ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

# CURRENT PRACTICES IN THE REDUCTION OF GENDER DISPARITY IN PRIMARY EDUCATION ENROLMENT IN OROMIA REGIONAL STATE: THE CASE OF GUJI AND NORTH SHOWA ZONES

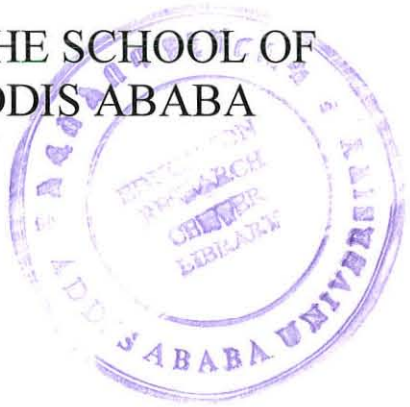


GETACHEW KORSSA

July, 2007.
Addis Ababa

# CURENT PRACTICES IN THE REDUCTION OF GENDER DISPARITY IN PRIMARY EDUCATION ENROLMENT IN OROMIA REGIONAL STATE: THE CASEOF GUJI AND NORTH SHOWA ZONES

A THESIS PRESENTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES, ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY




IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT FOR THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE IN EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT

BY
GETACHEW KORSSA

July, 2007

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

# CURRETN PRACTICES IN THE REDUCATION OF GENDER DISPARITY IN PRIMARY EDUCATION ENROLMENT IN OROMIA REGIONAL STATE: THE CASE OF GUJI AND NORTH SHOWA ZONES

BY

GETACHEW KORSSA

APPROVED BY BOARD OF EXAMINERS:

| | |
|---|---|
| Yekuṉamlak Alamu, (PhD)<br>Chairman, Department Graduate Committee | Signature |
| Seyoum Teferra ,(Professor)<br>**Advisor** | Signature |
| Yalew Ingidayehu, (PhD)<br>**Examiner, Internal** | Signature |
| Seleshi Zeleke , (PhD)<br>**Examiner, External** | Signature |

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to take this opportunity to express my heart-felt gratitude to Professor Seyoum Teferra, my thesis advisor, who has provided unreserved professional and technical help from designing the research project up to its completion. I have sincere appreciation for his constructive comments and genuine concern.

I am also greatly indebted to Ato Teshome Lemma, Deputy Head, OREB, for his deep concern and devotion of time in carefully going through the draft manuscript, besides the material and morale support he provides me at each step of the research work.

I also owe my gratitude to Ato Kebetamu Ayele, Lecturer at Asella college of Teachers Education, for lifting up my morale and equipped me with the computer that facilitated my work.

Words can not do to express the praise my family members and friends Girma Tola, G/Medihin Bekele,Nigussu Fayissa,Chuchu Demisse, Jemanesh Korssa, Mulu Megressa, Aster Bekele, Tsige Guti and Batri Guluma deserve thanks for the sustained support they provide me during the two years of academic career.

My sincere thanks also go to educational officials of OREB, sample zones and WEOs respondents and teachers, PTA members and student respondents of the sample primary schools for their collaboration.

Finally, I would like to thank my beloved wife Alemtsehay Negash who shared my pain in the course of the study. And my thank also goes to my children, Bosse and Yadani Getachew for their patience until the completion of my study

## ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

| | |
|---|---|
| **BESO** | Basic Education System Overhaul |
| **EFA** | Education for All |
| **ERGSE** | Evaluative Research of the General Education System in Ethiopia |
| **ESDP** | Education Sector Development Program |
| **FAWE** | Forum for African Women Education |
| **FDRE** | Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia |
| **GER** | Gross Enrolment Ratio |
| **ICDR** | Institute for Curriculum Development and Research |
| **IER** | Institute for Educational Research |
| **IIEP** | International Institute for Educational Planning |
| **ETP** | Education and Training Policy |
| **MDG** | Millennium Development Goals |
| **MOE** | Ministry of Education |
| **OREB** | Oromia Regional Education Bureau |
| **PTA** | Parent-Teacher Association |
| **WAD** | Women Affairs Department |
| **WEF** | World Education Forum |
| **WEO** | Woreda Educational office |
| **WEOEP** | Woreda Education office Educational Personnel |
| **UNESCO** | United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization |
| **UNICEF** | United Nations Children's Fund. |
| **ZEO** | Zone Educational Office |

TABLE OF CONTENTS

# List of Table

**Table** **Page**

## ABSTRACT

*The purpose of this study was to survey the current practices in the reduction of gender disparity in primary education enrolment in Oromia Regional state. In undertaking the study descriptive survey method was used. Two Zones (Guji and North Showa) from the region were first identified using purposive sampling method because they are presumed to have either wide gender disparities or lowest enrolment rate in girl's education .In order to find out the causes for the presumed gender gaps 16 primary schools were selected randomly from eight woredas of these zones. Questionnaire, both structured and unstructured interview, focus-group discussion and document analysis were employed for data collection. The data were analyzed using percentage, gender parity index and weighted mean. Further, Spearman's Rank Order Correlation Coefficient and T- test were used to test the significance of the responses. The study revealed that in both zones there is an increase in enrolment in boys and girls. But the gender imbalance remains a problem; i.e., compared to boys, girls have not been able to take full advantages in access to primary education due to several socio cultural, economic and school related factors. Therefore, it can be concluded that the dominant causes for the existence of gender disparity of primary education in the study area was found to be the negative attitudes towards girls' education in society. For this, progresses towards closing the gender gap in primary education have been moderate. To alleviate the prevailing problems by taking in to account, the specific features of zones or woredas, joint effort and active support of all members of the society, from regional and local governments down to the community level are recommended.*

# CHAPTER ONE
# INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the introduction. It consists of the background, statement of the problem, significance of the study, delimitation and limitation of the study, definition of the terms used and organization of the study.

## 1.1. Background

In spite of some controversies, it is widely accepted that education is a key factor for development. This is because economic development highly depends upon the skilled human power and this in turn is dependent upon the type and level of education. In other words, education is a means through which a society produces the necessary manpower for development.

Development demands not only the active participation of men but also women. In this connection sociologist Chester in Seyoum (1986:5) pointed out that for many years in most parts of the world such as Africa and Asia the process of development was regarded as a male project in which women were given only token participation. Nowadays, since education is being considered as an investment in development, it seems that both females and males should profit equally from the process of development by improving and widening their access to education. Hence, investment in education of girls contributes not only to enhance economic performance but also to improve the well-being of societies. That is why economists are reporting that to educate a girl is to educate a whole family (UNESCO, 2004 VII; Rao in Merga Fayisa, 1999:2). Here, what is true of families is also true of communities and ultimately whole societies. In strengthening the above ideas the former secretary general of the United Nations, Kofi Annan forwarded the importance of education of girls by saying the following:

> *... there is no tool for development more effective than the education of girls. No other policy is as likely to raise economic productivity, lower infant and maternal mortality, improve nutrition and promote health ...No other policy is as powerful in increasing the chances of education for the next generation (UNICEF, 2003:Vii).*

Therefore, from the above quotation one can understand that education especially the education of girls' benefits nations. Yet, in most societies, as experiences of many countries tell us, girls are excluded from access to education. Gender issue is thus, heatedly discussed to alter this state of affairs. Several studies conducted on gender and education also indicate that boys are more favored than girls in terms of access to education. In fact, pervasive gender ideologies at the household and community levels often favor males over females and thus promote differential education opportunities and outcomes. In connection to these, Hyde (1993:101) states,

> *One of the most enduring kinds of education is inequality between males and females. Although many countries have made tremendous progress in widening the reach of education in no country have males and females benefited equally. In the poorest countries this inequality is reflected in lower enrolment rates, higher dropouts and repetition rates for girls.*

Thus, ensuring girls full and equal access and achievement in education especially at primary education level seems to receive not only special attention but also the most urgent priority in attaining the EFA objectives. And this is not without reason. Educating girls will allow women greater control of their lives and provides them with skills useful in society. For instance children whose mothers are educated are healthier and better nourished, and this leads to reduced infant mortality and lower reproduction rates. As regards this, studies have been conducted in many nations; for instance, in Bangladesh studies show that child mortality is five times higher among children whose mothers have no education than among children whose mothers have seven or more years of schooling. In Colombia, women who complete only primary school have on

average four more children than women who complete the highest level of education (Anderson Levitt, et al 1992:7).

To sum up, educating girls is a positive force for national development and it is this force that produces all other developmental and social benefits.

In practice some educational statistics, however, suggest that many developing countries particularly sub-Saharan Africa still have a long way to go to reduce gender parity goals for 2005 set at Dakar Education for All forum and the goal of universal primary education for all in 2015

Recently, a global monitoring on the high prevalence of gender disparity towards the goal of Gender and Education for All has reported that millions of children around the world still fail to gain access to schooling, and the majority of such children are girls (UNESCO, 2003:1). As a result, according to the same source illiteracy still affects millions of adults, almost the majority of whom are women. However, many countries still do not provide primary education for all children. Furthermore, the Dakar World Education Forum in 2000 report organized by UNESCO (2003:2 said that 57 percent of the 104 million children not in school were girls ... on average girls in Africa are more likely than boys to dropout of primary school and to score lower on examination which in turn limits their enrollment at the post primary levels. Indeed, literature also supports that the level of enrollment and attainment of girls in primary education even to day in sub-Saharan Africa falls significantly below that of all other regions in the developing world (Karin, et al, 2005:36).

Ethiopia is one of the sub-Saharan Africa countries where education of girls is at a very low stage. Indeed, failure to raise girls' education to a par with boys exacts a high development cost in lost opportunities to raise productivity and income and improve the quality of life. That is why the government of FDRE introduced a new educational policy called Education and Training Policy in 1994, which encourages girl's education. Thus, Article 3.9.5 of this policy stipulates the government of FDRE will provide financial support to raise the

participation of girls in education. On the basis of this education policy, new schools were opened in many places of the regional government where female students could attain. However, the patterns of pupil enrolment and participation in primary schools show that girls' enrolment remains lower than that of boys.

Even very recently in 1997 E.C. (2004/5), the primary gross enrollment ratio /GER/ at national level was 78.3, per cent and when disaggregated by gender, it is 69.9 per cent for girls and 86.4 per cent for boys. Among the school age population, 30.1 per cent of girls and 13.6 per cent of boys are not enrolled in primary school (MOE: 1997 E.C.).

As the issue of the annual review of the ESDP I and II goes to press, gender disparity is one of the key problems of Ethiopian education at all levels. And the problem of gender disparity as other forms of educational disparity is assumed to be caused by forces in society that might be beyond the boundaries of educational systems, institutions and processes. Oromia is one of the regions with very high gender disparity at all levels of education. Therefore, a close investigation of the current practices in the reduction of gender disparity in primary education participation of Oromia Regional State becomes the main theme of this study.

### 1.2. Statement of the Problem

Gender disparity in education appears to be a problem of both developing and developed nations. The majority of scholars who have studied gender education agree that in no society do girls yet enjoy the same opportunities as boys (UNESCO, EFA, GMR, 2003:2; Hyde, 1993:101). Gender disparity is a major problem that affects the rights of women and girls and an important barrier to social and economic development. In 1948, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights acknowledged the right to education, declared that elementary education

should be free and compulsory, and that the higher level of education should be accessible to all on the basis of merit. Ever since treaties and declarations has been promulgated to turn these aspirations into reality.

Nevertheless, discrimination against girls and women remains pervasive in most societies, in education and more generally. This gender dynamic which is deeply rooted in family systems, peer relationships and social institutions is believed to be the major source of the factors that affect females' participation in education. As a result, it contributes for wider gender disparity in schooling. Many research studies, have also confirmed that females participation and academic performance at all education levels in Ethiopia is lower than that of boys because of gender stereotypes prevalent in society which perceive males as dominant and women as subordinate in any public sphere (Anbesu and Junge, 1988; Asefa, 1991; Ayalew, 1989; Genet, 1998; Yelfign, 2001). In general, the research studies within this paradigm show that the discriminatory practices against women have limited their school participation and performance at all levels of education in Ethiopia.

The condition also holds true for Oromia, where women are considered extremely inferior to men in almost all aspects of life and thus have little or no access to schooling. The educational opportunity afforded to females in the region is severely limited, thereby reducing women's life choices (KUANAB, 1999:32). The general picture is that the level of school participation and performance of girls is minimal and also lags behind those of boys. For example, out of the total school-age population in the region during the year 2004/5 girls account for a lower percentage than that of males, i.e. the GER of female was 72.6 per cent whereas that of the boys is 97.9 per cent with gender gap of 25.3 per cent (Oromia Regional Education Bureau, Education Performance Indicators of 1997 E.C). As such, the above data suggest that the prevailing gender disparity in primary education is a serious challenge for the region in its efforts to reach the goal of universal primary education for all by 2015. Thus, ensuring

gender equity is one of the objectives of ETP as well as MDG3, ESDP I ,ESDP II and ESDP III gave much attention to realize this policy objective at the centre of its priorities. Despite these facts, however, little research has been made into this issue. This does not mean that attempts were not made at all in this field. The work of Seyoum (1986), Aseffa (1991), Dirisaa (1993), Tilaye (1997), Befekadu (1998), Merga (1999), Firidisa (2001), Habtamu (2002), Teshome (2002, 2003), and WAD, OREB (2003) are among the few similar pieces of evidence that can be cited. In fact the findings of many of these studies focus on certain aspects of the problem of gender disparities. For instance, the study made by Merga (1999) focused on factors contributing to girl's grade repetition, Befekadu (1998) on problems that affect girls access to basic education and Teshome (2002) on causes of dropouts. Seyoum's (1986) study on women's participation in education can be regarded as a framework for such studies, but it is limited to the pre-1974 Ethiopian situation. The recent in-depth national research attempt on gender disparity was made by Teshome (2003). Teshome's major findings show that despite the ambitious five years plan (ESDPI) to reduce the problem it actually was increased by an average of 1.6 percent across the country in general. Thus, the problem of gender disparity at primary level is a common phenomenon in most regions of Ethiopia. In the same way, the major findings of Habtamu Wondimu (2002:47) also noted that "though the gross primary enrolment ratio (GER) has improved in the country, disparities between the sexes ...continue to prevail without a significant change". More recently, this is also well documented in the findings of Lasonen, et.al, (2005:38) who observed the same trends; i.e., in primary education the gender gap remains at the level of about 20 percent and on the basis of this trend the country is at risk of not achieving the goal of parity even by 2015. Therefore, a close investigation of current practices in the reduction of gender disparity in enrolment (participation) at primary education level in both urban and rural areas of Oromia regional state is highly relevant and timely. In so doing, this study has the following specific objectives.

1. To examine the current status and trends observed in gender disparity of primary education in the study areas.
2. To analyze how the economic, socio-cultural and school-related factors contribute to the existence of gender disparity in primary education in the study areas.
3. To extend knowledge on the extent to which the human, material, financial resources and commitments are deployed (invested) in reducing the gender disparity which exists in primary education.
4. To suggest possible solutions and interventions that contribute to the reduction of gender disparity in Oromia primary schools.

Thus, in order to achieve these objectives, attempts were made to seek reliable answers for the following basic questions:

1. Is gender disparity currently narrowing or widening? If it is narrowing, what is the current gender gap in enrolment of primary schooling of the study areas?
2. What are the dominant economic, social-cultural and school related factors that contribute to the existing gender disparity in primary education enrolment in both urban and rural areas of these zones?
3. What interventions are currently being employed to address the causes of the existing gender disparity in primary education enrolment in the study areas?

