet enrolled are those more difficult to reach than the early groups, and the measures required to get them in the school may be more expensive. Change in the pattern of supply of schooling seem-called for but would such support side alone solve the problem is an area to be focused more, and factors constraining the demand side of the equation also come in to play. However, lack of adequate access to schools need not prevent any child from attaining a common educational foundation for life and for further learning

4.2.2. Equity - Equalizing access to schools is not just a matter of increasing the number of school places. School participation is an interaction of supply demand and the learning process (Lockheed and Vapor 1991). Educational demand, educational supply and the learning process are not consistent across the entire primary school population certain groups of children are educationally disadvantage in all regions, this was reflected

in their enrollment, tendency to stay in schools and completion rates. The study indicated that children still suffer from learning inequalities because of their location and gender. Providing equitable access to primary education is major challenge in implementing basic education.

The challenge for educational development in Ethiopia can only be understood against the background of the great diversity of educational and socio-economic context among the regions. This indicates past inequalities reparations and that individuals or group who have been exposed to fewer resources in the past, now deserves more than their proportional share of current resource. It seems based on this logic that the federal state is using the policy of giving priority through more resource provision to less privileged regions to reduce regional disparity. But it cannot be assumed that a service will be utilized and used simply because it exists. As long as regions differ in manpower, experience, commitment and political conditions some will utilize resources more efficiently and more quickly than others. Demand for education also goes with level of socio economic development. The philosophy of equal opportunity acknowledges that inequality of utilization would not disappear. Therefore, regional educational inequality will continue to exist unless a commitment to equality goes farther than equal opportunity policies, to remove the economic and other socio cultural barriers that prevent those who grow up under disadvantaged circumstance.

4.2.3. Efficiency: - Participation by students until the end of the first cycle of primary schooling, is a necessary condition to attain basic education. However, the internal efficiency of the system was found to be **very low** due to high Wastage rate caused by repetition and dropout rates. The holding capacity of the system is very weak. From this it can be argued that the system's student flow and Completion rate is very low. However the goal of primary education system is to produce graduates who have learned the skills prescribed by the curriculum. Thus the most relevant measure of a system's effectiveness is not the number of students enrolled, which is often used to evaluate educational progress, but the number of graduates who have achieved the required level

of learning. Dropouts and repeaters raise the costs associated with producing a graduate of a primary education system. These costs can have three components. First is the amount spent directly on schooling: both the cost to society for providing a place for each child in school and the cost for items like school supplies. Second is the opportunity cost of school children's time? Third is the future cost to dropouts and their parents: failure to complete a primary education translation to a lower rate of return for each year of schooling missed.

Even when grade repetition does not decrease the number of graduates, it delays completion of the primary education cycle and raises the cost associated with producing a graduate. High repetition rate also hinders the school's ability to accommodate new students and its effectiveness. In addition, repetition increases the direct costs that parents pay for their child's education.

Universalization of primary education immensely requires the holding power of the educational system in making students longer in schools. Obviously, a system incapable of holding pupils within it cannot keep the relative balance between the demand and supply of education. In efficiency in achievement of educational objectives that are caused by repetition and dropout or their combined effect, abstract the effort of universalizing primary education. To this end the system is using the available school places and facilities inefficiently and is in a problem of recruiting and admitting new school age children. The progressive educational system should, if not avoid, minimize the magnitude of wastage and expected to be less expensive by properly utilizing its scarce resources for educational development.

In sum providing equitable access to primary education and ensuring that children who are in school complete the whole cycle are the major problems in implementing basic education in Ethiopia. However, to address the problems, priority must be set, to indicate the pressing problem, which need to be solved, and the area in which more efforts and investment are required for improvement. Therefore the first priority for the system should be improving the internal efficiency of the system-that is to keep those children

who already have joined school in the system before trying to attract others to schooling. This is not without reason. Improvement in educational efficiency will be often be possible through policy changes and efforts that require no specific investment.

Efficiency, in addition to increasing the utilization of school places and facilities, has an effect on access and equity and the system under implementation is mostly affected by inefficiency, more over:

a) Establishing an educational infrastructure that provides access to good education for all students was made more expensive by the inefficiencies in the flow of students.
b) Inefficiency keeps both the number of students in school and the quality of education they receive much below what the available fund might permit.
c) Improved education could be achieved with the same, even less public spending by focusing on increasing internal efficiency of the system, which solves the problem of recruiting and admitting new school age children. That is efficiency can solve the problem of access and equity.
d) Equal access to educational facilities does not necessarily ensure equal use of those resources among population, but efficient system ensures equal use of that resource.
e) Inefficiency has a regressive effect on equity in educational system, because repetition and dropouts are more prevalent among females than among males.

Therefore, improving the efficiency, of primary education and using available resources more efficiently is a priority that the system cannot ignore. Second equitable access to school must be provided for all school age children.

The above priority obviously is for national system. However, because there is diversity in the education challenge that regions face, understanding the importance of formulating education policies specific to each region are paramount. In regions with high enrollment and high dropout, for example, the above mentioned priority, effort to keep children in school can have as much impact on the overall enrollment rates as efforts to increase opportunities for enrollment in other regions with very low participation rate.

The slow growth of enrollment especially for right school age children low demand for education, high rate of dropout and repetition at early grades, the continued, rapid growth of population and limited resources combine to make an extending equitable access to the disadvantaged groups increasingly difficult and expensive. In point of fact, it seems impossible to universalize education until a certain economic level has been reached, because it presupposes, first, the existence of necessary financial means, and second, the development of productivity up to the point where child labor ceases to be indispensable on the land and at home. Therefore, one of the country's educational challenge; perhaps the strongest change, is the Universalization of basic education. The question is how the broad and somewhat abstract goal of basic education for all by 2015 can be given practical meaning and substance? Nevertheless, to achieve the stated goal of universal and equitable access to basic primary education, the federal and regional states must commit the necessary resources and design strategies that will open school door to the disadvantaged segment of the society.

CHAPTER FIVE

STRATEGIES FOR PROMOTING EQUITABLE ACCESS AND EFFICIENCE TO ATTAIN BASIC EDUCATION.

In light of the findings of the study and conclusions made, the following recommendations are forwarded as strategies for promoting equitable access and efficiency to attain basic education. The strategies address supply-side interventions and demand -side interventions.

5.1. Supply - Side Interventions

5.1.1. The Need for Norms and Standards.

Distance is a significant factor determining school attendance particularly for girls and rural children. Hence, the first step in increasing access to primary education is to address the supply of schools. However, the supply of schools can solve the problem of access only when schools are constructed where most needed. To do this there should be a set of administrative policies and procedures that are used to plan the distribution and spacing of schools. Policies for expanding an educational system equitable can be implemented efficiently through school location planning. School location planning attempts to plan the pattern of educational provision so as to allow more pupils to have easier access to schools as well as to allow a more efficient use of current and additional resources. Therefore, there should be standardized norms (model) on which school location planning is based. The preparation of such model will serve the dual purpose of having a general application in the country as a whole and can be used by local authorities for more detailed analysis of school location at local level. Therefore, part of the national effort in supply of schools should therefore involve the preparation of manuals of standard in which these norms vary within acceptable limits.

5.1.2. Reducing the cost of school construction.

School construction is not cheap and requires more resources than the country can afford. However, efforts to increase the supply of school places must continue and should seek creative approaches for extending access to disadvantaged groups. One of such approaches is developing and using school designs that meet minimum standards, which are much less expensive than those typically, used at present. Reliance on local materials could reduce the cost of school construction and such schools could be constructed in remote/deprived rural areas irrespective of geographical barriers.

5.1.3. The use of Available Space.

Given the financial and logistical difficulties of building government schools in scattered rural settlement, and for reducing opportunity costs of schooling, using existing buildings such as community centers, churches and mosques as schools is a feasible and cost-effective. In such areas, population density might be low, and pupil within acceptable range of distance from school is not numerous enough to fill individual classes. Under such conditions, student-teacher ratios and the use of spaces can be significantly improved by multi-grade teaching and the nuclear satellite school networking Multi-grade teaching can improve access in rural communities, and addresses the problem of uneconomically small classes as well as that of incomplete schools.

5.1.4. Focusing on Girls Enrollment - Reducing Gender gap.

I) In creasing the number of female teachers: - An increase in the number of female teachers is desirable for a range of reasons, but particularly since female teachers are often the only women in position of authority in rural areas who are able to act as role models. Their presence is likely to encourage parents to send their children to school, both because they see opportunities for their daughters outside the household, and because of the increased sense of security for girls when female teachers are present. The percentage of female teacher is still low. The current government policy of affirmative

action of recruiting 50 percent female teachers should increase the percentage of female teachers in the system especially in regions where low female participation rate is observed. However, increasing the number of female teachers alone does not bring change. What matters is where they are assigned and play their role model. Given the harsh conditions in rural areas and deprived regions, women might be discouraged from teaching there. Thus, incentives for female's teachers to work in school in more remote areas may be required, for example, through provision of housing near the school and measures to ensure their security should to be taken.

ii) Giving gender awareness training: - Gender awareness training should also be provided to officials at different levels of educational system, for example, worked and Zonal officials, directors and teachers since they have an influence over policy implementation, and to overcome the negative influence of teacher's attitude.

iii) Improving physical facilities: - The provision of separate latrine for boys and girls in all schools would help reduce the problem girls face in school.

5.1.5. Strengthening Early Childhood Education

Parents, family and community based programs, which maximize the involvement of local people in providing kindergarten, and government-sponsored interventions can strengthen early childhood education. Beside this, kindergarten teachers training programmes should be started in all TTI_S integrated with the already existing training programs to increase the supply of teachers in this sub sector.

5.1.6. Increasing the Role of Private Sector.

Even though the policy is favoring the involvement of private sector in the education system, their involvement especially in basic primary education sub sector is insignificant. Increasing the role of private sectors in offering education can reduce cost of education to the government allowing funds to be allocated to areas of greater need, it

can improve efficiency and contribute to goal of education for all such as broader access, higher quality and more relevant education. Private schools can benefit the urban poor indirectly by relieving some of the pressure on severely crowded urban schools, where wealthy families are encouraged to withdraw their children from public schools and reduce their commitment to public education. Therefore, using different techniques such as tax incentives, reducing bureaucratic procedures and subsidies, ensuring that equity is not endangered, should encourage privatization.

5.1.7. Using Existing primary Education Resources Efficiently: - Reducing Repetition and Dropout Rates-

Increasing student flow and completion rate enables to use the existing primary education resources efficiently. Efficiency in flow of students-the input/output ratio can be improved by reducing rates of repetition and dropout.

Because efficiency implies obtaining maximum output, both in terms of quantity as well as quality, at a minimum cost, it is important to combine techniques for improving the quantitative efficiency and the efficiency in learning in to a comprehensive plan. To maximize the flow of students through the system it is necessary to identify and probe bottlenecks that exist at various points and examine the effect of removing them on costs and the quality of learning. For instance, improvement in rates of repetition and dropout typically require improved and up graded performance by teachers, better instructional materials, and increased and improved physical plant and equipment. These measures, by themselves, may increase the unit cost per student. But the gain from a reduction in waste should compensate for the increase in unit cost. Techniques for improving quantitative efficiency, therefore, will normally release enough resource of finance improvements in the efficiency in learning. This in turn, may contribute further to quantitative efficiency. In sum, by improving the flow of students resources that would otherwise be spent on students who repeat and dropout can be used to improve school quality and expand access.