### 1.3 Significance of the Study

Oromia is a region with the very high rate of gender disparity at all levels of education. Therefore, this study is expected to have importance for the following reasons:

1. It is assumed that studying how and why gender disparity prevails or increases in the region will give policy makers, educational planners and other experts a better understanding of what measures of policy

options in interventions could be undertaken to reduce gender disparity in primary education.

2. The study will also contribute to the stakeholders' ability to gain a deeper understanding of the main problems and to identify the relevant areas of input to girls' education in the region.
3. The study may also encourage other researchers to undertake further investigation in this fundamental area of education.
4. It is hoped to provide some alternative recommendations that may be of practical use for Oromia Regional Education Bureau.

## 1.4 Delimitation of the Study

In practice, gender disparities in education can be associated with the inequality of girls and boys at enrollment or access, retention, performance, treatment, coverage of location (rural-urban) and at educational return levels. Hence, gender disparity of education has a number of dimensions. However, as employed in this study, the operational dimension of disparity is delimited to refer to disparity in enrolment between boys and girls of primary schooling. Of all dimensions, disparity in enrolment is given much more attention in this study because opportunities in enrollment are a gate way to actual equality in all other aspects of life. In this context, gender disparity can be easily understood as the difference in numbers between female and male pupils.

Hence, this study mainly focused on the reasons for widening gender gap and the current patterns and trends observed in the reduction of gender disparity at primary education level in Oromia regional state. In terms of time dimension, the study is delimited to only current practices to cover the years from the beginning of 1994 E.C. up to the year 1999 E.C. All the statistical data used in this study pertain to these six years. It is, therefore, of all nine regions that Oromia was selected as the setting for this study because it is with the largest gender disparity index at primary education, far below the national average for these years. Practical evidence and recent information shows that Oromia stood

third of all regions from the bottom next to Gambella and Somali regions in the country (Habtamu, 2002:52, MOE, 2003/4:216 and MOE, 2004/5:16).

In this survey study, the focal dependent variable on which the analysis focuses is gender parity index (G.P.I) in primary education. The independent parameters and associated variables assumed to be significant in bringing differences of gender parity index are economic, socio-cultural, in school and others factors.

The scope of the study is also delimited to primary school education. This is because the problem of gender disparity at this level is assumed to be the root for the very severe gender disparities observed between both sexes even at secondary and tertiary education in the region. The study also does not include non government institutions, non-formal arrangement or alternative basic education and evening learning because it is not easy to undertake such a huge task within the time span given for the researcher.

### 1.5 Limitations of the Study

In the course of conducting this study, the researcher faced the following problems. These are:

1. Problem of transportation from one Wereda to the other and also from one school to the other schools.
2. Lack of willingness on the part of some Wereda education personnel and teachers to return the questionnaire by the expected time.
3. There is a serious lack of reliable and current data on many aspects of primary education in sample WEO and schools.
4. Since gender disparity in primary education is assumed to be a rural phenomenon, the insufficient amount of fund was a major problem faced to include some other zones in the region. Because of all these drawbacks and shortcomings, the study by no means claims to be conclusive. It would rather serve as a spring board to study the existing gender disparities between both sexes at all levels of education in a more detailed and comprehensive approach.

## 1.6 Definition of Key Terms

Education: The process by means of which a person develops abilities, attitude and other forms of behavior (Good, C.V., 1973:218)

Factor: is constraint which might positively or negatively contribute for the widening or narrowing of gender disparity in primary education in the study area (Good, C.V., 1973:233).

Gender: refers to the socially and culturally determined differences between males and females (UNESCO, 2000:6).

Gender Disparity: refer to unequal access to find primary education relating from difference in sex (Coombs, 1985:217).

Gender Parity Index (GPI): refers to the ratio of female to male enrollment rates. (OREB, 2003/04:5).

Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER): is defined as the proportion of total pupils in a particular level, expressed as a percentage of the population of the corresponding school age (MOE, 1996:7).

Practice: refers to Performance, effort or action of doing something in order to close the gender gap existed between both sexes in primary education (Brown, L.1993:2317).

## 1.7 Organization of the Study

The study consists of five chapters. The first chapter gives a general idea on the background; states the problem; explains the significance of the study and describes briefly the delimitation and limitations of the study. The second chapter develops the theoretical background of the study by discussing the relevant literature from international, national and local perspectives. In this

part, the historical and existing situation regarding gender gap in primary education of developing countries and Ethiopia are examined. The third chapter tries to describe in detail how the study was conducted. The fourth chapter presents the analysis and interpretation of the data. Lastly, the fifth chapter tries to provide the summary, conclusion and the recommendations part of the study. In addition to these, references, sample questionnaires and other important appendices are attached to the last part of the thesis

## CHAPTER TWO

## REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to review what other educators have said about gender disparities in education. It focuses on the following areas. Basic concept and dimension of gender disparities, causes or factors contributing to gender disparity in primary education, intervententions used, experiences of other countries and overview of trends of gender disparity in Ethiopian education etc were reviewed.

### 2.1. Concept and Dimensions of Gender Disparities in Education

Before clarifying the concept of gender disparity in education, it will be safe to identify the meaning of gender and the difference that exists between the term sex. According to UNESCO (2000:6) gender is a concept that refers to the social differences and relations between male and females which are learned, vary widely among societies and cultures, and change over time. In the same way, Oxfam GB, (2005:17) notes that these differences and relationships are determined not by biological differences but are socially defined and shaped by tradition and beliefs. The term gender, therefore, does not replace the sex, which refers exclusively to biological differences between male and females. Thus, gender is commonly used to analyze the roles, responsibilities, constraints, opportunities and needs of males and females. In this case, as UNESCO (2000:6) states, gender roles are nothing but learned behaviors in a given society or other social group. And these behaviors can be affected by age, class, ethnicity, religion, and by the geographical, economic and political environment. Despite all the above mentioned differences which exist, gender is not well understood and is often confused with sex. Therefore, to adopt a gender perspective is to distinguish between what is natural and biological and what is socially and culturally constructed. What is biologically determined is relatively

inflexible but what is socially constructed is relatively transformable. As a result of this, there are gender disparities and gaps which are not just male-female gaps because they are not biologically based. They are gaps that arise from the different roles and social locations of men and women.

Gender disparities in education can exist in favor of boys or girls, but despite a general move towards greater equity, a lot of literature notes that in many countries in Africa and Asia the gender disparities remains strongly in favor of boys and this disparity can be evident in access to education, in educational/process within schools and in completion rates (Teshome 2003:7, Karin, et. al, 2005:11, Lockheed, M.E; 1991:148).

In this regard, Fagelind and Saha (1989) in Teshome (2003:7) also identify four dimensions at which one can approach the question of gender disparity in education that exists between both sexes. And these may include: access, enrolment, treatment and performances and the effects of education on adult life. Fehr,(2003:1), Lloyd, C.B. and Hewett; P.C. [2003) point out that girls suffer in two ways in particular: they have less access to education because of distance or unsafe conditions; and they are more likely to drop out, or be withdrawn. On the other hand, there is evidence that where gender disparities are less in terms of access, they also tend to be less in terms of completion rates. According to King and Hill (1993:2) each of these indicators leads to the same conclusions; the level of female education is low and the gender disparity is larger in developing countries. Furthermore, as Stromquist (1997:25) observes the educational gap between boys and girls increases with higher level of schooling, are more marked when the students belong to racial or ethnic minorities, and are greater in rural than in urban areas. In some developed regions, such as the Caribbean and increasingly the Pacific, there are concerns about the progression rates and achievements of boys rather than girls.

Therefore, elimination of gender disparity does not only mean girl's inequality, but also boys that may face disadvantage or be under represented in the system of education, especially at the secondary and tertiary levels. This is a common experience that can be observed even today in many regions of the world such as in Brunei, Darussalam, Malaysia, Mongolia, New Zealand, the Philippines, Tonga and Vanuatu (UNESCO, EFA, GMR, 2006:2).

In general, gender disparity in education remains a challenge that constraint the realization of the right to education of boys and girls in most countries of the world. Hence, it is possible to conclude that without combating this problem, Education for All cannot be achieved. And that is why, internationally elimination of gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and in all levels by 2015 was the goal set earlier in the year 2000 at Dakar World Education for All Forum. (Save The Children, UK 2005:7). Hence, what is important is that since the reason for gender disparities can be complex and differ from one society to another, from place to place and over time, comprehensive efforts, need to be carried out at all levels and in all areas to eliminate this problem. To make this feasible, throughout the education system adequate resources and strong political commitment are required in addition to changes in attitudes, values and behavior (Dakar World Education Forum, 2000:19)

### 2.2. Why is Educating Girls so Important?

Basic education is a fundamental human right, and it is also one of the most powerful instruments known for reducing poverty and inequality. The primary focus of education is on individuals as they are the principal assets of a society. Investing in individuals to enable them to achieve the minimum basic skills is the demand of the day all over the world. That is why widening access to universal primary education for all has been a major policy goal in most developing countries for the past few decades. The evidence is over whelming;

education improves the quality of life. The disadvantaged group gains the most when schools open their doors wider to girls and women; boys and men also benefit. Indeed, extensive research conforms that investing in girls education offers high returns not only for female educational attainment, but also for maternal and children's health, more sustainable families, women's empowerment, democracy, income growth, and productivity. However, among the many long-term social and economic rational for the education of girls, this chapter highlights the following subtopics as central points for discussion.

### 2.2.1. To promote Economic Development

Decades of research provide substantial evidence of the link between the expansion of education and economic development, and girls' education leads even more positively by increasing income both for individuals and for nations as a whole. In supporting the above ideas, a leading development economists, Schultz and Psacharo Poualos in Herz Barbarara and Sperling, G.B, (2004:3) have found that providing girls with one extra year of education beyond the average boosts eventual wages by 10-20 per cent. Overall, women receive higher returns on their schooling investments. In addition, a sixty six country study made by Smith and Haddad, in Herz, B, (2004:3) pointed out that more productive farming due to increased female education has accounted for 43 percent of the decline in malnutrition achieved between 1970 and 1995.

In contrast, a recent study argues that countries that fail to raise the educational level of girls to the same as that of boys increase the cost of their development efforts and pay with slower growth and reduced income (UNESCO, 2003:18).

### 2.2.2. To Empower Women and Girls

As it is documented in several literatures, education is a route out of poverty and child labor. So, increased investment in girl's and women's education has

particularly beneficial effects to empower girls and women within the family and society. In fact, this empowerment of women is usually expected from greater years of education. But it also comes as women catch up with men in education even when average levels of education remain quite low.

Nobel laureate Amartya, S. in Herz. B. et. al, (2004:5) argues that the changing agency of women is one of the major mediators of economic and social change. Nothing, arguably, is as important today in the political economy of development as adequate recognition of political, economic, and social participation and leadership of women.

Therefore, from the above ideas one can conclude that no country can expect progress and development if a significant portion of its population does not have an education .That is why countries around the world are currently doing more to get more girls in schools. That is mainly because educating girls helps to improve communities and societies and can also help to strengthen girls' dignity and self-confidence so that they themselves can begin to challenge discriminatory and biased gender roles. Similarly, Prasad, P. A. (2006:11) also states that education increases women's status in the community and leads to greater input into family and community decision making. And this can place girls and women on a more equal footing with their male counterparts. In this case, schooling is as a change agent, providing children with a basic knowledge of their rights as individual citizens and tools to fight discrimination and gender bias.

### 2.2.3. To Educate the Next Generation

Educating women promotes educating children. This means, if educated girls become mothers they are much more likely to send their children to school, there by passing on and multiplying benefit both for themselves and society in a positive, inter generational effect. In this regards, a recent UNICEF analysis of

household data from 55 countries and 2 Indian states finds that children of educated women are much more likely to go to school, and the more schooling the women have received, the more probable it is that their children will also benefits from education (UNICEF, 2003:18).

In addition to this indirect effect of girls education, many authorities such as Fagerlind and Saha in Teshoma (2002:4) have pointed out that benefits of education of girls exceeds that of men, particularly in developing countries. According to very recent cross-country study made on the area finds that women's education generally has more impact than men's education children schooling (Filmer, 2000 in Herz, B. et. al, 2004:4).

Surprisingly, as recent global monitoring report on EFA reveals, much of the world has missed the advantages (benefits) of educating girls (UNESCO, 2003:3). Currently, as United Nation Girl Education Initiative (2006:1) also gives message on EFA that about 100 millions children are still not enrolled in primary school. And out of this, the total number of girls amounts 57 per cent.

To summarize, the social and economic justification for educating girls is a sure fire way to raise economic productivity, lower infant and maternal mortality, improve nutritional status and health, reduce poverty and wipe out diseases. In recognizing these benefits, Herz (2004:16) concludes that there may be no better investment for the health and development of poor countries around the world than investment in girl's education.

In general as Lockheed and Verspoor (1993:2) concluded, the future progress and prosperity of the world and of individual nations rest more than ever on the competence of individuals and the capacity of countries to adapt and advance knowledge. This in turn depends up on the extent to which not only boys but also girls have access to education. To move forward, all developing countries must improve universal primary girls' education because this level of education develops the capacity to learn, to read and use math, to acquire information,

and to think critically about that information. It is also the gateway to all other higher levels of education.

### 2.3. Factors Contributing to Gender Disparity in Primary Education

Understanding of the factors that create gender disparity in primary education is important before realistically suggesting reduction polices. In this regard, the literature reveals that the root causes of gender disparity differ across time and countries.

More over, there is no single factor contributing to its very existence in all situations. But, of course, this is not to suggest that some of the causes for gender disparity in education have no a universal character. One or more factors may be common to all countries of the world. Accordingly studies have indicated that poverty, the burden of household labor, socio-cultural, beliefs, the dangerous learning environment, shortage of school facilities, institutional and political problems world wide influence the gender disparities in education in many of the least developed countries. As a result, in these countries disparities favor boys' at all educational levels (Odaga and Heneveld 1995, Teshome 2003, Befekadu 1998, UNESCO 2003,Aikman, S.et.al 2005, Pauline, et.al 1997,and Bellew, R. 1991).

Hence, the constraints that girls face in Ethiopia are not different from those identified in the rest of the least developed countries. The findings of several studies in Ethiopia also indicated that at all educational levels, girls' enrolment and participation usually lags behind boys. Similarly, in Oromia, like other regions of the country, gender gap in access to education, retention, and performance is the serious issue. The following part briefly assesses the limiting factors that created a gender disparity in primary education.

In fact, authorities followed different classification in explaining factors contributing to gender disparity in primary education. For instance, according

to Odaga and Heneveld (1995) major factors can be broadly categorized under two headings, as school related and out-of school factors. Other authorities like Pauline, Getachew, Asmaru and Tegegn, (1997) provide a categorization of these obstacles into four groups, demand-related economic and socio-cultural factors on the one hand, and supply-related school and the political and institutional factors on the other. Since gender disparity in education is caused by a combination of many factors in society, a separate discussion on them would help to give a clear view of the problem. And recently UNESCO, Global monitoring report pointed out that gender disparity in education can also be addressed by taking three dimensions into account. These may include: first and for most constraints in the family and within the community, second constraints on how the school system reacts with girls specific needs or how safe and fair in treatment and finally, the issues on how girls themselves perform in school and the extent to which achievement translates in to equal opportunities in the social and economic spheres (UNESCO, 2003: 12). In this regard, the student researcher also tries to mediate and adapt the following factors classification for identifying the real causes of gender disparity that existed between both sexes in primary education of Oromia region into three major factors. These may include socio economic, socio cultural, and school related.