I) Reducing Repetition rate- Although the policy states automatic promotion at the first three grades of primary, the highest repetition rate is reported in these grades. Thus, strengthening the implementation of automatic promotion at school level is one way to reduce repetition. But, because the real issue is not promotion but prevention of failure, the ultimate solution lies in improving the school environment to reduce repetition.

ii) Reducing Drop out Rates: - To substantially lower the dropout rates, schools must develop an active intervention programmers that consider the causes of drop out. These may include family related factors, student characteristics such as low regard for the future utility of education, poor motivation and low academic ability, and school related factors- such as poor classroom environment or school ineffectiveness. Reducing dropout, whatever the cause, requires a commitment by school systems, school administrators, teachers and community to make dropout prevention a priority. The effort needs the joint venture of all in school and out of school communities. Hence, School-community interaction should be strengthened.

5.1.8. Intensifying Literacy Program for Adults: - Adult literacy is the necessary complement of primary education for children if rapid progress towards the elimination of illiteracy is to be made. Not only literacy programs allow youngsters and adults to acquire the basic skills, which they have been denied during Childhood, but they also have indirect positive effects on the expansion of primary education. It seems commendable to raise the participation of parents in school affairs. The participation of parents can be realized only when parents understood school objectives. Thus raising the level of parent's education may help a lot. To this end, therefore, the literacy program has to be intensified at national /regional level.

5.1.9. Alternative patterns of primary school provision: - Reaching Deprived groups.

The combination of an increasing absolute number of children out of school, low primary completion rates and high demographic pressure means that the formal education system

is likely to continue to be inadequate as a mechanism for attaining universal basic education. Thus, in each region there are some target populations, which, for various reasons cannot be reached by the formal school system.

To meet the needs of these population groups, attention should be focused on alternative patterns of providing primary level education. The out of school or non-formal education programmes should adjust to the peculiar needs, life styles and routines of their target groups. Adoptability, flexibility, and decentralized management should be the key characteristics of these programmes. At presents most of the regions have a number of such programmes, which are usually run by international or local NGOs. But most of these programmes do not have adequate link with the main stream of formal education. This invariable becomes part of the disadvantage of these programmes.. Therefore, this calls for clear policy statement which link these non formal schools with the formal schools in the same area and guarantee a certificate for the students form these program for further schooling opportunities.

5.1.10. Building Partnership and Mobilizing Resources.

Because the mechanisms of attaining basic education are complex and diverse, meeting them requires multi-sartorial strategies and actions, which are integral to overall development efforts. Many partners must join with the education authorities, teachers and other educational personnel in implementing basic education if it is to be seen as the responsibility of the entire population. In building partnership there should be opportunities to bring together the several actual or potential partners involved in attaining basic education, example family and community organizations, Voluntary associations' NGOs, religious bodies, teachers' association, other professional groups, employers, the media, political parties, universities, and other institutions, and other government departments and services such as labor, agriculture, health, industry, defense etc. It is hopped that such partnership will relive pressure on the government budget by mobilizing additional financial and material resources, and will improve equitable access and efficiency.

5.1. Demand-Side-Interventions

5.2.1. Community Sensitization /Awareness.

Efforts to sensitize and mobilize community can take many forms of which regional school enrollment Week conducted in Oromia region (Similar to National School enrollment day in Philippines) can be taken as good example. The objectives of the national /regional school enrollment week was to launch a major advocacy and social mobilization campaign to increase enrollment by house to house registration, aware the community not to return their children from school and to increase the participation of the community in educational development of the region through enlisting support from other government department by building partnership. The week was also celebrated at regional, zone, Woreda and school level by conducting public conferences, exhibition and workshops focusing on persuading parents that education especially girls education is valuable.

Community sensitization can also be conducted by giving constant airtime on radio, television and newspaper. Of course, to be effective such programmes must use the local /indigenous languages of the regions. Moreover, mobilizing the community organizations, social, political and religious groups at national, regional and local level to sensitize the community is also the best method because these groups are highly in touch with the community.

Social mobilization is a powerful tool, which can also accomplish much in terms of persuading families to send children school and keep then there for the full cycle.

However, it is also a tool, which needs to be handled with caution. What was described as mobilization for the literacy campaigns in Ethiopia under the earlier regime, for example, is now being called coercion by some analysts. There is also a sense in which

mobilization campaigns can ride on the back of major funding, to achieve some success in short term without getting to the heart of the problem.

5.2.2. Enforcing Compulsory Attendance Laws.

In areas where primary schools are available and demand for education is low due to opportunity costs, customary, cultural and religious attitudes, enforcing compulsory attendance laws is one possible strategy. In such areas when school attendance is not compulsory the demand for schooling is largely a function of the calculation of private and opportunity costs as related to perceived future income and status benefits. Enforcing compulsory attendance would increase enrollment and completion rates and could decrease the number of dropouts. Hence, the need for legally forced participation is a necessity. This intervention is particularly urgent in regional states where participation rates are below the national average.

Other strategies to improve school attendance include monitoring of student attendance by establishing village education committee, enrollment campaigns, and village level surveys that identify students who are not in school.

5.2.3. Reducing Opportunity Costs: - One of the major factors affecting household decisions on schooling is the opportunity cost of children's time, which appears to be highest for girls. It is the poor who depend upon the income from child labor. Revising the school time locally to accommodate the seasonal demands for child labor on the farm and in the field is a relatively painless and inexpensive solution. The school day may also be changed to accommodate the daily work schedules by providing classes early in the morning or in the evening. In such cases the right to change the school schedule should be given to schools. In sum, flexible scheduling is a key strategy for reducing opportunity costs and improving the schooling of girls and rural children, there by increasing demand.

5.2.4. Identifying Priority Area Zones.

The Federal Ministry of education has the belief to address the issue of regional disparity through a policy of subsidy. This policy alone has only limited or no impact in bridging regional gaps. It cannot be assumed that a service will be utilized and used simply because it exists. As long as regions differ in manpower, experience, commitment and political conditions, some will utilize resources more efficiently and more quickly than others. The philosophy of equal opportunity acknowledges that inequality of utilization would not disappear. Therefore, educational inequality will continue to exist unless a commitment to equality goes farther than the policy of subsidy, to remove the economic and other socio cultural and socio-political barriers, in the disadvantaged regions. Hence, the zoning of areas that needs priority of attention may provide an avenue to form units (zones) that needs special attention in educational planning. More over, for mounting a national cooperative effort, the goal have to be set in a way that makes it possible for each region to begin from where it stands now in order to make the maximum possible progress towards the ultimate goal.

5.2.5. Creating a supportive Policy Environment.

To be fully effective, the overall policy environment must support a multi sectional plan of action. Therefore, the policies governing the sectors concerned may have to be adjusted. The purpose of such adjustment is to ensure that the relevant aspects of all concerned sectors interact so that they are mutually supportive, more effective, in line with country's overall development goals. Actions to attain basic education should be seen as vital part of the country's total development efforts.

Moreover, legislative and administrative measures may be needed to create consultive mechanisms. For example, establishing council for basic education at national, regional, zonal, woreda and kebele level. In addition official and voluntary channels can be used to build public awareness of, and commitment to, the goal of education for all.

Supportive policies in the social, cultural and economic spheres are also required in order to realize the full provision and utilization of basic education for individual and societal improvement.

In sum, the success of these strategies will be determined, to a large extent, by the degree of political commitment of central and local authorizes to the dual goals of achieving universal basic education and equalize further education opportunities. Success will also depend on their wiling to deal with various interest groups for whom the cost of an increase in education opportunities would be a sacrifice of status, power, or comparative advantage. Without sufficient commitment and political skill in bringing the interested parties to accept the changes, innovative and promising new policies and programs will not be fully implemented.

129
14
115
23:00

BIBILIOGRAPHY

1. Books

Adams, D and Bjork, R.M (1969). Education in Developing Areas. New York:David Mckey Company, Inc.

Anaa Craft (1996). Primary Education Assessing and planning Learning. Londn: Routtedge

Atle, H and Abel, G.M.I (19840. Educational planning in Developing Countries. Stockholm: Almquist and Wiskell International.

Baum, W.C and Tolbet, S.M (1995), Investing in Development: Lessons of World Bank Experience, New York: Oxfored University Press.

Benerjii, Rukimini (1988) "Why don't children Complete primary schools? A case study of a Low-Income Neighborhood in Delhi," Advancing in Education Policy: perspectives On the Functions of schools. London. Jai press Inc.

Bishop, G.C. (1986). Innovation in Education. London: The Mac Millan Publishers.

Bray, M.P., Clarke, B. and Stephen, D (1986). Education and Society in Africa. London: Edwards Arnold (Publishers) Ltd.

Brimer, A.M and pauili, L. (1971). Wastage in Education: A World Problem. Paris: UNESCO.

Caillods, Francoise and Pastlethwaite (1995). "Teaching and Learning Conditions in Developing Countries," Educational Planning: The International Dimension. New York: Garland Publishing, Inc.

Carron, Gabriel and Chau, Ta Ngoc (1996). The Quality of Primary Schools in Defferent Development Contexts. Paris: UNESCO

Carron, Gabriel (1985). The Social Back Ground of Pupil and Inequality in Educational Opportunity. Paris. UNESCO/IIEP.

Carron, Gabriel and Chau, Ta Ngoc (1981). Reduction in Regional Disparities: The Role of Educational Planning, Paris UNESCO-IIEP

Carron, Gabriel and Chau. To Ngoc (1980). Regional Disparities in Educational Development: Diagnosis and policies for Reduction. Paris, UNESCO-IIEP.

Chantavanich, A., Chantavanich, S. and Fry, G(1990), Evaluating Primary Education: Qualitative and Quantitative Policy Studies in Thailand. Ottawa: IDRC.

Cochrance, S. (1979). Fertility in Education: What Do We Really know?

Coombs, Philip (1985). The World crisis in Education: The view from the Eighties. New York: Oxfored university press.

Cole, M. (1997) Promoting Equality in Primary Schools: London Dave Hill and Sharanjeha.

Dale, R.R. and Griffiths, S. (1970), "The Influence of the Home" In craft, M. (ed.) Family class and Education: A Reader London: Longman Group Ltd.

Farrants, j.S.(1980) Principles and Practices of Education: (New ed) London: Longman Ltd.

Fassil J.K. etal (1975) Educational out comes Measurment in Developing Countries. Washngton D.C: Geogetown Universcty.

FAWE, (1996). Girls and African Education: Research and Action to keep Girls in school. Nairobi: FAWE International House.

Filp J. etal (1983), "Relationship between Pre primary and grade one primary education in state schools in chile." In Preventing School faiure: The Relationship Between Pre school and primary Education. Ottawa: IDRC.

Fiske, Edward. B. (1998) Wasted Opprtunities: When School Fail: Repetition and Dropout in primary schools paris: paris UNESCO.

Forojalla, S.B (1993): Educational planning for Development. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Gould, W.T.S (1993) people and Education in Thrid World. New York: Long Man Scientific and Teachnical.

Haile, W.M. (1976). "Government School in Ethiopia "In Bender et al (eds) Language in Ethiopia. London: Oxfored University Press.

Hallak, J. (1990) Investing in the Future: Setting Educational priorities in the Developing World. Paris:UNESCO.

Hyde, K.A. (1989). Improving Women's Education in Sub-saharan Africa. A Review of the Literature. Washingtan D.C: The World Bank.

IIEP/UNESCO (1995). Development After Jomtien EFA in the South-East Asia and Pacefic Region. Paris: IIEP/UNESCO

_____ (1995) Designing Basic Education Programs and Projects. Paris. IIEP/UNESCO

_____ (1994) Educational Access and Coverage (Module 1) self Instructional Material: 3rd edition. Paris IIEP/UNESCO

_____ (1994) Internal Efficiency of an Educational system (Module 2) self. Instructional material 3rd edition. Paris IIEP/UNESCO

_____ (1994) Educational Cost Expenditure and planning (Module 3) Self. Instructional Material 3rd edition. Paris IIEP/UNESCO

_____ (1994) Planning the Recruitment and Utilzation of Teachers (Module-4) self-Instructional material 3rd edition. Paris IIEP/UNESCO.