### 2.3.1. Socio-Economic Factors.

The influence of socio economic factors to girls education which is contributing large disparity between boys and girls on educational access, regular attendance, performance and on learning is perhaps, the most constant and consistent findings of educational research world wide (Aikanan, S.et.al (2005), Teshome (2002),Merga (1999),Befekadu (1998), Odaga and Heneveld (1995),Bellew, R. (1991) and Save The Children UK (2005). It is, therefore, important to recognize that sending children to school involves decision of households on areas such as direct and indirect costs of schooling besides attitudes and practices that prevail in the community.

#### 2.3.1.1. Poverty

Poverty keeps many children from gaining access to education. According to several studies made in Africa poverty is one of an obvious prevalent barrier at household/community level that contributes for large gender disparity in education (Bellew, R. (1991), UNESCO (2004), Assefa (1991), and Anderson, M. (1992).

From this perspective, it is clear that families with poor economic status can not meet direct costs of schooling like school fees, uniform, supplies, transportation and etc. In this respect, several studies done in Malawi, Ghana, Zambia, Ethiopia and Tanzania have shown that in many African countries, children, and in most cases girls are hindered. (Mbilinyi D. A.S. 2003:15) In such a situation, experience also tell us, if a choice has to be made at family level between sending a boy or a girl to school, the boy will usually be given priority. A study conducted in Mali also finds that many parents who have limited resources only want to invest in boys education and not in girls, Dall 1989 in Lockheed and Verspoor(1991:153).

#### 2.3.1.2 Opportunity Costs of Girls Labor

Apart from this, opportunity costs or child labor and work in poor families is also used as a means of strengthen the income of a given household. Hence, children who work have little or no time to attend schooling. A study of Philippines has found that 15 percent boys and 9 percent of girls in rural areas must work in the paid labor force and therefore cannot attend school (King, 1981 in Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991:151). The above statement is also supported by the works of Mbihniji, D., and A. S, (2003:16) which poses that the high demand of girls at home contributes to their low enrollment, poor participation, performance and, in many cases dropout before completion.

Similarly, in India and several Africa countries poor rural girls seldom participate in school because they must draw water, prepare food, gather wood, tend younger children and help with farm activities (Odaga and Haneveld, 1995, Aikman, s. et. al, 2005: 39-40, Kelly, 1987 in Lockheed, et. al, 1991:152). A study done recently also confirms that "girls in Africa, and in fact, almost in every region, work (at home) more than boys, regardless of whether they are school going..." (World Bank 2002b:13) In such situations, particularly, in heavy rural areas, the problem will be more serious on girls than boys and this leaves them very little time and energy for their studies Chabaud, (1970:33) states the following to show the effect of household chores on the school work:

> they are overwhelmed with a fold burden of work at school and home. The stay down rate for girls is higher than that of boys. They have less time to study and therefore give their studies less attention and become more tired because of their duties at home. This drain on their physical energies is not a factor to be ignored especially when their bodies are already weakened by malnutrition and diseases.

By contrast, the process of teaching requires, among other things students who follow lessons attentively. Attentive listening in turn depends on the characteristics of the learners. However, young children particularly of rural areas are vulnerable to many diseases due to poverty. Whilst some illness may cause temporary absence accumulation of these may lead to children falling behind or giving up school completely. In such a situation, as it was reported in many African and Asian countries, daughters are the victims more than boys as they are traditionally expected to do more chores at home and taking care of the sick in the family (Herz, B.and Spearling, G.B, 2004). In this regards, the coming of the deadly HIV/AIDS pandemic has also been reported as a factor for low female participation in education. According to this report in countries like Cameron, Burundi, Ethiopia, Uganda and Tanzania girls' drop-out rate has been accelerated by effects originating from the deadly disease. (Kasonde-Nagandu, 1999, Kadzamira 1999 in Mbilinyi, D.A.S, 2003:18). Hence, it is assumed that girls are more victims of infections due to poverty, lack of

awareness and sexual harassment including rape. Other traditional practices such as female genital mutilation also contribute.

But poverty is not the only reason for gender disparity in education. A recent six-country study re-confirms that lack of cash income is the primary constraints for leaving school. The study also shows that even the poorest households make judgments about the quality and relevance of schooling and that girls are likely to suffer most when decisions are made about which children to send to school (EFA, Global Report, and 2003:25). This state of affairs is aggravated by the socio-cultural attitudes of parents towards girls which are discussed in the next section.

### 2.3.2. Socio-Cultural Factors.

#### 2.3.2.1. Attitudes, Power Traditions and Cultural Practices

In addition to socio-economic factors, socio-cultural factors are also a factor that influences gender disparities in education. According to Save the Children, UK (2005:10) cultural norms, traditional beliefs, attitudes and practices concerning gender roles and lack of knowledge on benefits of education continue to be determining factors in sending girls to school. A study made in Malawi indicated initiation ceremonies is conflicting with school calendars. Once girls are initiated it is difficult for them to return to school because they are expected to marry. (Kaspaska, 1992 in Odaga and Heneveld, 1995:23). Thus, initiation negatively affects school attendance of girls and that leads to more absenteeism and dropouts than boys. And this phenomenon tends to decrease enrolment rate but at the same time may push gender disparities to be wider in all forms of its existence.

Apart from this, early-marriage is one of the cultural practices that contribute to gender disparity in education in most countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America. More specifically, a survey conducted in some countries of Africa like Ethiopia, Tanzania, Somalia, Malawi, Mali and Nigeria shows that early

marriage is traditionally considered as important for young girls, subject as they are to community values. The median age of marriage was 17.1 in Malawi, 16.1 in Mali, 16.5 in Nepal, 17.2 in Nigeria, and 15.6 in Ethiopia (Aikman S.and Unterhalter, E., 2005:38-39). According to this survey, for instance, in Tanzania the society consider adolescent girls as some thing that is going to decaying unless used as soon as it is rise (UNESCO, 2003:13 and UNESCO, 1995:1) Therefore, it is assumed that early marriage, as an element of socio-cultural factors contribute to gender disparities in education. In this connection, the research finding of Teshome (2002) reveals that 80 percent of female students in Amharic region and 51 percent of female students in Oromia region dropped out of school due to early marriage. Marriage is seen as a higher priority than education. In addition, safety and security both within the school and outside is very crucial to female students. A majority of girls are not safe when walking long distances from home to school. Many authorities in education have indicated that girls face the problems such as rape and abduction their way to school .The problem of abduction was rated as one of the most influential factors for female's low participation in Oromia region. (Effaa 2006, Teshoma 2002, and FAWE, 2001).

Gender stereotypes and gender differentiated child-rearing practices is also another cultural factor that contributes to gender disparity in education. This is because it perpetuates the dominant roles and imparts the inferior nature of females in different activities at house hold or community level. In the process of child-rearing practices, of all the socializing agents, families stand first. They consider their male children as brave, expressive, self confident, whereas their daughters are considered shy, quite and dependent (Almaz, 1991:8). In many regions especially in sub-Saharan Africa, females are perceived by the society to be too submissive, timid, mentally and physically weak, while males are competitive, courageous, and intelligent. As a result, such differentiation and expectation greatly widens the gender gap by affecting girls' aspiration and competency in education (Alemtsehay, 1985:37, Almaz, 1991:4). And the most

marked gender inequalities are found in societies where women are confined to home. Such societies are characterized by marked son preference and discrimination against daughters from early years. In countries in North Africa, the middle East, Pakistan, much of Bangladesh and India and countries of East Asia, there is a strong cultural preference for sons and they tend to have the greater levels of gender inequalities (UNESCO, EFA, GMR 2003:12). This attitude is held by both men and women and contributes to the existence of gender disparities in primary education. Over and above the opportunity cost already mentioned, lack of vision and prospects for future life reduces girls interest to participate, perform and achieve in education. Special efforts, therefore, need to be employed to cultivate girl's interest in education and provide an environment that will ensure their full participation and achievement in education.

#### 2.3.2.2 Parents Educational Level and Community Influence

Parents and other community members should give full support to their children's education. In fact as experiences tell us; this requires a high level of awareness. However, parents in most rural areas, of Ethiopia may lack such awareness as a result of not being exposed to education. Most mothers who usually communicate closely with their daughters are illiterate. Their support of their children's education, especially daughters, is minimal. Hyde, (1989) argues that parents with higher literacy have a better chance not only to send their children to schools but also to keep them in school until they complete a given educational cycle. In relation to this, various literatures strongly support the argument that children particularly girls have a better chance if both parents were educated. Uneducated parents prefer to send boys to school (FAWE, 2001:18).

Similarly, the community as a whole has the responsibility of giving support to school programs, including the provision of adequate space, time and opportunities for learning. In places where involvement in educational affairs has gained roots, the results are quite encouraging for both boys and girls.

### 2.3.3. School Related Factors

It is not only socio-economic and cultural factors that contribute to the existence of gender disparities .Not surprisingly, as it is documented by various literatures school related factors also affect the survival of girls . The poor quality environment, content, learning process, home distance to school, teacher attitudes etc can possibly create a wider range of disparities in education between boys and girls (Teshome 2002, Merga 1999, Befekadu 1998 and Aikman, S. 2005).

One of the most common barriers at school level for a wide-range of gender inequalities is poor quality environment which may includes inadequate buildings, over crowding, lack of water or sanitation, violence (physical and psychological) etc. Improved condition of buildings and facilities are systematically beneficial to student learning. As research findings indicate, good quality of the physical plan positively relates to student performance (Lookheed and Verspoor, 1991:103).

Conversely absences of such quality environment results in an increased likelihood of non-attendance, dropping out and poor achievement of girls above boys. In supporting these ideas, Mbihinyi, D., A.S. (2003:17) also argues that poor environmental factors affect all learners. However, girls have special needs, especially during puberty period, which if not provided for, the girls' attendance will be poor. This situation has had a negative impact on girl's education, because it discouraged families from sending their daughters to schools.

Home distance to school has been another factor that causes gender disparities in schooling between both sexes in most countries of Africa. Report from Save The Children, UK of (2005:17) also illustrates distance to schools as a challenge in most countries and a key obstacle for educating girls in rural areas. Hence,

the problem of no school closer to girls' causes increased likelihood of non-enrolment or non-attendance and dropping out after enrolment. Safety and security issues make parents less likely to allow daughters to attend school if they have to travel long distances. And the problem of distance to school is worse especially for girls than boys. In connection to this, Aikaman, S. al. et., (2005:40) also note, the need to travel long distances to school is a particular barrier for girls.

### 2.4. Interventions Used for Reducing Gender Disparity in Education

Although there is no miracle for reducing gender disparities in education, a wide range of experiences points to break through that have facilitated girls' access to schooling and improved their performance. Interventions within education alone are not sufficient to tackle constraints on girls' access and participation in schooling. Interventions that tackle wider social and economic constraints are also equally important. In other words, a measure of reducing gender disparity in education requires tackling problems from multiple fronts or dimensions. As Aikaman, S.et.al (2005:42-43) suggests there are four areas of intervention measures that are common in many countries for eliminating gender-disparities in education. These include:

> *Firstly, strong political commitment to supporting women in both development and education, Secondly, policy development has to be influenced by the demand of strong women's networks, Thirdly, providing free and UPE for all groups and implementing strategy comprises a package of inter related measures, rather than isolated and ad hoc-interventions and finally, willing to allocate resources necessary to sustain implementation.*

From the above quotation one can understand that the sustainability and success of interventions depend up on many factors. Thus, among other things the planning of interventions has to be given due consideration .The World Bank (2002) in Mbilinyi, D., A.S. (2003:25) suggests the "step by step" model as a more sustainable intervention mechanism for reducing gender disparity in

education. Recently, as Moser et al. note (2004) gender mainstreaming is also seen as an internationally agreed intervention to prevent the repeated marginalization of women's needs, and to address inequalities between both sexes, not just in society but also with in development institutions including educational organizations. More specifically, in UNESCO (2005:17), Mainstreaming gender equality refers to the commitment to ensure that both women's and men's concerns are integral to the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all educational policies and programs, in order that both women and men benefit equally from the process of education.

Therefore, it is important to know that education policies, programs and interventions strategies can have an impact in reducing gender disparities if and only if it is designed not only from global but also from specific national or local contexts. Thus, in order to address the gender gap in primary education in a given region planners and policy makers must first identify the reasons before proposing any solutions. Some of the interventions may include:

### 2.4.1. Supply-Side Interventions

#### 2.4.1.1 Bringing Schools Closer to Girls.

Students cannot attend school when places are in short supply or when schools are located far from home. Recognizing this, educational planners have developed various low-cost expansion strategies to expand access and bring schooling closer to home. These efforts, as is demonstrated by Bellew, R.et.al.(1991:9),have created solutions to increase educational opportunities for girls by eliminating discriminatory admissions practices and instituting quotas that reserve places for them in educational programs by innovating multi grade class-rooms, double-shifting, and with feeder and satellite schools at primary level.

These access expansion strategies are necessary to increase girls enrollment, but one lesson we learn from the supply-side measures is that they are not always sufficient. When the demand for girls' education is low, families will not send their daughters to school, even if one is available. In this case, experiences of countries such as Egypt, Mali and Yemen can illustrate this.

To sum up, these experiences demonstrates that simply expanding educational programs may be in sufficient to increase girls' enrollment. For programs to be fully utilized, the demand for education must emanate from families and the community. Where parents are concerned about the physical and moral safety of their daughters, where the direct and opportunity costs of attendance are too high, and where the benefits of education too few, school expansion policies will only be effective if they are accompanied by policies that lower the cultural, direct or opportunity cost of education and/or raise the benefits.

#### 2.4.1.2 Making School Acceptable

Schools must conform to communities' cultural standards. And this is an important factor influencing girls' educational access and attainment. In connection to this, where the practice of female seclusion prevails, as in some parts of North and sub-Saharan Africa, the Middle East, and Asia girls' mobility and their activities are governed by social practices that restrict their presence in public places and their interaction with males (Tietjen, 1991:23-24).

Correspondingly, a study of Pakistan finds that parents have responded to the concern that male and females be separated and they may be more concerned with the availability of closed latrines than they are with supply of desks and chairs. Similarly, Bangladesh has also respond by providing sanitary facilities which have had a positive influence on community, teachers and students attitudes toward school and addressed an important parental objection to girl's attendance (World Bank 1985 in Bellew, R. and E.M. King 1991:12).

Thus, religious schools, appropriate facilities and single-sex school are perceived as promoting traditional social norms, unlike westernalized public schools, and there is some indication that parents believe that their children gain literacy skills faster and more efficiently, liberating them from years of costly schooling. For girls, these schools may be more culturally appropriate, offering the propriety and moral security of a sheltered and traditional environment and the assurance that modern values will not undermine the girl's role as obedient daughter and dutiful wife and mother. Likewise, governments in several countries of developing countries such as Mali, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Kenya, Mauritania, and Gambia have supported accreditation and introduced the government primary school curricula and trained teachers into religious school .This has expanded school stock as well as educational opportunities, by responding to cultural attitudes and practices. (Bellew,R and E. M. King, (1991:11-12).