_____ (1981) Planning Education for Reducing Inequalities Paris, IIEP/UNESCO.

Johnstone, J.N (1981) Indicators of Educational System. Paris. Kogan page.

Kann.U. (1996)-Carrier Development in Changing Society. Stockholm/IIE

King, E.M. and R.T. Bellow. (1988): The effect of peru's push to Improve Education. Washington D.C: The World Bank.

Lavy, V. (1992). "Investment in Human Capital: Schooling Supply Constraints in Rural Ghana." Living Standard Measurment Study Working Paper No. 93 Washington D.C. The World Bank.

Lockheed, Marlaine E. and Bloch, Deborah (1990) Primary Education: A World Bank Policy paper. Washengton, D.C: The World Bank.

Lockheed, Marlaine E, and Verspoor, Adriaan M. (1991) Improving Primary Education in Developing Countries. Oxfored: Oxfored University Press.

Mingat, Alain and Tan, Jel-peng (1988) Analytical Tools for Sector Work in Education. Batimore and London: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

OAU and UNICEF (1992). Aficas children, Africas Future. Addis Ababa: OAU.

Odaga, A. and W. Heneveld. (1995). Girls and Schools in Sub-Saharan Africa, From Analysis to Action. Washington D.C: World Bank.

Osler, Audrey (1994) Development Education, London, Cassell Villeers House.

Owens,. Thomas E (1997) Reducing Repetition Issues and Strategies. Paris, UNESCO

Phillips, H.M (1974) Basic Education: A World Challenge. London John Willy and Sons.

Psacharopaulos. G (1982) "Inequalities in Educational and Inequalities in Educational Development, Paris, UNSECO.

Rajput j.s (1996) Universalization of Elementary Education, newdelhi; Vikas Publishing Prt. Ltd.

Roderick, M (1993) The path to Droppingout: Evedence for Intervention Westport. Auburn House.

Simmons: J (1980) "An overview of policy Issues in the 1980s" In Simmon; J. The Education Dilema: policy Issues for Developing Countries in the 1980s. Oxfored: Pergamon Press.

Simmons, J. and Alexander, L. (1980) "Factors which promote school Achievement in Developing Countries." A Review of Research". In Simmons. J. The Education Dilema: Policy Issues for the Developing Countries in the 1980: Oxfored: Pergemon press.

Taddese Mengesha (1974) Primary School Dropouts in Rural Ethiopia planning and Policy Implication. Anna Arbor University Microfilms.

Tan, Jee-Peen and Mingat, Alain (1992) Education in Asia: A Comprehensive Study of Cost and Financing. Washington, D.C. The World Bank.

Tekeste, N. (1990) The crsis of Ethiopian Education: Some Implications for National Building: Uppsala: uppsala University.

Teshome G.Wagaw. (1979) Education in Ethiopia: Prospect and Retrospect. London. Johns Wiley and Sons

UNESCO (1995)- Development Since Jomtien – EFA in the Middle East and North Africa. Paris, IIEP/UNESCO

_____ (1994) Tree Years After Jonstien-EFA in Eastern and Southern Africa Regions. Paris: IIEP/UNESCO

_____ (1992) Education for All-An Expanded Vision. Paris. IIEP/UNESCO

_____ (1990) Meeting Basic Learning Meeds: Avision for the 1990_s New York, UNESCO.

_____ (1989) Measuring Access to and Participation in Edudation. Paris. IIEP/UNESCO

_____ (1986) Inaternational Year Bork of Education, Paris UNESCO

World Bank (1997) Primary Education in India, Washington D.C. The World Bank.

_____ (1995) Development in Practice: Priorities and Strategies for Education. A World Bank Review. Washington D.C. The World Bank.

_____ (1988) E ducation in Sub-Saharan Africa Policy for Adjustment, Revitalization and Expansion. Washington D.C. The World Bank.

_____ (1980) Education Sector Policy Paper Washengton D.C World Bank.

Zewdie, A. and I. Barbara (1990). Women's Work Load and Time use in Four Peasant Associations in Ethiopia. Newyork: UNICEF

-2- Journal Articles

Ayalew S. (1989) "Some Trends in Regional Disparities in Primary School Participation in Ethiopia. "The Ethiopian Journal of Education" Vol. 11.No.1.

Brown, B.B (1980) "Girls Achievement in School in Botswana" Botswana Notes and Records. Vol. 12 No. 2

Brown, B.F (1980) "A study of the school needs of children from one parent Families" Phi Delta Kappan Vol. 16. No. 8.

Colclough, C (1982): "The impact of primary schooling on Economic Development: A Review of the Evedence". World Development Vol. 10, No. 3.

Commish, N.K. and C. Brook. (1994). "State and Status Quo; Factors Affecting the Education of Girls in Cameron." International Joournal of Education Vol. 24, No. 23.

Elliot, D.S., Voss, H.L and Wendling, A (1966). "Capable Dropouts and the Social Mileu of the high school". The Journal of Educational Research Vol. 60, No. 4.

Halpern, R(1986) "Effectts of Early Childhood Intervention on Primary school: Progress in Latin America." Comparative Education Review. Vol. 30, No. 2

Heyneman, S. (1976) "A Brief Note on Relationship Between Socio Economic Status and Test Performance Among Uganda Primary School Children". Comparative Education Review Vol. 24. No. 2

Kelly. G.P and Y. Lulat (1980) "Women and Schooling in third World". Comparative Education Review: Vol. 24. Part 2.

Labree, D.F (1984). "Setting the Standard: Alternative Policy for Students Promotion". Harvared Education Review Vol. 54. No. 1

Levin, H.M (1987) "Accelerated schools for disadvantage students". Educational Leadership Vo. 44.No.6

Lery. M.B (1971) "Determinats of Primary school Dropout in developing countries" Comparative Education Review Vol. 15. No. 1

March. M (1984) "The prevention of Failure in Elementary schools in Czechosolovakia". Prospects Vol. 14. No. 3

Riley, R.W (1986) "Can we Reduce the Risk of Failure? Phi Delta Kappan Vol. 68, No. 4

11. Seyoum Teferra, (1986) "The Education of Women in Ethiopia: A Missing Piece in the Development puttel? The Ethiopia Journal of Education Vol. 10.No.

Scott, J.D and Cllark, M-L (1986) "The school Experience of Black Girls: The Interaction of Gender, Race, and Socio economic status". Phi Delta Kappan. Vol. 67. No. 7

Wang: B (1980) "Sex and Ethinic differences in Educational Investment in Malasia. The effect of Reward stracture". Comparative Education Review Vol. 24. Part. 2.

3 Others

Anbasu, B and Junge, B (1988) Problems in Primary School participation and performance in Bahir Dar Awraja. Addis Ababa: MOE.

Asaffa Beyene (1001) Female Participation and Performance in Rurer schools in Ethiopia. Addis Ababa, ICDR, MOE

Haddad, W.D et al (1990) Education and Development Evidence for New Priorities (World Bank Discussion Paper) Washington D.C. The World Bank.

Kobes, J.C (1975). Primary school Dropouts:
A Case Study of A Small Rurar Town in Ethiopia. Colombia. Colombia University Teachers' College. (Ed. D. Thesis)

Ministry of Education (2000) Education Statistics Annual Abstract 1999/2000, Addis Ababa: Berhanena Selam Printing Press.

_____ (1999) Education Statistiecs Annual Abstract 1998/99, Addis Ababa, Master Printing Press.

_____ (1998) Education Statistics Annual Abstract 1997/98, Addis Ababa, Bole Printing Press.

_____ (1997) Education Statistics Annual Abstract 1996/97, Addis Ababa, MOE.

_____ (1997) Education Statistics Annual Abstract 1995/96, Addis Ababa, Commercial Printing Enterprice.

Tegene Nuresa (1996) Basic Indicators of Education System Performance: A Manual for Statisticians and planners. Addis Ababa, MOE.

TGE (1994) – Education and Training Policy, Addis Ababa TGE.

ADDIS ABABA UNIVESITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

FORM_____
Questionnaire to be filled by:-

_____

_____

This questionnaire is designed by a graduate student of the Department of Education Administration attempting to study " The Problems and prospects of Implementing Basic Education in Ethiopia."
The study is aimed at conducting a diagnostic study of the implementation of basic education with the help of latest available data and facts, to detect change in the system, identity the shortcomings and pressing problems, which need to be solved. The findings are meant to explore possibilities of developing more effective strategies for improving primary education.
To achieve the purpose, your responses are found to be important. You are one of the samples of educational administrators being asked to participate in this study. For the result to be dependable, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned.

The response to most questions are made by writing your answers and in some cases
by using a thick mark (✓) to indicate the appropriate answer.
You need not write your name.
Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

I. Identification
   1. Name of the region_____
   2. Position_____
   3. Date of data provided _____

Appendex One

Form -1. Total Population and School Age Population.

1.1. Population of the Regional States, Area and Literacy rate of the Regional States.

Regions	Total Population	Area in km^2	Literacy rate

1.2. Primary shchool Age children (7-14) 1995/96 - 1999/2000

Years	Male	Female	Total
1995/96			
1996/97			
1997/98			
1998/99			
1999/2000			

1.3. Primary school Age Children (7-14) by Region. 1995/96 - 1999/2000 year _____

Region	Male	Female	Total

1.4. School enterance age (7 years old) children by Years 1995/96 to 1999/2000

Years	Population of Age 7 Children		
	Male	Female	Total
1995/96			
1996/97			
1997/98			
1998/99			
1999/2000			

Form 2. Enrollment Primary (1-8) Student Pepulation.

2.1. Number of New Enterants to grade one 1995/96 - 1999/2000

Years	All age	Age 7 only

	Male	Female	Male	Female	Total
1995/96					
1996/97					
1997/98					
1998/99					
1999/2000					

2.2. Primary School (1-8) Enrollment by Year. 19995/96 - 1999/2000

Years	Enrollment		
	Male	Female	Total
1995/96			
1996/97			
1997/98			
1998/99			
1999/2000			

2.3. Primary School (1-8) Enrollment by Regions 1995/96 - 1999/2000

Region	Erollment														
	1995/96			1996/97			1997/98			1998/99			1999/2000		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1996/97															
1997/98															
1998/99															
1999/2000															

2.4. Non-government Primary School (1-8) Enrollment by Region 1999/2000

Regions	Enrollment		
	Male	Female	Total

2.5. Kindergarten School Enrollment, 1999/2000

Regions	Enrollment		
	Male	Female	Total

2.6. Enrollment by Grade (1-8) and Year 1995/96 - 1999/2000

Year	1			2			3			4			5			6			7			8			Total		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1995/96																											
1996/97																											
1997/98																											
1998/99																											
1999/2000																											
Total																											

Form 3. School Population

3.1. Total Number of primary Schools

School Type	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000
Government					
Public					
Community					
Missionary					
Church					
Others					
Total					

3.2. Number of Primary Schools Over the Past Five Years by Region 1995/96 - 1999/2000

Regions	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000

3.3. Number of Kindergarten Schools by Region. 1995/96-1999/2000

Regions	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/2000

Form 4- Efficiency

4.1. Efficiency (Promotion, Repetition and dropout) at Primary Level. 1995/96-1999/2000

Years	Repeaters			Dropouts			Promoted		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1995/96									
1996/97									
1997/98									
1998/99									
1999/2000									

4.2. Dropouts and Repeaters by Grades and Year.

Years		1995/96			1996/97			1997/98			1998/99			1999/2000		
		M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
1995/96	Repetition															
	Drop out															
1996/97	Repetition															
	Drop out															
7/	Repetition															

	Drop out															
1998/99	Repetition															
	Drop out															
1999/2000	Repetition															
	Drop out															
Total	Repetition															
	Drop out															

Form 5. Teachers

1. Number of Teachers by Region and Year 1995/96 - 1999/2000.

Region	1995/96			1996/97			1997/98			1998/99			1999/2000		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T

Form 6-Facilities

6.1. Primary School Sections and Class Rooms by Regions and Year

Regions	1995/96		1996/97		1997/98		1998/99		1999/2000		Total
	Sections	Class rooms	Sections	Class rooms	Sections	Class rooms	Sections	Class rooms	Sections	Class rooms	

6.2. Availability of Facilities in Schools by Region. Grade 1-4. 1992

Regions	No. of Schools	No. of schools by shift				Library	Water	Latrines	Pedagogical centers	Mu gr sy
		One shift	Two shifts	Three shifts	Combination					

Form 7

Questioners to be Filed in by Educational planning and project service Experts.