#### 2.4.1.3 Having More Female Teachers in Schools.

Like appropriate facilities and others in schools, the presence of female teachers in the class-room is also a good strategy to help to narrow gender disparity in education. This is why female teachers are thought to be effective in promoting girls' educational participation, access, persistence, and achievement for a variety of reasons. Alleviating parental concern for their daughters' modesty and moral security might be one of the measures for having female teachers in school. As studies on the area found that there is a close positive relationship between the presence of female teachers and girls' enrollment in many countries like Philippines (Tilak 1989), Nepal, Shrestha (1986), Yemen, USAID (1984),Ethiopia, Abraha et al., (1991) in Tietjen 1991:30).

Thus, from the above ideas one can understand that having female teachers encourages girls' enrollment. And it is an important step to reduce gender disparity in education. Recently as Herz B. (2004:11) also indicates that many countries such as Bangladesh, Pakistan, and India have set national goals for hiring more women teachers.

### 2.4.2. Demand-Side Interventions

#### 2.4.2.1. Reducing Direct costs

Location and propriety are not the only factors parents consider when deciding if they should school their daughters. The cost of schooling also influences parents' schooling decisions. Although public schooling often implies free or subsidized tuition, parents still incur the costs of transportation, uniforms, books and school supplies, and schools may also request cash or in-kind donation. These expenses can be prohibitive to poor parents. According to Tietjen (1991:48) a research finding in Indonesia found that the direct expenses for girls at the primary level is nearly 44 percent higher and at the intermediate level 26 percent higher. Accordingly, stressing the costs of schooling as one of constraints to girls' enrollment the government of Bangladesh and Pakistan has responded to these constraints by lowering the cost of uniforms in addition to the introduction of scholarship program for girls (Bellew and King. M.E., 1991:19).

#### 2.4.2.2. Addressing the Opportunity Costs of Girls labor

The resources that households are willing to allocate for girls education include not only cash outlays but also the girls' time. In connection to this idea, Baum, W.C. and S.M. Tolbert (1985:486) have also explained the issue by arguing that Women in developing countries spend large amounts of time in performing household chores. Girls often share this work with their mothers; they care for siblings, prepare meals, carry water and fire wood, or earn an income from outside jobs. Therefore, it may be necessary to lower the opportunity costs of schooling to increase girls' participation. In view of this, Bellew king E.M. (1991:23) also states four ways that helps to reduce this cost. These include: First, Scholarship programs can reduce high opportunity costs by offering monetary compensation to parents for the loss of their daughters' time. Second, allowing girls to bring younger siblings to school, establishing day care centers

near school buildings or introducing simple technologies can lower the amount of time girls spend at work. Third, the formal school schedule and instructional time can be made more flexible and consistent with girls work schedules. Fourth, alternative or safer schools can provide schooling opportunities at times during the day that girls can attend. Here one has to be conscious that the chances of success for the above four approaches in increasing girls enrolment will vary from place to place. In fact such interventions have potential promoting gender equality in education.

#### 2.4.2.3. Increasing Understanding of Parents and Community

As it is indicated in several literatures, community and parental resistance to girls' education is not limited to obvious economic reasons of high direct and opportunity costs alone. Sometimes families or communities lack appreciation of the benefits, misunderstand the schooling process, and are ignorant of educational opportunities open to their daughters (Tietjen, 1991:55).

In supporting the above ideas, King (1991:31) also suggests, education and information campaigns should be used to advertise the benefits of education. Thus, increasing levels of understanding of parents and community involvement in activities to promote girls education appears to be a good intervention for reducing gender disparities in education. But, in areas where girls are expected to become only mothers and wives promotion of gender equality in schooling is hard to realize.

However, research has been recommending the advantage of parental and community involvement as the best ways to get more girls to come to school (Bellew, B. et. al., 1991:31, Aikman, S. et. al., 2005:51, Anderson, 1992:28, Almaz 2000:5). Poor level of parental education has greatly limited the role of young girls to the level of being a wife or mother, and adversely affects the educational participation of their daughters. However, as UNICEF (2004:18)

notes, as would be mothers, the effect of girls' education improves child's education. In other words, it has an inter-generational effect.

Generally, to increase the understanding of parent and community for the demand for girls' education, parents should also be involved in schooling. This is because when parents are active in the educational process; their children are more likely to attend school. That requires a high level awareness.

#### 2.4.2.4. Alleviating Poverty

Poverty is an obviously prevalent situation that contributes to the existence of wider gender disparity in education particularly in low income countries. Thus, no discussion of gender education in developing countries is complete if it does not address the role poverty plays in undermining efforts to improve it. According to UNICEF (1990) in Bellew, R. et. al, (1991:40) absolute poverty is a condition of many children, especially in India, Pakistan and Bangladesh. "These three countries alone account for 35 per cent of children out of school ...."Hence, to promote gender parity and equality in education, alleviation of poverty becomes an urgent issue. Such measures can take many forms: lowering school fees, providing teaching materials and uniforms, boarding facilities and scholar ship. In this connection, countries, like Bangladesh and China, have encouraged girls to attend school by providing cost incentives to help eradicate poverty. As a result the participation rate of girls has increased to over 90 per cent in China (UNESCO, 1984 in Lockheed and Verspoor 1991:164). To reduce gender disparities in education, alleviation of poverty can be sound approach.

Overall it demands the mobilization of families, communities, schools, government and the international donor community. Moreover, to be successful, interventions must be locally specific, culturally sensitive and multi dimensional as there are multiple factors that cause gender imbalances in education.

## 2.5. Other African Countries Experience in Closing Gender-gap in Primary Education

Gender disparities in education are quite evident in many parts of the world. Available evidence shows that most of developing countries in Africa, Asia, Middle East, Latin America and Caribbean are confronted with the problem of gender disparities in access to education, enrolment, repetition and dropouts rates. Gender disparities in most countries of these regions favor boys above girls except in Latin America and Caribbean at secondary level. Here the case is reversed.

And this implies, that many countries many children, more often girls are deprived of the right to education. More specifically, EFA, global monitoring report revealed that of all regions of developing countries, sub-Saharan Africa still has the lowest enrolment rates and biggest gender disparities. And this is more evident in countries like Burkina Faso, Eritrea, Mali, Burundi, Ethiopia, Guinea Bissau, Mozambique and Liberia (UNESCO, 2003:10).

The root causes for the existence of gender disparities in all these developing countries could be attributed to different factors in and out side of their educational system. In countries where available data shows positive changes to help reduce gender disparities in area of enrolment, repetition, dropouts and performance were also observed by employing different possible interventions. As a result, except in Madagascar, Burundi, Eritrea, Burkina Faso Egypt, Lesotho and Tanzania (only for some years 1985-90) where the gender gap increased slightly during the 1990s, the general trend was a narrowing of the gap across all developing countries of the world (DFID, 2005:9 and Samuel, 2002:19).

Several efforts are underway in various countries aimed at confronting those challenges. In assessing the progress made by countries, UNESCO recently used a four tier classification mode. These include those countries at risk of not achieving the goal; those at serious risk of not achieving the goal, high chance of achieving the goal and low chance achieving of the goal (UNESCO, 2006:13).
According to the same source, there are also countries even in sub-Saharan Africa such as Kenya, Botswana, Rwanda, Capaevard, Gabon, Malawi, Mauritius Namibia, Tanzania and Zimbabwe that achieved the goal of gender parity in primary education by 2005.
The experiences of Tanzania and Kenya were cited as good examples of selected intervention:-

**Tanzania**

Tanzania for many years, like other developing countries, has been affected by the problem of gender disparity both in primary and secondary education.
As literature reveals, several and varied reasons has been given for the existence of gender disparity in education. In some places, it was in ability to afford fees and other school requirements, long walking distance, family roles, low education returns, irrelevant curriculum, harsh and unfriendly teachers, manual work and sexual harassment. (Katunzi, 2003:200).

For this, after the Jomtien declaration on EFA, Tanzania started designing some reforms that would hasten the attainment of the goal. In fact, in all reforms, the issue of gender equity in provision of quality education featured prominently. In this regards, the following interventions models have been tried out. These were: child friendly school initiative (CFSI) to curb dropouts and promote participation and performance, Ward Based Education Management (WABEM) to promote community participation and decentralized school management systems and Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET) to provide access and full participation for the out of school children. (Mbilinyi, D.A.S, 2003:37).

**Kenya**

According to UNESCO (2003:33) Kenya is the one among Very few countries that have already achieved gender parity at primary level of education in Sub-Saharan Africa. And recently, the country recorded a gender ratio of 96.5 per cent for boys and 94.9 per cent for girls in terms of primary school enrolment in 2002/03.

Despite the progress recorded on the enrolment of girls, attainment and performance rate, especially those in nomadic pastoral ethnic group, continued to become a problem. To solve the problem, government, NGOs and institutions have introduced some intervention measures in the form of polices, and projects. Among the lessons learned from this country community participation was a key to the success of all the programs which relates to socio-cultural attitudes.

## 2.6. Overview of Trends and Efforts made to Reduce Gender Disparity in Ethiopian Primary Education

### 2.6.1. Trends of Gender Disparity in Ethiopian Primary Education

#### 2.6.1.1. Nation Wide Trends and Its Historical Roots

In Ethiopia, access to Primary education has been among the most limited in Africa for many years, mostly related to economic, socio -cultural variables and other development factors. The state of provision of education in the country is severely challenged by gender-disparity. And the challenge is more vivid and deep rooted when one views back to the historical development of education. During traditional education, girls had no access. In this regards, Seyoum (1986:8) has pointed out that access to church education was almost exclusively reserved for men and the participation of females in traditional education was negligible. Hence, females were excluded from participation in religious

education. Females had been deprived of both church services and educational opportunities because the objective of the church education was to prepare priests and deacons This attitudes of favoring more boys than girls has also continued even with the introduction of modern education during the reign of Emperor Menelike II. For example as Pankurst, Sylivia (1967) in Degarge (1998:64) pointed out that when the first modern school was opened in 1908 "all of the students enrolled were boys".

**Table 1 Primary School Students Enrolment by Sex from 1989 to 2002**

| Year | Enrollment | Proportion of Females % | Proportion of Males % |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1989/00 | 2,466,464 | 39.8 | 60.2 |
| 1990/91 | 2,063,635 | 41.8 | 58.2 |
| 1991/92 | 1,855,894 | 40.8 | 59.2 |
| 1992/93 | 2,283,638 | 38.2 | 61.8 |
| 1993/94 | 2,722,192 | 37.0 | 63.0 |
| 1994/95 | 3,380,068 | 36.0 | 64 |
| 1995/96 | 4,005,708 | 35.7 | 64.3 |
| 1996/97 | 4,468,294 | 26.0 | 74 |
| 1997/98 | 5,090,670 | 36.7 | 63.3 |
| 1998/99 | 5,702,233 | 37.8 | 62.2 |
| 1999/00 | 6,462,503 | 38.5 | 61.5 |
| 2000/01 | 6,650,841 | 40.3 | 59.7 |
| 2001/02 | 7,213,043(61.6%) | 41.4 | 58.6 |
| 2002/03 | 64.4% | 41.2 | 58.8 |

**Source: Lasonen, J. et.al, (2005:35).**

Hence, according to the above figures access to primary education has expanded in the country. But girls' access to primary education lags significantly behind boys' access. The gender gap in primary school enrolment remains at the level of about 20 per cent. And this low enrolment levels of girls do not happen in vacuum. But as it was observed from experience, low enrolment levels are a result of children never entering school and of the cumulative effect of a high dropout rate in every grade of the primary cycle.

In addition to improving access, considerable progress has occurred improving admission and survival rate for girls in primary education. In this regards, a statistical data complied by Yelfign Worku in Rose, (2003:2) shows hopeful signs

for improvement in girls' enrolment. Girls' admission rates have been increasing at a faster pace in recent years.

**Table 2 Admission and Survival Rates by Gender, 1994/95 to 2000/01**

| Admission rate (%) | | | Survival rate (%) | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Grade 1 | | | Grade 5 | | Grade 8 | |
| Year | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| 1994/95 | 73 | 40 | 53 | 45 | - | - |
| 1995/96 | 98 | 54 | 47 | 45 | 33 | 30 |
| 1996/97 | 111 | 63 | 45 | 44 | 30 | 26 |
| 1997/98 | 111 | 69 | 42 | 44 | 26 | 24 |
| 1998/99 | 109 | 77 | 33 | 38 | 18 | 24 |
| 1999/00 | 108 | 76 | 36 | 40 | 17 | 20 |
| 2000/01 | 110 | 89 | 38 | 38 | 25 | 25 |

**Source: Rose, Pauline (2003:2)**

To summarize gender disparity in educational development from early traditional education up to now, there is almost always an increasing trend. Reality implies that disparities due to sexes are the characteristics of the system. What is more, as the findings of a study made by Rose (2003:3) showed problems of gender disparity between boys and girls in education are more rampant in rural areas and as one goes up through different school levels from primary to tertiary level, the problems become worse. The reason was explained by many factors mainly due to deep-rooted attitudes, harmful cultural practices and poverty which could take considerable time and effort to change.

If we look at recent, enrolment in the country it has increased dramatically for both boys and girls. However, the gender gap has not narrowed (Rose. P 2003:1). Further more, according to the same author, the primary schooling admission rate continue to be significantly higher for boys' .Girls repetition is consistently higher than boys at primary level.

### 2.6.1.2. Recent Trends of Gender Disparity of Primary Education in Oromia Region

According to available data, access to primary education in Oromia was substantially expanded in ESDP I and II as a result of efforts made to implement

EFA in the region. More specifically, the gross enrolment ratio of primary education was 40 percent in the year 1997/98 and has reached 89.09per cent in 2006/07. Out of this, the GER of boys has been increased from 54 per cent to 98.9 per cent while the GER for girls has also been increased from 25 per cent to 79.2 per cent. Generally, there is still a wide gender gap. (OREB, 2005:9, MOE, 2005/06:23) and (OREB, Annual Education Report, 2006/07).

Thus, the primary school enrolment has increased over years, yet there is still a wide gender gap and even this is wider in some Zones or districts or schools as compared to others in the region. To this end, the current trends of Oromia region are summarized in the following table below.

**Table 3 Primary Education Enrolment Ratio and Trends in Gender gap from 1997/98 to 2006/7 in Oromia Region.**

| Year | Boys | Girls | Both | G. Gap | GPI |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1997/98 | 54 | 25 | 40 | 29 | 0.46 |
| 1998/99 | 60 | 30 | 45 | 30 | 0.50 |
| 1999/00 | 67 | 36 | 52 | 31 | 0.53 |
| 2000/01 | 73 | 42 | 58 | 31 | 0.58 |
| 2001/02 | 77 | 46 | 62 | 31 | 0.60 |
| 2002/03 | 82 | 51 | 67 | 31 | 0.62 |
| 2003/04 | 86.6 | 58.2 | 72.5 | 28.4 | 0.67 |
| 2004/05 | 98 | 73 | 85.4 | 25 | 0.74 |
| 2005/06 | 98 | 77 | 87.7 | 21 | 0.78 |
| 2006/07 | 98.9 | 79.2 | 89.09 | 19.7 | 0.80 |

**Sources: OREB, ESDP III and OREB Annual Educational Abstracts of different years from 1997\98 to 2006\7**

Hence, from the above table one can see that gender gap in GER has narrowed down. But in fact only a moderate change has been observed within these six years in the region, i.e. the gender gap at primary level (1-8) has narrowed from 31 per cent in 2001/02 to 19.7per cent in 2006/07. More over, the share of female students in primary education has increased from 31.4 per cent to 43.4 per cent between 1997/98 to 2006/07 respectively (OREB, 2005:26) and OREB Annual Education Abstracts of different years from 1990 to 1999 E. C.