1. In what way location for new school construction is planned in your region?

   _____

   _____

   _____

2. What is the reasonable average home school distance in your region?

   _____

3. What is the minimum school age population served by one primary school?

   _____

4. Is there any norm or standard on which school distribution is based ?

   Yes ☐ No ☐

5. If your answer to question 4 is [illegible]plain it

   _____

   _____

   _____

6. Does your construction policy, favors the use of alternative designs such as the use of local materials?

   Yes ☐ No ☐

7. If your answer to question number 6 is "yes", what are the advantages and disadvantages of using local materials for school construction"?

   2.1. Advantages

   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
   d. _____

   2.2. Disadvantages

   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
   d. _____

8. From constructing schools by using local materials or by using concrete, which one do you think is more useful in increasing access to education and how?

   _____

   _____

   _____

9. What is the average cost required to construct one first cycle (1-4) primary school?

   a) Using local materials _____
   b) Using concrete _____

10. What are the major NGOs and development associations involved in the promotion of formal education in ther region?

    a. _____
    b. _____
    c. _____

d. _____

e. _____

11. The extent to which privatization in primary education sub sector is encouraged in your region is

Very high ☐ high ☐ , medium , ☐ ow , ☐ y low , ☐

12. If your answer to question 12 is "very high "or "high", what are the effective techniques to do so?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

13. If your answer to question 11 is "very low" or "olw", what are the reasons?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

14. Are there strategies employed to increase female student participation and performance?

Yes ☐ No ☐

15. If your answer to question 9 is "yes", what are the strategies?

a. _____

b. _____

c _____

16. In regional effort to attain basic education, is there a comprehensive multisectorial plan of action?

Yes ☐ No ☐

17. If your answer to question 1[illegible]s," explain it briefly.

_____

_____

18. In your region, are these supportive policies in social cultural and economic sphere in or to realize the full provision and utilization of basic education?

18.1. Social sphere Yes ☐ No ☐

18.2. Cultural Yes ☐ No ☐

18.3. Economic Yes ☐ No ☐

19. If your answer to question 18 above is "yes", explain the policy briefly

_____

_____

20. Do you have educational management information system (IMIS)?

Yes ☐ No ☐

21. If your answer to question 20 is "yes", at which level do you use EMIS?

Region is ☐ , Zone , ☐ eda , Schoo ☐ ☐

22. The extent to which the policy of automatic promotion is implemented in your region is

Very high ☐ high ☐ , medium ☐ low ☐ very low ☐

23. If your answer to question 22 is "medium", "low" or "very low", what do ? You think the resons are?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

24. What strategies are employed, in your region, to increase demand for education?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

25. The demand of the community to primary education is

Very high ☐ high ☐ medium ☐ low ☐ very low ☐

26. What are your reasons for your answer in question 25

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

27. What are the major problems in implementing basic education in your region?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

28. What strategies do you suggest should be employed to attain basic education?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

Form 8

1. Does your construction policy, favors the use of alternative designs such as the use of local materials?

   Yes ☐ No ☐

2. If your answer to question number 1 is "yes", what are the advantages and disadvantages of using local materials for school construction"?

   2.1.Advantages

   a._____
   b. _____
   c. _____
   d._____

   2.2.Disadvantages

   a._____
   b. _____
   c. _____
   d._____

3. From constructing schools by using local materials or by using concrete, which one do you think is more useful in increasing access to education and how?

   _____
   _____
   _____

4. What is the average cost required to construct one first cycle (1-4) primary school?
   a) Using local materials_____
   b) Using concrete_____

5. What are the major NGOs and development associations involved in the promotion of formal education in the region?

   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
   d._____
   e._____

6. The extent to which privatization in primary education sub sector is encouraged in your region is

   Very high ☐, high ☐, medium ☐, low ☐, very low ☐

7. If your answer to question 6 is "very high "or "high", what are the effective techniques to do so?

   a._____
   b. _____
   c. _____
   d._____

8. If your answer to question 6 is " Very low"or "low" , what are the reasons?
   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
9. Are there strategies employed to increase female student participation and performance?
   Yes ☐ No ☐
10. If your answer to question 9 is "yes", what are the strategies?
   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
11. In regional effort to attain basic education, is there a comprehensive multisectorial plan of action?
   Yes ☐ No ☐
12. If your answer to question 11 is "yes, " explain it briefly.
   _____
   _____
13. In your region, are these supportive policies in social cultural and economic sphere in or to realize the full provision and utilization of basic education?
   13.1. Social sphere Yes ☐ No ☐
   13.2. Cultural Yes ☐ No ☐
   13.3. Economic Yes ☐ No ☐
14. If your answer to question 13 above is yes, explain the policy briefly
   _____
   _____
15. Do you have educational management information system (IMIS)?
   Yes ☐ No ☐
16. If your answer to question 15 is "yes" , at which level do you use EMIS?
   Regional ☐, Zone ☐, Woreda ☐, School ☐
17. The extent to which the policy of automatic promotion is implemented in Your region is
   Very high ☐, high ☐, medium ☐, low ☐, very low ☐
18. If your answer to question 17 is "medium", "low" or "very low", what do? You think the reasons are?
   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
19. What strategies are employed, in your region, to increase demand for education?
   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
   d. _____

20. The demand of the community to primary education is

Very high ☐, high ☐, medium ☐, low ☐, very low ☐

21. What are your reasons for your answer in question 20

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

22. What are the major problems in implementing basic education in your region?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

23. What strategies do you suggest should be employed to attain basic education?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

Form 9.

1. Are there any formal school conducted using existing buildings such as churches, mosques, and community centers?
   Yes ☐ No ☐
2. If your answer to question one is "yes" , mention the numbers of centers for each.
   Churches _____
   Mosques _____
   Community centers_____
   Others_____
3. Are there any flexible school schedule in your region other than using single shift and double shift system?
   Yes ☐ No ☐
4. If your answer to question 3 is yes, in what way are they flexible?
   a._____
   b. _____
   c. _____
5. The authority to alter such things as timing of schoolday, opening and closing time is given to schools
   Yes ☐ No ☐
6. Are there differences between the number of periods allotted per day for schools functioning on shift system and full time?
   Yes ☐ No ☐
7. If your answer to question 5 is "yes", what are the numbers of periods allotted for school functioning on
   a) Single shift_____
   b) Double shift_____
8. Are there differences between clan hours allotted to schools functioning in single shift and double shift
   Yes ☐ No ☐
9. If your answer to question 7 is "yes", the number of hours per week for schools functioning on
   a) Single shift is _____
   b) Double shift is _____
10. Are there multigrade classes in your region
    Yes ☐ No ☐
11. If your answer to question 9 is "yes", in how many schools? _____
12. If your answer to question 9 is " yes", are the teachers trained to teach in multigrade classes?
    Yes ☐ No ☐
13. Are there school clusters in your region?
    Yes ☐ No ☐

14. If your answer to question 12 is "yes", for what purpose they are established?
    a. _____
    b. _____
    c. _____
15. Are there strategies employed to increase female student participation and performance
    Yes ☐ No ☐
16. If your answer to question 14 is "yes", what are the strategies?
    a. _____
    b. _____
    c. _____
17. Promotion is implemented in your region is
    Very high ☐, high ☐, medium ☐, low ☐, very low ☐
18. If your answer to question 17 is "medium", "low" or "very low", what do you think the reasons are?
    a. _____
    b. _____
    c. _____
    d. _____
19. What mechanisms are employed in your region to decrease grade repetition?
    a. _____
    b. _____
    c. _____
20. What mechanisms are employed to decrease the rate of dropout?
    a. _____
    b. _____
    c. _____
21. If there networking or collaboration between private and public schools?
    Yes ☐ No ☐
22. If your answer to question 21 is "yes", what kind of collaboration exists between them?
    a. _____
    b. _____
    c. _____
23. In your opinion, the demand of the community to primary education is
    Very high ☐, high ☐, medium ☐, low ☐, very low ☐
24. What are the reasons for your answer in question 22?
    a. _____
    b. _____
    c. _____

25. What are the major problems in implementing basic education?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

26. What major strategies do you suggest should be employed to attain basic education?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

Form 10-

QUESTIONAIRE TO BE FILLED BY TRAINING DEPARTMENT HEAD AND TRAINING EXPERTS THE REGIONAL EDUCATION BUREAU.

1. Is the any affirmative action in teacher's recruitment policy for females?

   Yes ☐ No ☐

2. If your answer to question 1 is "Yes" what are the provisions?

   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____
   d. _____

3. Is there any difference in teacher's assignment policy for male teachers and females?

   Yes ☐ No ☐

4. If your answer to question 5 is "yes" what are the differences?

   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____

5. Is there any incentive for teachers (especially female teachers) to work in rural) remote areas.

   Yes ☐ No ☐

6. If your answer to question 5 is "Yes" what are the incentives?

   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____

7. Are there problems in teachers recruitment in your region?

   Yes ☐ No ☐

8. If your answer to question 7 is "Yes" what are the problems?

   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____

9. What strategies should be employed to solve the teachers recruitment problems mentioned above?

   a. _____
   b. _____
   c. _____

10. Are there problems in teachers training system in your region?

    Yes ☐ No ☐

11. If your answer to question 10 is "Yees" what are the problem?

    a. _____
    b. _____
    c. _____

12. Are there any training program conducted in T.T.I. other than training teachers in regular programs?

    Yes ☐ No ☐

13. If your answer to question 12 "Yes" what are the programs?

    a. _____
    b. _____
    c. _____

14. The extent to which an increase in the number of female teachers has contributed to the increase in participation rate of female students is

    Very high ☐ high ☐, medium ☐ low ☐ very low ☐

15. Give reasons for your response to question number 14

    a. _____

c. _____

24. What strategies are employed, in your region, to increase demand for education?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

25. The demand of the community to primary education is

Very high ☐ high ☐, medium ☐ low ☐ very low ☐

26. What are your reasons for your answer in question 25

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

27. What are the major problems in implementing basic education in your region?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

28. What strategies do you suggest should be employed to attain basic education?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

Form 11

QUESTIONAIRE TO BE FILLED BY PUBLIC RELATION PERSONNEL WORKING IN REGIONAL EDUCATION BUREAU

1. What strategies are employed to launch a major advocacy and social mobilization to implement basic education?

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

2. In your opinion, Community involvement in educational activities is—

   Very high ☐ High ☐ Medium ☐

   Low ☐ Very low ☐

3. If your response to question number 2 is Very low or low, What are the reasons?

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

4. In what school activities are the community most involved?

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

5. The extent to which privatization in primary education sub sector is encouraged in region is-

   Very high ☐ High ☐ Medium ☐

   Very low ☐ Low ☐

6. If your answer to question 5 is Very high or High, What are the effective techniques to do so?

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

7. If your answer 5 is Very low or Low, What are the reasons?

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

8. Are there strategies employed to increase female student participation and perform -ance in your region?

Yes ☐ No ☐

9. If your response to question 8 is "Yes". What are the strategies?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

10. What are the major problem in implementing basic education in your region?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

11. What major strategies do you suggest should be employed to attain basic education?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

e. _____

f. _____