Regarding gender gap in dropout rate at primary education level, there was also 17.7 percent (17.3 percent for boys and 18.6 percent for girls) in 2001/02 and

has reduced to 14.9 per cent (15.1 per cent for boys and 14.3 per cent for girls) in 2003/04.

The dropout rate at primary level was highest (28.5 per cent) in grade one (i.e. 28.1 per cent and 29.1 per cent) for boys and girls in 2003/04 respectively (OREB, 2005:29 and OERB, Annual Education Abstract of 2001/02, 2002/03 and 2003/04).

### 2.6.2. Some Efforts made towards Reducing Gender Disparity of Primary Education in Ethiopia.

In the history of Ethiopian education the 1906 Proclamation made by Emperor Menelik II laid the legal basis of the Ethiopian education towards the promotion of gender equality. This proclamation has indicated that girls as beneficiaries of available educational opportunities with equal footing with boys by stating the following:

> *እስካሁን የእጅ አዋቂ የነበረ ሰው በውርደት ስም ይጠራ ነበር:: ስለዚህ ማንም ሰው ለመማርና ለመሰልጠን የሚደክም አልነበረም:: ... ስለዚህ ከዛሬ ጀምሮ ለወደፊት ወንድ ልጆችና ሴት ልጆች ሁሉ ከስድስት አመታቸው በሁዋላ ትምህርት ቤት እንዲገቡ ይሁን:: ልጆቻቸውን ለማስተማር ለማይተጉ ቤተሰቦች ወላጆቻቸው ሲሞቱንብረታቸው ለልጆቻቸው መሆኑ ቀርቶ ለመንግስት ይተላለፋል:: (ማህተመ ስላሴ, 1962:600)*

In fact, this historical state document, as Seyoum (1986:10) noted, did not make considerable advances towards the education of girls as a step forward in promoting gender parity in education. However, according to the same author, one notable event that happened, long after Menelik's proclamation regarding gender issue in education, was the establishment of separate school for girls in 1931 by Empress Menen. And this achievement was commendable because it showed the attention given to girls' education to maintain gender equity. Nevertheless, due to the Italian invasion the school did not bring any change or further promotion of education of girls in the country.

In fact, the first initial attempt in addressing the issue of gender equity in education was made by the planning team of the famous Education Sector Review (ESR). The ESR report, which was never adopted, included the objective of improving access for both boys and girls in urban and rural areas by creating

flexible arrangements of non-formal education/MOE; 1972: III 4 to III 5).In this regards, a study made by Ayalew Shibashi (1989:36) pin pointed that the demand for more access and better education for both sexes was one of the root causes for the over throw the regime of Emperor Haile Selassie. In response to this issue, the Provisional Military Administrative council (PMAC), in its education policy guidelines declared that "all citizens shall have the right to free fundamental education". And as result a large quantitative expansion was observed during this time. According to Ayalew (1989:37) the rate of participation of female students was also low and gender disparity as part and parcel of regional disparities was becoming wider and wider.

The ERGESE of 1984/85 launched during the Derg period to address the deep crisis of education which was evident by the 1980s (Seyoum, 1996:18). The ERGESE was intended to provide a picture of the overall status of schooling... by identifying those areas in need of improvements. In general the Review is major focus was on improving quality and addressing equity.

In the 1994 Education and Training policy, equity issue is one of the major policy concerns. More specifically, the policy has given due attention to the girls education in its different components. Under article 3.7.7, the Education and training policy states "special attention will be given to women and to those students who did not get educational opportunities in the preparation, distribution and use of educational inputs. This is a very broad policy statement. The translation of this policy statement as Yelfign Worku (2001:28) notes, requires taking different intervention strategies such as making schools available in the community, encouraging girls to go to school, making school comfortable and convenient, providing facilities like separate toilets and water, developing gender-sensitive educational mini media programs and various audio visual materials in school. More recently, strong efforts have been made through ESDPs to narrow the gender gap at different levels of the education system. For this reason it is possible to conclude that the current policy response to reduce

gender disparities between both sexes at primary education the commitment of government at higher level seem to be more positive than before. This is not without exaggeration, but it is important to mention at least four evidences. First, different research on gender and education has been undertaken, Secondly, various strategies to promote girls education at national and local level has been designed and is being implemented, Thirdly curriculum developers have been oriented to prepare gender sensitive curriculum and fourthly, placing special emphasis up on the recruitment, training and assignment of female teachers in the country.

As a result, a number of gender elated policies and positive steps have also been executed in Oromia region. These policies have helped females to have their share in the education system. For instance, because of the positive discrimination policy more female teachers were trained and assigned to these schools than before. Discussion held with regional and zonal educational officials during interview schedules, also argued that a number of positive steps have been implemented from regional to specific schools by increasing enrolment, counseling support for students at school, involving parents, teachers and others to promote girls education .

# CHAPTER THREE

# RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

## 3.1 The Research Design

A descriptive survey research method was employed in the study since the major purpose was to examine the current practices in reducing gender disparity in primary education. To this end, the study employed two approaches.

The first approach was to present and to review what other authorities had said about gender and education in general and gender disparity in primary education in particular. This part dealt with the analytical framework which was most important and appropriate to the analysis and understanding of the problem under investigation.

The second approach was to gather data to determine the extent of gender disparity, trends and current practices in the reduction of this particular educational problem. This section of the report focused on the quantitative and qualitative data about the respondents' perception on the current practices in the reduction of gender disparity of primary education. Hence, data source, sampling technique, organization and management of data collection, instruments employed, pilot testing and the methods of data analysis were described below.

## 3.2 Sources of Data

Two types of data (both primary and secondary) were used in this study. The primary data were collected from education personnel such as, educational planners, supervisors and experts at sample WEO, ZEO and OREB level.

Furthermore, students (boys and girls), teachers and PTA members in the sample schools were also included as primary sources of data.

Secondary data were obtained from recent publications, relevant books, journals, recent statistical data, reports on performance of ESDP I and II, major targets of ESDP III and strategic planning of OREB, sample ZEOs, WEOs and schools. In addition, observation regarding the availability of basic facilities such as separate latrine for girls, water supply and related matters in the sample schools were made.

### 3.3. Samples and Sampling Techniques

This study was designed to be conducted in two zones i.e. Guji and North Showa zones in Oromia, and they were deliberately selected from those fourteen zones whose GER of girls was less than their counterparts (or boys). Thus, the deliberate choice of the two zones, out of all other zones was based on purposive sampling by classifying zones into two categories.

The first category included those zones whose GPI was less than the regional average GPI (0.74) as characteristics to represent extreme low gender disparity zones. Guji (0.52) East Hararge (0.56), West Hararge (0.58), Borena (0.59), Bale (0.63), West Showa (0.73) and South West Showa (0.73) zones were classified under this category. The second category covered other zones whose GPI was greater than the regional average GPI as characteristic to represent moderate gender disparity zones. Here, West Wollega (0.86), East Showa (O.82), Ilubabor (o.84) Jimma (0.83), West Wollega (0.82), North Showa (0.81) and Arsi (0.80) were classified under the second category (OREB, 2004/5:5).

According to the same source, the two sample zones namely, Guji and North Showa have GER below the regional average (i.e. 85.4 per cent). With regard to gender gap in GER, the two zones were put a part between the two different extremes of classification i.e the highest (51.7per cent.) in Guji and the lowest (13.4per cent.) in North Showa when compared to each zone in the region In selecting sample woredas and schools random sampling technique was

employed to minimize bias. For this, four WEOs from each zone were selected because to maintain equal number of WEOs representation from both Guji and North Showa Zones. With respect to schools, two complete primary schools (1-8) from each district were also selected randomly.

Once this task was accomplished, again with in the sample schools, grade levels, the size of students and, teachers were set. Accordingly, 4 students (2 boys and 2 girls) each from grade 4, 7 and 8 were selected through random sampling since there was very large number of students within the sample schools. This comprised about 5 per cent of students in grade 4, 7 and 8 of each of the sample school. Moreover, simple random sampling techniques was used to include seven (25 to 20 per cent) of the existing teachers and 50 per cent of PTA members from each school to ensure their fair representation respectively. Twenty five per cent of the total education personnel in each WEO were also included in the study through purposive sampling because of their awareness of the problem. Finally, three or four educational officials at ZEO, and OREB levels were also included in the study through purposive sampling technique because of their better knowledge and experience. Overall the study involved 2 zones, 8 WEOs, and 16 primary schools from which a total of 48 sections of grades 4, 7 and 8 were considered .In short, the total sample size was presented in table 4 below.

**Table 4 Total Sample Size of the Study by Type and Zone**

| No | Types | Name of zone and sample Size | | Total sample Size from two Zones |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Guji | North Showa | |
| 1 | Students | 96 | 96 | 192 |
| 2 | Teachers | 56 | 56 | 112 |
| 3 | WEO EP and ZEOEP | 20+3 | 20+3 | 46 |
| 4 | Parents | 24 | 24 | 48 |
| 5 | OREB educational officials | - | - | 4 |
| **Total** | | **191** | **191** | **402** |

### 3.4. Data Collection Instruments

Five types of instruments questionnaire, structured interview, focus group discussion, guide lines, document analysis and unstructured interview were used to collect the necessary information. Accordingly, both open and closed questionnaires were developed to obtain data from teachers and WEO personnel, because of the advantage of covering these large numbers of subjects at a low unit cost. Because the majority of students at this level particularly at primary grades (1-4), were too young to give the required information in writing clearly a structured interview was developed to collect the necessary data from the student sample. In this regard, many authorities, especially Parkash (2005:132) has confirmed the relevance of this tool for such purpose by stating that these types of interviews are more scientific in nature than unstructured ones, for they introduce the controls that are required to permit the formulation of scientific generalizations. Unstructured interview guide were also used to substantiate the response acquired because of their manageable size. A focus-group discussion guide line was also developed for some members of the PTA to obtain factual information, opinion and attitudes to enrich the information gathered.

### 3.5. Pilot Study

The researcher employed pilot testing for validating all data collection instruments. In this process, before the actual data collection, all instruments developed were submitted for evaluation primarily to the advisor and also to two other professors who work at Addis Ababa University.

Structured interview, questionnaire and focus group discussion items were prepared first in English and then translated into afan Oromo with the help of some teachers and gender focal person at Asella College of Teachers Education, to make it understandable. Then the draft instruments were tried in a small

scale study that was under taken in a few selected primary schools in Arsi Zone. The field trial had helped a lot to identify ambiguities and misunderstandings.

As a result, the elimination of all items of the first draft and incorporating new ones were made on the instruments. To be more specific, in the first draft it was only questionnaire not structured interview which were designed to obtain data from students, the total number of these items were twenty eight in number and the item also consisted of agree and disagree rating scale. For this, a problem of understanding the issue was observed among students in the field testing .So the questionnaire which was initially prepared to gather data from students was totally rejected. Instead, simple and precise structured interview items were developed for students. Finally, these instruments were used in the process of data collection in all the sample areas

.

### 3.6. Organization and Management of Data Collection

After the sample for the study was identified four data collectors (two from each zone) were recruited. They were selected for their language skills, academic qualification and familiarity with the local area. They were 10+1 year TVET graduates. They were involved as interviewers. Before they were engaged in this task, they were given orientation as to how to carry out this job.

In administering the interview first of all, a group of 12 students were randomly selected from grades 4, 7 and 8. From each of these grades 4 student (2 females and 2 males) were selected by lot in which every one from the three grades was grouped according sex and took a piece of paper with numbers on them. Only two papers for each of female and male groups of one grade were written from 1 to 2 and the rest being marked with Zero. These students who picked the pieces of papers written either 1 or 2 were taken as sample. In case, when there were more sections (up to four) in a grade, one sample student was drawn from all

sections. By so doing a total of 192 students were interviewed from the 16 sample schools.

Questionnaires were also administered by distributing it to both teachers and WEOs personnel. Then, after a brief explanation about the aim of the questionnaire, they individually responded to both open and closed ended items. Here, a total of 152 copies of the questionnaires (112 for teachers and 40 for WEO educational personnel were distributed by the researcher. But unstructured interviews were employed to collect additional information from educational officials and experts at ZEO and OREB level .Likewise, some members of the PTA of the sample schools were appointed and gathered by the school principal. Then, the researcher and data collectors held focus-group discussion by using the guide line. All in all 48 members of PTA (parents) were involved in the discussion.

In addition, documenting some relevant information about educational coverage particularly enrolment was done through the document inspection form prepared for this purpose

## 3.7 Methods of Data Analysis

### 3.7.1 The variables

The dependent variable on which the analysis focuses in this study was gender parity index (G.P.I) of primary education in the study area. The independent variables were the dominant factors that contribute to widen gender disparities which were grouped into three main categories. These are socio economic, socio cultural and school related factors

.

### 3.7.2 Data Analysis

Depending on the nature of the basic questions and the data collected, the following statistical tools were employed to analyze the data gathered.

Frequency distribution or percentages of ratios was employed to analyze various characteristics of respondents. This statistical tool was also used to determine the relative standing characteristics such as age, sex, work experience, academic qualification. Moreover, percentages were used to explain trends in educational coverage such as student enrolment GPI was also used to show the variation between female and male rate of participation in primary schools-test was used to determine the significant mean differences between and among students with view on major constraints with specific consideration of sex, residence[ rural and urban) and zone.

Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient was computed to identity whether factors which were affecting one zone have also affected the other. In all the analysis, all existing differences were tested for statistical significance at 0.05 levels, to tolerate errors that come due to chance. Hence, using the above statistical tools, the next chapter treats the data collected from the field.

# CHAPTER FOUR

## PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This part of the thesis deal with the presentation, and analysis of data obtained from both primary and secondary sources. It focused mainly on two sections. In the first section, the general characteristics of respondents such as students, teachers, educational officials (or personnel), and parents were explained. In the second section, the data gathered from documents, through structured interview/or questionnaire were presented and analyzed in relation to the basic questions.

The questionnaires were distributed to 112 teachers and 40 woreda education offices' educational personnel. Among the distributed questionnaire, copies those filled by 94 (about 84 per cent) of teachers and 33 (about 83 per cent) of the WEO personnel were returned and usable. In addition, 32 PTA members and a total of 6 zonal educational officials (3 from each sample Zone) and 4 educational officials at OREB level were involved in the focus group discussion and unstructured interview, respectively.

The responses of teachers, students and educational officials to each of the items given were analyzed and interpreted. Most of the data gathered are organized using tables followed by discussions. For the sake of convenience, related questions were treated together. The responses of PTA members, ZEO, and OREB educational officials were used as additional ideas to substantiate the students, teachers and WEO educational personnel responses. For this, the responses were expected to be sufficient to draw inferences for the study.

### 4.1 General Characteristics of Respondents

The respondents involved in the study were 192 students, 94 teachers, 33 educational personnel and 32 PTA members. According to the information from these respondents, some of their general characteristics were presented in Table 5 and Table 6 below.

**Table 5 Characteristic of Student Interviewees by Their Sex, Age, Residence and Zones**

| No. | Items | Zone | | | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Sex | Guji | | North Showa | | | |
| | | No. | % | No. | % | No. | % |
| | Female | 48 | 50 | 48 | 50 | 96 | 50 |
| | Male | 48 | 50 | 48 | 50 | 96 | 50 |
| | Total | 96 | 100 | 96 | 100 | 192 | 100 |
| 2 | Grade attending now | | | | | | |
| | 4 | 32 | 33.33 | 32 | 33.33 | 64 | 33.33 |
| | 7 | 32 | 33.33 | 32 | 33.33 | 64 | 33.33 |
| | 8 | 32 | 33.33 | 32 | 33.33 | 64 | 33.33 |
| | Total | 96 | 100 | 96 | 100 | 192 | 100 |
| 3 | Age | | | | | | |
| | Below 10 | 2 | 2.08 | 5 | 5.20 | 7 | 3.64 |
| | 10-14 | 61 | 63.54 | 56 | 58.33 | 117 | 60.93 |
| | 15-19 | 22 | 22.91 | 28 | 29.17 | 50 | 26.04 |
| | 20 and above | 11 | 11.46 | 7 | 7.29 | 19 | 9.89 |
| | Total | 96 | 100 | 96 | 100 | 192 | 100 |
| 4 | Residence | | | | | | |
| | Rural | 76 | 79.16 | 72 | 75 | 148 | 77.09 |
| | Urban | 20 | 20.83 | 24 | 25 | 44 | 22.91 |
| | Total | 96 | 100 | 96 | 100 | 192 | 100 |

As Table 5 depicts, a total of 192 students or 96 male and 96 females were involved in the study. This was done purposely in order to take an equal number of sample students from both sexes. Correspondingly, an equal number of the sample students were taken from each grade level (i.e grades 4, 7 and 8). As far as the age of the sample students was concerned, it was generally 167 (about 87 percent) between the ranges of 10 to 19 years old. There were also students whose age was below 10 years. This is unusual in most primary schools of Ethiopia since the official age for starting primary schooling is 7 years. From this point of view, by the time a student reaches grade 4 he or she should be at least 10 years old. The other thing that can also be observed from Table 5 is that 18 (9 per cent) of all students were 20 years and above. In fact,

this is also a range of student's age that cannot be representing the expected age level of primary education, even if late entry (admission) to schooling is a common experience in most parts of the country. In this regard, out of 18 sample students of the two zones, 11 (61 per cent) belong to Guji Zone. Regarding residence, the student respondents come from both rural and urban areas. However, the majority 77 per cent of all the sample students belong to rural families.

**Table 6 Age, Qualification, and Experiences of Teachers and WEO Educational Personnel**

| No. | Item (s) | Respondents | | | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Teachers | | WEDEP | | | |
| 1 | **Sex** | **No.** | **%** | **No.** | **%** | **No** | **%** |
| | Male | 56 | 59.54 | 21 | 63.64 | 77 | 60.63 |
| | Female | 38 | 40.46 | 12 | 36.36 | 50 | 39.37 |
| | **Total** | **94** | **100** | **33** | **100** | **127** | **100** |
| 2 | **Age** | | | | | | |
| | Below 25 | 18 | 19.15 | 1 | 3.03 | 19 | 44.96 |
| | 25 – 34 | 38 | 40.43 | 6 | 18.18 | 44 | 34.65 |
| | 35 – 44 | 24 | 25.53 | 15 | 45.46 | 19 | 30.70 |
| | 45 – 54 | 12 | 12.80 | 8 | 24.24 | 20 | 15.75 |
| | 55+ | 1 | 1.06 | 3 | 9.09 | 4 | 3.15 |
| | **Total** | **94** | **100** | **33** | **100** | **127** | **100** |
| 3 | **Service** | | | | | | |
| | Below 6 | 27 | 28.72 | 2 | 6.06 | 29 | 22.83 |
| | 6-10 | 15 | 15.96 | 3 | 9.09 | 18 | 14.17 |
| | 11-15 | 23 | 24.47 | 7 | 21.21 | 30 | 23.62 |
| | 16-20 | 17 | 18.10 | 10 | 30.30 | 27 | 21.26 |
| | 20+ | 12 | 12.77 | 11 | 33.33 | 21 | 16.54 |
| | **Total** | **94** | **100** | **33** | **100** | **127** | **100** |
| 4 | **Educational status** | | | | | | |
| | TTI | 42 | 44.81 | 1 | 3.03 | 43 | 33.85 |
| | Diploma | 48 | 51.10 | 24 | 72.73 | 72 | 56.69 |
| | Other | 4 | 4.25 | 8 | 24.24 | 10 | 7.87 |
| | **Total** | **94** | **100** | **33** | **100** | **127** | **100** |
| 5 | **Position** | | | | | | |
| | **1. Teaching staff** | | | | | | |
| | Principal | 6 | 6.38 | - | - | 6 | 6.38 |
| | V/Principal | 9 | 9.57 | - | - | 9 | 9.57 |
| | Unit leader | 6 | 6.38 | - | - | 6 | 6.38 |
| | Gender focal | 4 | 4.26 | - | - | 4 | 4.26 |
| | Teachers | 71 | 75.53 | - | - | 71 | 75.53 |
| | **Total** | **94** | **100** | | | **94** | **100** |
| | **2. WEOEP** | | | | | | |
| | WOE head | - | - | 2 | 6.06 | 2 | 6.06 |
| | Section head | - | - | 8 | 24.24 | 8 | 24.24 |
| | Supervisor | - | - | 5 | 15.15 | 5 | 15.15 |
| | Expert | - | - | 4 | 12.12 | 4 | 12.12 |
| | Other | - | - | 2 | 6.06 | 2 | 6.06 |
| | **Total** | **-** | **-** | **33** | **100** | **33** | **100** |

Item one of Table 6 shows that 94 (74 per cent) of the respondents were teachers 33 (26 per cent were Woreda educational personnel. Among these 56 (60 per cent) teachers and 21 (64 per cent) WEO educational personnel were males whereas only 38 (40 per cent) teachers and 12 (36 per cent) were females. Here, in both educational institutions (school and WEO office) there were few female education professionals in both zones. However, many other researchers, for instance, Effa, (2006), Assefa, (1991) Merga, (1999) and others have stressed the importance of increasing the proportion of females in the teaching force.

Item two of Table 6 shows the majority, 38 (40 per cent) of teachers were between the age group of 25 to 34. But a large number 15 (45 per cent) of WEO educational personnel were between the age group of 35 to 44. It was only 1 (1 per cent) of teachers and 3 (9 per cent) WEO educational personnel were 55 years old and above. The highest percentage 48 (51 per cent) of teachers and 24 (73) per cent of WEO educational personnel were diploma holders. Nearly 45 per cent of teachers also had a TTI certificate from teacher's education institutions of the region. Of all these, 64 (67 per cent) teachers were assigned to teach at grades 5 to 8 while 31 (37 per cent) of teachers were assigned to teach at grades 1-4. Thus, teachers of both first and second cycles of the primary education were included in the study.

Regarding their years of service the majority, 27 (29 per cent) had experiences ranging between below 6 years. In fact, as such there were no significant differences among teachers and WEO educational personnel. However, the majority 21 (64 percent) of WEO educational personnel had served more than 15 years. This indicates that the majority of WEO, educational personnel have longer years of experiences than teachers in both Guji and North Showa Zones. Table 6 further shows that the teaching staff comprised principal, vice principals, unit leaders, gender focal points and subject teachers. Whereas the WEO, educational personnel were made up of individuals working in different

positions such as WEO head, section head, supervisor, expert and others (for details see Table 6 above).

**Table 7 Family Background of student Interviewees by Zone**

| No. | Item (s) | Guji | | North Showa | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | No | % | No | % | No | % |
| 1 | **Living Arrangement** | | | | | | |
| | With both parents | 57 | 59.40 | 66 | 68.75 | 123 | 64.06 |
| | With Mother only | 11 | 11.45 | 14 | 14.58 | 25 | 13.02 |
| | With Father only | 5 | 5.20 | 3 | 3.13 | 8 | 4.17 |
| | With Relative | 18 | 18.75 | 10 | 10.14 | 28 | 14.58 |
| | No response | 5 | 5.20 | 3 | 3.13 | 8 | 4.17 |
| | **Total** | **96** | **100** | **96** | **100** | **192** | **100** |
| 2 | **Mothers' Educational level** | | | | | | |
| | Illiterate | 56 | 50.96 | 45 | 43.37 | 101 | 53.16 |
| | Basic Literacy | 23 | 24.21 | 23 | 24.21 | 46 | 24.21 |
| | Primary education | 12 | 12.63 | 13 | 13.68 | 25 | 13.16 |
| | Secondary education | 2 | 2.10 | 4 | 4.21 | 6 | 3.15 |
| | No response | 2 | 2.10 | 10 | 10.53 | 12 | 6.32 |
| | **Total** | **95** | **100** | **95** | **100** | **190** | **100** |
| 3 | **Father educational level** | | | | | | |
| | Illiterate | 33 | 34.48 | 37 | 39.36 | 70 | 37.43 |
| | Basic literacy | 26 | 28.00 | 19 | 20.21 | 45 | 24.06 |
| | Primary education | 23 | 24.73 | 15 | 15.96 | 38 | 20.32 |
| | Secondary education | 8 | 8.60 | 10 | 10.64 | 18 | 9.63 |
| | No response | 3 | 3.22 | 13 | 13.83 | 16 | 8.56 |
| | **Total** | **93** | **100** | **94** | **100** | **187** | **100** |

Item one of Table 7 shows that the majority 57 (about 59 per cent) in Guji and 66 (about 69 per cent) in North Showa Zone live with both parents (i.e. father and mothers).On the other hand, 11 (11.45 per cent) in Guji and 14 (14.58 per cent) in North Showa were living with their mothers only. And 5 (5.2 per cent) and 3 (3.12 per cent) of the students interviewed were living with their fathers only in Guji and North Showa Zones respectively. The rest 23 (about 25 per cent) of students in Guji and North Showa Zone either lived with husbands, other relatives or guardians. This was often so because one of the parents were dead or divorced.

Regarding parental education, 56 (59 per cent) of students in Guji and 45 (47 per cent) in North Showa respectively reported to have mothers with no schooling. It was nearly 37 per cent of student interviewees of both Guji and

North Showa Zones who reported to have a mother who had education of basic literacy level to primary education (complete or incomplete). It was only 2 to 4 per cent of student interviewees who reported to have a mother who had secondary education level. Thus, it is possible to conclude that mother's educational level in both study areas is extremely low. And this is a common feature of many rural area of Ethiopia. It is also a fact that mother's lack of education tends to negatively influence girls education. And this might also contribute to widen the gender gap in primary education in particular and education in general. Father's educational level is also low as Table 7 shows. Most students, both from Guji and North Showa Zones have illiterate fathers. 33 (34 per cent) of student interviewees in both Guji zone and 37 (39 per cent) from North Showa have such fathers. Table 7 also indicates that 20 to 28 per cent of the fathers of students in North Showa and Guji have education level of basic literacy. And Nearly 16 to 25 per cent have primary education. Very few fathers had secondary education level which might be complete or incomplete.

In general, the majority of parents (77 per cent of mothers and 61 per cent of fathers) both in Guji and North Showa Zones were either with very limited educational background or no schooling. Therefore, lack of or low level of parental education might have contributed to the existing gender disparity of primary education in the study area. In this regard, the data revealed that there were no significant variations observed between the two zones

.

### 4.2. The Current Status and Trends in Gender Disparity of Primary Education in the Study Areas.

#### 4.2.1. Enrolment

In Oromia at regional level, coverage of primary education, as measured by enrolment in grade 1-8 has shown a significant growth during 2001/02 – 2006/07. This trend has continued in both sample Zones, i.e. Guji and North Showa (See Table 8 and 9). Furthermore, such an improvement in access and coverage of primary education helped to reduce gender disparity both at regional

and sample Zones level. According to the data obtained, gender gap in enrolment in and from primary education (1-8) at regional level has narrowed from 31 per cent in 2001/02 to 19.7 per cent in 2006/07. Similarly, the gender gap due to enrolment of primary education also narrowed from 56 to 16.65 per cent in 2001/02 to 44.27 to 8.83 per cent in 2006/07 both in Guji and North Showa Zones, respectively (see Table 9). However, such successful achievement in the reduction of gender disparity of primary education cannot happen in vacuum. In this connection, educational officials both at REB and ZEOs of the study areas were asked to explain clearly the efforts made to reduce these disparities during the interviews conducted with them. Accordingly, the following interventions were employed. These include construction of new schools closer to children's villages, registration of children before the opening of schools, measures taken to raise parents awareness to send their children to schools, community participation in school affairs, taking action on harassment, follow up of absentees and dropouts, counseling support and the gradual fulfillment of basic facilities such as separate latrine, water supply, food security, etc. Moreover, this was also the issue pointed out by the majority of teachers and WEOEP respondents in open-ended items of the questionnaire in all research settings.

In general though different intervention measures were taken at various levels in the region to reduce gender gap in primary education, yet the proportion of female students' enrolment is still lower than boys (see Table 8).

**Table 8 Trends of Gender disparity in primary Education enrolments of Guji and North Showa Zones by cycles from year 2001/02 – 2006/07.**

| Year | Guji | | | | | | | | | North Showa | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Grade 1-4 | | | Grade 5-8 | | | Total 1-8 | | | Grade 1-4 | | | Grade 5-8 | | | Total 1-8 | | |
| | T | F | % F | T | F | % F | T | F | % F | T | F | % F | T | F | % F | T | F | %F |
| 2001/02 | 90890 | 24205 | 26.6 | 25722 | 5406 | 21.0 | 116612 | 29611 | 25.4 | 104168 | 46202 | 44.4 | 34987 | 12187 | 34.9 | 142155 | 58389 | 41.1 |
| 2002/03 | 96416 | 28044 | 29.1 | 31692 | 6723 | 21.2 | 128108 | 34767 | 27.1 | 104104 | 45592 | 43.8 | 44772 | 16505 | 36.9 | 148876 | 62097 | 41.8 |
| 2003/04 | 110251 | 37783 | 34.3 | 36787 | 8368 | 22.70 | 147038 | 46151 | 31.4 | 115576 | 52310 | 45.3 | 53783 | 20640 | 38.4 | 169359 | 72954 | 43.1 |
| 2004/05 | 143618 | 52586 | 36.6 | 44380 | 10174 | 22.9 | 187998 | 62760 | 33.4 | 149614 | 69082 | 46.2 | 62255 | 25048 | 40.3 | 211669 | 94130 | 44.5 |
| 2005/06 | 140356 | 53097 | 37.8 | 48120 | 12411 | 25.8 | 188476 | 65508 | 34.8 | 153639 | 72182 | 47.0 | 67597 | 28671 | 42.5 | 221236 | 100859 | 45.6 |
| 2006/07 | 153570 | 57794 | 37.6 | 62472 | 14919 | 23.88 | 216042 | 72713 | 33.7 | 157818 | 75054 | 47.0 | 68650 | 29640 | 43.2 | 226468 | 104634 | 46.3 |

**Source: Education Annual Abstracts of 2001/02, 2002/03, 2003/04, 2004/05 and other unpublished Educational Documents of OREB, Guji and North Showa Education offices.**

**Table 9 Comparison of primary Education (1-8) GER, GGP and GPI of the Sample Zones Between 2001/02 to 2006/07 in Oromia**

| Year(s) | Guji | | | | | North Showa | | | | | Oromia | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | T | GGP | GPI | M | F | T | GGP | GPI | M | F | T | GGP | GPI |
| 2001/02 | 87.0 | 31.0 | 59.7 | 56.0 | 0.36 | 56.39 | 39.74 | 48.11 | 16.65 | 0.70 | 77 | 46 | 62 | 31 | 0.60 |
| 2002/03 | 86.8 | 34.0 | 61.0 | 52.8 | 0.39 | 57.24 | 41.21 | 49.24 | 16.03 | 0.72 | 82 | 51 | 67 | 31 | 0.62 |
| 2003/04 | 91.1 | 43.7 | 68.0 | 47.4 | 0.48 | 61.80 | 46.97 | 54.40 | 14.83 | 0.76 | 86 | 58 | 73 | 28 | 0.67 |
| 2004/05 | 109.2 | 57.3 | 83.9 | 51.9 | 0.52 | 71.80 | 58.40 | 65.20 | 13.40 | 0.81 | 98 | 73 | 85 | 25 | 0.74 |
| 2005/06 | 98.62 | 54.33 | 76.89 | 44.29 | 0.55 | 71.49 | 60.81 | 66.19 | 10.68 | 0.85 | 98 | 77 | 87.7 | 21 | 0.78 |
| 2006/07 | * | * | * | * | * | 69.43 | 60.60 | 65.05 | 8.83 | 0.87 | 98.9 | 79.2 | 89.09 | 19.7 | 0.80 |

**Sources: Education Annual Abstracts of Different years and other unpublished Educational Documents of OREB, Guji and North Showa Zone Education Offices.**

*** Data not available in the form of GER**

### 4.2.2. Admission to Grade One

According to the data obtained both from OREB and sample Zones, there was a rapid increase of students admission during the year 2001/02 to 2004/05 (see also table 10). Accordingly, the net intake rate to grade one, which was 25 per cent in 2001/02, has increased to 49.8 per cent in 2004/05 in Oromia. During these years the intake rate of girls has increased from 23 to 47.7per cent and that of boys from 26 to 51.9 per cent. This increment in the net intake rate to grade one also significantly contributes to close the gender gap in primary education in Oromia. Likewise, in Guji and North Showa Zones, the same increasing trend in intake rate to grade one has also been observed during this period of five years (see Table 10 and OREB, 2004/5:3).

**Table 10 Admission in Grade one between 2001/02 to 2006/07 in Oromia and Sample Zones levels.**

| Year | Guji | | | | North Showa | | | | Oromia | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | T | %F | M | F | T | %F | M | F | T | %F |
| 2001/02 | 17670 | 8167 | 25837 | 31.6 | 19958 | 15555 | 35513 | 43.8 | 420139 | 298045 | 718184 | 41.49 |
| 2002/03 | 18449 | 9454 | 27903 | 39.9 | 17560 | 14482 | 32042 | 45.2 | 454290 | 336982 | 791272 | 42.58 |
| 2003/04 | 20921 | 15952 | 36873 | 43.3 | 23426 | 21206 | 44632 | 47.5 | 300364 | 271214 | 571578 | 47.4 |
| 2004/05 | 33904 | 23858 | 57762 | 41.3 | 36895 | 32783 | 69678 | 47.05 | 691664 | 62053 | 1320717 | 47.62 |
| 2005/06 | 29927 | 19070 | 48997 | 38.9 | 29036 | 26299 | 55335 | 47.5 | 616066 | 540258 | 1,156,324 | 46.72 |
| 2006/07 | 28417 | 18830 | 43558 | 43.2 | 29451 | 26808 | 56259 | 47.7 | * | * | * | * |

**Sources: Education Annual Abstracts of Different years and other un published Educational Documents of DREB, Guji and North Showa Education offices.**

*** Data not available**

### 4.2.3. Dropouts Rate

Dropout was 17.7 per cent (boys 17.3 per cent and girls 18.6 per cent ) in 2001/02 and reduced to 14.9 per cent (boys 15.1 percent and girls 14.3 percent ) in 2003/04 (OREB, 2005:29 ) According to the same source, the dropout rate at primary level was the highest in grade one which was 28.5 per cent (boys 28.1 per cent and girls 29.1 per cent in 2001/02 but lowered to 22.75 per cent (boys 21.78 and girls 23.89 per cent in 2003/4. Infact, to direct efforts towards reducing student dropouts' rate needs the greatest capacity to manage the education sector. According to the interview made with educational officials at zonal and regional level, several efforts were under way in various WEOs and schools aimed at confronting to reduce the number of dropouts .Some of the exemplary efforts made were summarized under sub title "possible intervention measures...".(see on page 80 of this chapter ).

### 4.3. Factors Contributing to Gender Disparities

#### 4.3.1. Socio Economic Factors

**Table 11 The Extent of School Fees in One Academic Year as Perceived by Students, Teachers and WEOEPs.**

| | Guji | | | | | | North Showa | | | | | | Total | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Students | | Teachers | | WEOEP | | Students | | Teacher | | WEOEP | | Students | | Teacher | | WEOEP | |
| | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % |
| Is there any fee that your parents pay in this particular academic year? | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| A. Yes | 57 | 61.29 | 35 | 64.81 | 4 | 57.14 | 38 | 41.30 | 11 | 28.21 | 5 | 38.46 | 95 | 51.35 | 46 | 49.46 | 9 | 45 |
| B. No | 31 | 33.33 | 14 | 25.93 | 2 | 28.57 | 46 | 50.00 | 27 | 69.23 | 6 | 46.5 | 77 | 41.62 | 41 | 44.09 | 8 | 40 |
| C. Do not know | 5 | 5.38 | 5 | 9.26 | 1 | 14.29 | 8 | 8.70 | 1 | 2.56 | 2 | 15.39 | 13 | 7.03 | 6 | 6.45 | 3 | 15 |
| **Total** | **93** | **100** | **54** | **100** | **7** | **100** | **92** | **100** | **39** | **100** | **13** | **100** | **185** | **100** | **93** | **100** | **20** | **100** |
| If your response to item is "A" estimate the amount of fees? | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| A. Below 20 Eth Birr | 21 | 36.84 | 28 | 80.00 | 6 | 85.71 | 22 | 57.89 | 10 | 83.34 | 10 | 76.92 | 43 | 45.26 | 44 | 77.19 | 16 | 80 |
| B. 20-50 Birr | 17 | 29.82 | 5 | 14.29 | 1 | 14.29 | 10 | 26.32 | 1 | 8.33 | 1 | 7.69 | 27 | 28.42 | 8 | 14.04 | 2 | 10 |
| C. 51-80 Birr | 13 | 22.81 | 2 | 5.71 | - | | 2 | 5.26 | 1 | 8.33 | 2 | 15.39 | 15 | 15.79 | 5 | 8.77 | 2 | 10 |
| D. 81-110 | 6 | 10.53 | - | | - | | 4 | 10.53 | - | | - | - | 10 | 10.53 | - | | - | |
| E. 111 and above | - | | - | | - | | - | | - | | - | - | - | | - | | - | |
| **Total** | **57** | **100** | **35** | **100** | **7** | **100** | **38** | **100** | **12** | **100** | **13** | **100** | **95** | **100** | **57** | **100** | **20** | 100 |

The intention in item one of Table 11 was to know whether or not gender disparity exists due to some payments for schooling. Although, the NETP have removed school fees essentially up to the level of general education in the country the majority, 95 (51 per cent) of students, 46 (49 per cent) of teachers, and 9 (45 per cent) of WEOEP reported that parents and students both in Guji and North Showa zones have to make some unplanned and irregular payment (fees) for schooling in a year. But 77 (41 per cent) of teachers and 8(40 per cent) of WEOEP respondents said they did not pay for schooling since education at this level is believed to be offered for all citizens freely.

In item two of the same table, a considerable number (nearly 45 per cent) of students, 77 of teachers and 80 of WEOEP reported that parents or students were asked to pay below 20 Ethiopian Birr. And this was also investigated during the focus-group discussion held with parents in the sample schools. According to the opinion of the majority parents particularly from Guji zone were asked for school payments up to 100 birr and above for building additional classrooms, for employing teachers, uniform etc. In conclusion, given the low in come in both rural and urban areas, the estimated amount of school payment expected from parents is not an easy cost. And the problem might be more serious for girls than boys when parents feel unhappy to take the decision passed by schools. Thus, this finding supports the research results reported by Herz et.al,(1991) in Teshome (2002), and others that school fees and expenses relating to transport, clothing, books etc widen the gender gap as families cannot afford to educate all their children, girls are the ones that stay at home, helping with household chores.

**Table 12: The Extent of Parental Demand for Child Labor in Specific Household Activities in Guji and North Showa zones across Gender**

| Variable (s) | Weighted Mean | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Guji Zone | | | North Showa | | |
| | Male N=42 | Female N=47 | Average Mean score | Male N=48 | Female N=42 | Average Mean score |
| Cooking meals | 2.81 | 3.66 | 3.26 | 1.81 | 3.86 | 2.77 |
| Fetching water | 3.17 | 3.49 | 3.34 | 2.67 | 3.26 | 2.94 |
| Caring for siblings | 2.45 | 3.04 | 2.76 | 2.23 | 2.97 | 2.49 |
| Fetching fire wood | 2.57 | 3.81 | 3.22 | 2.23 | 2.36 | 2.29 |
| Cleaning house | 2.33 | 3.19 | 2.79 | 2.42 | 3.64 | 2.99 |
| Washing | 2.67 | 4.23 | 3.49 | 2.73 | 3.48 | 3.08 |
| Farming | 3.97 | 2.77 | 3.33 | 3.40 | 2.98 | 3.20 |
| Marketing | 2.64 | 2.85 | 2.75 | 2.77 | 2.83 | 2.80 |
| Looking after cattle | 3.31 | 2.85 | 3.07 | 2.98 | 2.38 | 2.70 |
| Caring for sick siblings | 3.50 | 3.45 | 3.47 | 2.58 | 2.60 | 2.59 |

In order to identify some dominant socio economic factors that contribute to widen gender disparities of primary education in Oromia, the students both girls and boys were asked to rate the extent that they spent on some specific household and other out of school activities. The responses of the sample students were shown in weighted mean score in the above table. Accordingly, when the values of the responses of students rank ordered washing, cooking meals, fetching water and cleaning house were the ones that consume the most time available for girls than boys in both zones. Whereas, fetching fire wood and caring for siblings or sick siblings were the activities that took female labor in Guji zone than female students in North Showa zone. On the other hand, activities such as farming and looking after cattle were also the ones that occupy the

higher proportion of time available for male than female students both in Guji and North Showa zones.

In general, the data also revealed that the extent of parental demand for child labor in specific household activities was higher for females than boys and the weighted mean score was found to be 4.23 and 3.97 for females and males respectively. Therefore, this finding supports the research results reported by Teshome (2002). That is in Oromia domestic work was still rated as an area that requires female participation for the whole week. And this is an implication for higher opportunity costs of girls' time than boys. Moreover, this can also provide evidence why fewer girls go to primary schools than boys in Oromia. Further examination of responses on this issue between the two zones parental demand for child labor was significant in Guji than North Showa (see Table 14). And this was also an important reason given to the existence of large gender disparity of primary education in Guji zone in particular and Oromia region in general. To see whether the variations, between two zones due to the function sex, are significant, t-test was employed. Accordingly, as indicated in the t-test Table 14 below, significant difference was found between male and female students (t=-3.384 P<.001, df=177), rural and urban students (at t=2.715 value, p <007, df=177) as well as between the respondents of the two zones Guji and North Showa zone (at t=2.801 value P<.006 df= 177). These findings imply that gender disparity of primary education as function due to parental demand for child labor was more significant among girls than boys.

**Table 13 The Extent of Parental Demand for Child Labor in Specific Household Activities both in Guji and North Showa Zones by Residence.**

| Variable (s) | Weighted Mean Guji Zone | | | Weighted Mean North Showa | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Rural N=70 | Urban N=19 | Average Mean N=89 | Rural N=68 | Urban N=22 | Average mean |
| Cooking meals | 3.41 | 2.68 | 3.26 | 2.82 | 2.59 | 3.01 |
| Fetching water | 3.46 | 2.89 | 3.34 | 2.93 | 3.00 | 3.14 |
| Caring for siblings | 2.94 | 2.11 | 2.76 | 2.43 | 2.55 | 2.63 |
| Fetching fire wood | 3.47 | 2.32 | 3.22 | 2.31 | 2.23 | 2.75 |
| Cleaning house | 2.81 | 2.68 | 2.79 | 2.90 | 3.27 | 2.99 |
| Washing | 3.70 | 2.74 | 3.49 | 3.21 | 2.68 | 3.08 |
| Farming | 3.53 | 2.58 | 3.33 | 3.31 | 2.86 | 3.20 |
| Marketing | 2.80 | 2.58 | 2.75 | 2.90 | 2.50 | 2.80 |
| Looking after cattle | 3.24 | 2.42 | 3.07 | 2.76 | 2.50 | 2.70 |
| Caring for sick siblings | 3.59 | 3.05 | 3.47 | 2.60 | 2.55 | 2.59 |

Close observation of the weighted mean scores of students' responses of Table 13 indicated that there was also a demand for child labor in specific household activities in rural and urban families of the study areas. In fact, rural and urban differ in the extent or degree of involvement in house hold activities particularly in Guji zone. To be more specific, a higher proportion of rural students reported that they were involved in caring for sick siblings, washing and looking after cattle and fetching fire wood than children in urban schools. In this case, the difference between the two categories was more significant in Guji than North Showa. Accordingly, as indicated in Table 14 below, significant difference was found between rural and urban child to ($p<.007$, $df=177$). i.e. rural poor were more affected. Thus, among other factors poverty might be the cause for this difference. This is because poor families expect their child to bring in income.

**Table 14 Means, Standard Deviations and T-test values of Parental demand for Child labor in Specific household activities by Sex, Residence and Zone**

| Variable (s) | Category | N | mean | SD | t-statistic |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Sex | Male | 90 | 27.49 | 6.40 | -3.384 |
| | Female | 89 | 31.84 | 10.37 | df=177 |
| Residence | Rural | 138 | 30.62 | 9.19 | 2.715 |
| | Urban | 41 | 26.41 | 6.75 | Df=172 |
| Zone | Guji | 89 | 31.48 | 10.39 | 2.801 |
| | North Showa | 90 | 27.84 | 6.59 | Df=177 |

### 4.3.2. Socio Cultural Factors

**Table 15 Responses of Student Interviewees Concerning the Attitudes of Their parents towards their education**

| No | Item | Student responses in % | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Guji | | | North Showa | | |
| | | Boys | Girls | Total | Boys | Girls | Total |
| 1 | Support | 62.50 | 52.10 | 57.30 | 64.40 | 38.40 | 51.70 |
| 2 | Do not support | 18.80 | 20.80 | 19.80 | 20.00 | 23.80 | 21.80 |
| 3 | Indifferent | 18.80 | 27.10 | 22.90 | 15.60 | 33.30 | 24.10 |

As shown in the above Table 15 the majority (57 per cent) of students from Guji and nearly 52 per cent of students from North Showa zone reported that their parents support them for being students. But, about 20 per cent of students in Guji and 22 per cent of students in North Showa zones replied that their parents do not support them being a student. Item three of the same table does not show these differences i.e., neither fathers nor do mothers' support them for being students. The study also examined differences in parental attitudes

as a function of the sex of children among the two zones. To be more specific, a higher proportion of boys than girls in both Guji and North Showa zones reported that their parents support for being students. On the other hand a bigger proportion of female students than male students in both study zones reported that their parents did not support them. And this has an implication for the existence of gender disparities which either result in dropout or repetition in primary education.

**Table 16 Opinion about the Demand for Primary Education and Parental Attitudes to wards Educating Girls in the Study Areas.**

| Item (s) | Responses of Respondents | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Guji | | | | | | North Showa | | | | | | Total | |
| | Teachers | | WEOEP | | Total | | Teachers | | WEOEP | | Total | | | |
| | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | **No** | **%** |
| The demand for primary education is said to be; | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| a. Very high | 17 | 31.48 | 2 | 20 | 19 | 29.69 | 11 | 27.5 | 5 | 23.81 | 16 | 26.23 | 35 | 28.00 |
| b. High | 16 | 29.63 | 6 | 60 | 22 | 34.38 | 22 | 55 | 12 | 57.14 | 34 | 55.74 | 56 | 44.80 |
| c. Average | 16 | 29.63 | 2 | 20 | 18 | 28.13 | 5 | 12.5 | 4 | 19.05 | 9 | 14.75 | 27 | 21.60 |
| d. Low | 3 | 5.56 | - | - | 3 | 4.69 | 2 | 5 | - | - | 2 | 3.28 | 5 | 4.00 |
| e. Very low | 2 | 3.70 | - | - | 2 | 3.13 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | 1.60 |
| **Total** | 54 | 100 | 10 | 100 | 64 | 100 | 40 | 100 | 21 | 100 | 61 | 100 | 125 | 100 |
| If a' or b', between the choices of sending either boys o r girls, for whom do you think priority be given? | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| a. For boys | 26 | 78.79 | 8 | 100 | 34 | 82.93 | 28 | 84.85 | 16 | 94.12 | 44 | 88 | 78 | 85.72 |
| b. For girls | 5 | 15.15 | - | - | 5 | 12.20 | 3 | 9.09 | - | - | 3 | 6 | 8 | 8.79 |
| c. Do not know | 2 | 6.06 | - | - | 2 | 4.88 | 2 | 6.06 | 1 | 5.88 | 3 | 6 | 5 | 5.49 |
| **Total** | 33 | 100 | 8 | 100 | 41 | 100 | 33 | 100 | 17 | 100 | 50 | 100 | 91 | 100 |

Table 16 depicts the opinion of the respondents about the demand for primary education and attitudes of parent's preference in giving priority either to boys or girls. According to the majority 56 or 45 per cent of respondents, (teachers and WEOEP) the demand for primary education was found to be high in both Guji and North Showa Zones. It was only about 6 per cent of teachers and WEOEP respondents who reported that the demand for primary education in the locality was either low or very low. In contrast, in item two of the same table, a higher proportion 34 or 83 per cent of teachers and WEOEP in Guji and 44 or 88 per cent of teachers and WEOEP in North Showa zones reported that most parents still now would prefer to give priority for boys than girls to schooling. This was one of the issues raised with all PTA members at sample schools and with educational officials at zonal and regional levels during the discussions. Surprisingly, in all visited sample schools, the same response was given by all parents including mothers to give priority to boys than girls. The reason might be many and diverse. Any how, the dominant reason given by teachers and WEOEP is indicated in the Table below.

**Table 17 The Dominant reason(s) Given by Teachers and WEOEP for why Parents Prefer to Send their Sons to School**

| Item | Response Values of Respondents | | | | | | | | | | | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Guji | | | | | | North Showa | | | | | | | |
| | Teacher | | WEOEP | | Total | | Teacher | | WEOEP | | Total | | | |
| | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % |
| Why do most parents give priority to boys than girls for schooling? | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| a)More of economic reasons | 4 | 15.38 | 3 | 37.5 | 7 | 20.50 | 7 | 25 | 7 | 43.75 | 14 | 31.82 | 21 | 26.92 |
| b) parents lack of knowledge on the benefits of girls education | 3 | 11.54 | - | - | 3 | 8.82 | 2 | 7.14 | 2 | 12.50 | 4 | 9.09 | 7 | 8.90 |
| c) Fear of forced marriage or abduction | 7 | 26.92 | 2 | 25 | 9 | 26.47 | 9 | 32.14 | 3 | 18.75 | 12 | 27.27 | 21 | 26.92 |
| d) Traditionally females have to work only at home | 11 | 42.31 | 2 | 25 | 13 | 38.34 | 10 | 35.71 | 4 | 25 | 14 | 31.82 | 27 | 34.62 |
| e) Low future employment prospect of girls | 1 | 3.85 | 1 | 12.5 | 2 | 5.88 | - | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | 2.56 |
| **Total** | **26** | **100** | **8** | **100** | **34** | **100** | **28** | **100** | **16** | **100** | **44** | **100** | **78** | **100** |

As indicated in Table 17, the first reason given by 13 or 38 percent of the teacher and WEOEP respondents in Guji Zone was traditions about females that have to work only at home; while the second and the third reasons were fear of forced marriage or abduction and economic factors such as prevalence of parental demand for child labor at home. Whereas, in the North Showa both tradition and economic reasons were given by 14 (about 32 percent) of the teacher and WEOEP respondents as the dominant factors that equally contribute to the existing gender disparity of primary education. Fear of forced marriage or abduction were the second or third reason responsible for the problem. In this regard, this finding confirms the results of the study conducted by WAD, OREB (2003).According to this study lack of awareness about the importance of educating girls was also reported as the major obstacles that affect female participation in schools of Oromia region.

**Table 18 Responses of Student Interviewees concerning the Pressure of Their parent towards early marriage**

| Item | Student responses in % | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Guji | | North Showa | |
| | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls |
| Do your parents put pressure on you to get married instead of pursuing your education? | | | | |
| Yes | 25.5 | 31.3 | 22.9 | 20.8 |
| No | 52.1 | 50.0 | 54.0 | 50.3 |
| Do not know | 22.9 | 18.8 | 23.1 | 28.9 |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

The intention in table 18 was to know whether or not differences in parental needs exist across gender or sex. Accordingly, 31.3 per cent of girls in Guji reported that there was parental pressure on their children to get married early instead of pursuing education. According to the data obtained such cultural

traditions seems stronger among girls than boys. Overall, from Table 18 it can be said that female students in Guji zone were much more influenced by their parents' pressure than that of girls in North Showa.

**Table 19 Opinion on Family's willingness to send Their daughters to school by Zone**

| Item | Responses in % | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Guji | | | North Showa | | |
| | Students | Teachers | WEOEP | Students | Teachers | WEOEP |
| Do most family's' allow their daughters to go to schools far away from their villages? | | | | | | |
| Yes | 9(9.40) | 9(16.70) | 3(30.00) | 21(22.10) | 7(17.50 | 4(19.00) |
| No | 80(83.30) | 40(74.10) | 7(70.00) | 55(57.30) | 30(75.00) | 17(81.00) |
| Do not know | 7(7.30) | 5(9.30) | - | 20(21.10) | 3(7.50) | - |
| **Total** | **96(100)** | **54(100)** | **10(100)** | **95(100)** | **40(100)** | **21(100)** |

Table 19 shows the opinion of respondents about family's willingness to send their daughters to schools far from their village in the study areas. According to the majority of students, teachers and WEOEP, in both Guji and North Showa Zones, parents lack willingness to send their daughters to distant schools from their villages. The reasons were clearly explained in Table 2o below.

**Table 20 Rank order of Socio Cultural Factors Contributing to Gender disparity of primary Education as perceived by Students, Teachers and WEOEP of Guji Zone**

| Factors | Rank | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Students | Teachers | WEOEP | Total | Rank |
| Fear of forced marriage or abduction | 36(3) | 23(1) | 4(2) | 63(2) | 2 |
| Gender stereotyped role assigned to girls in societies e.g. women's place is only at home | 42(1) | 19(2) | 4(2) | 65(1) | 1 |
| Parents consider early marriage of their daughters as sources of income | 36(3) | 16(4) | 4(2) | 56(4) | 4 |
| Fears or misconceptions that schooling might alienate girls from tradition | 37(2) | 18(3) | 4(2) | 59(3) | 3 |
| Early marriage as sources of social prestige. | 27(5) | 15(5) | 7(1) | 49(5) | 5 |

Table 20 Shows that gender stereo -type role assigned to girls in society, fear of forced marriage or abduction, and fears or misconceptions that schooling might alienate girls from traditions were rated as the most important socio-cultural factors negatively affecting gender and primary education in Guji Zone. On the other hand, considering early marriage as sources of social prestige rated least. Infact, this was not due to the increasing level of awareness' of parents .But, more of the traditions or customs in the community still governs the issues as it was identified during the focus group discussion held with PTA members.

**Table 21 Rank order of socio cultural factors contributing to Gender disparity of primary Education as perceived by students, teachers and WEOEP of North Showa Zone.**

| Factors | Rank | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Students | Teachers | WEOEP | Total | Rank |
| Fear of forced marriage or abduction | 17(3) | 12(2) | 9(4) | 37(4) | 4 |
| Gender stereotyped role assigned to girls in society e.g. Women's place is only at home. | 22(2) | 12(2) | 10(3) | 44(2) | 2 |
| Parents consider early marriage of their daughters as sources of income | 15(4) | 10(5) | 9(4) | 34(5) | 5 |
| Fears or misconceptions that schooling might alienate girls from tradition | 26(1) | 12(2) | 15(1) | 53(1) | 1 |
| Early marriage as sources of social prestige | 12(5) | 13(1) | 13(2) | 38(3) | 3 |

Table 21 reveals fears or misconceptions that schooling might alienate girls from tradition, gender stereotyped role assigned to girls in society and early marriage as sources of social prestige were rated as the most important socio-cultural factors determining gender disparity of primary education in North Showa Zone. Yet, early marriage as sources of income was rated as the lowest factors contributing to gender disparity of primary education

**Table 22 Rank-Order Correlation of the Socio cultural Factors by Zone**

| No | Factor(s) | Guji | | North showa | | D ($R_1$-$R_2$) | $D^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | $X_1$ | $R_1$ | $X_2$ | $R_2$ | | |
| 1. | Fear of forced marriage or abduction | 63 | 2 | 37 | 4 | -2 | 4 |
| 2. | Gender stereotyped role assigned to girls in societies | 65 | 1 | 44 | 2 | -1 | 1 |
| 3. | Parents consider early marriage of their daughters as source of income | 56 | 4 | 34 | 5 | -1 | 1 |
| 4. | Fears or misconceptions that schooling might alienate girls from tradition | 59 | 3 | 53 | 1 | 2 | 4 |
| 5. | Early marriage as sources of social prestige | 49 | 5 | 38 | 3 | 2 | 4 |
| | N= 5 | | | | | $\sum D = 0$ | $\sum D^2 = 14$ |

From the total of five socio cultural factors, the major factors contributing to gender disparities in both study area were found to be different. For this the overall rank order coefficients value is about 0.3, i.e since the value (rs) is not nearer to 1, there is no perfect positive relationship. Thus, it is possible to infer that some socio cultural factors that affect one zone might not affect the other zone.

### 4.3.3 School Related Factors

**Table 23 Opinion about Children Right to Primary Education and School Distance**

| No. | Item (s) | Guji | | | | North Showa | | | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Teachers | | WEOEP | | Teachers | | WEOEP | | | |
| | | No | % | No | % | No | % | No | % | | |
| 1 | Is there an equal access of admission to primary schooling? | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Yes | 38 | 7037 | 10 | 100 | 33 | 82.50 | 18 | 85.71 | 99 | 77.35 |
| | No | 11 | 20.37 | - | - | 4 | 10 | 3 | 14.29 | 18 | 14.06 |
| | Do not know | 5 | 9.26 | - | - | 3 | 7.50 | - | - | 11 | 8.59 |
| | **Total** | **54** | **100** | **10** | **100** | **40** | **100** | **21** | **100** | **128** | **100** |
| 2 | If 'yes' do all schools located at equal distance to all house holds? | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Yes | 6 | 15.79 | - | - | 7 | 21.21 | 2 | 9.52 | 15 | 14.71 |
| | No | 31 | 81.58 | 10 | 100 | 22 | 66.67 | 18 | 85.72 | 81 | 79.41 |
| | Do not know | 1 | 2.63 | - | - | 4 | 12.12 | 1 | 4.76 | 6 | 5.88 |
| | **Total** | **38** | **100** | **10** | **100** | **33** | **100** | **21** | **100** | **102** | **100** |
| 3 | If your response is 'No' to item two what is the estimated distance to the nearest primary school in your locality? | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Below 1km | 1 | 3.23 | 1 | 10 | - | - | 1 | 5 | 3 | 3.53 |
| | 1-2 km | 4 | 12.90 | 1 | 10 | 3 | 12.50 | 2 | 10 | 10 | 11.77 |
| | 3-4 km | 11 | 35.48 | 1 | 10 | 7 | 29.17 | 8 | 40 | 27 | 31.76 |
| | 5 Km and above | 15 | 48.39 | 7 | 70 | 14 | 58.33 | 9 | 45 | 45 | 52.94 |
| | **Total** | **31** | **100** | **10** | **100** | **24** | **100** | **20** | **100** | **85** | **100** |

The intention in item one of Table 23 was to identify whether or not girls have equal access of admission to that of boys in the area. Accordingly, the highest proportion, 70 to 100 per cent of teacher and WEOEP respondents in Guji Zone and 82 to 86 per cent of teacher and WEOEP respondents affirmed that the admission to schools is not discriminatory. This may imply that school admission did not work against girls and therefore, it did not appear to be a reason why fewer girls go to schools than boys in the region. In fact, as shown in item two of the above table, 81 or about 79 percent of the sample both teachers and WEDEP said that schools are not located at equal distance to all house holds. But, only about 10 to 20 per cents of the respondents pointed out that the distance between the schools and households is the same. This might be true only in a context of some urban schools rather than schools in rural areas.

According to item three of Table 23 it was only 4 to 12 per cent of the total respondents in two Zones have reported that the distance between the nearest primary school to home is less than two kilometers. In fact the majority 45 (about 53 per cent) of all respondents in two zones responded that the nearest primary school to home is between five kilometers and above. This implies the accessibility of schools is an important constraint. In other words, the majority of rural children particularly girls as well as very young children still lived at least 5 kilometer from the nearest primary school. And that is why distance from school was raised in a number of group discussions made with parents in both zones as an important factor for children, particularly girls, not attending school.

**Table 24 Rank Order of School Related Factors Rank order of School Related factors contributing to Gender Disparity of primary Education as Perceived by Students, Teachers and WEOEP of Guji Zone**

| Factors | Rank | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Students | Teachers | WEOEP | Total | Rank |
| Long distance from home to school | 49(1) | 22(1) | 4(2) | 75(1) | 1 |
| Lack of separate toilet facilities for girls in school | 16(7) | 20(2) | 15(1) | 41(6) | 6 |
| Inadequate clean drinking water in school | 25(4) | 13(5) | 3(2) | 41(6) | 6 |
| Shortage of learning materials such as text books | 27(3) | 11(7) | 4(2) | 42(4) | 4 |
| Differential attention to boys than girls by teachers | 21(6) | 17(3) | 4(2) | 42(4) | 4 |
| Over crowded class-rooms | 24(5) | 17(3) | 4(3) | 45(2) | 2 |
| Shortage of female teachers in school | 28(2) | 12(6) | 3(6) | 43(3) | 3 |

As it can been seen from the above Table 24 of all the school related factors, school distance was stood first in rank. All groups of respondents ranked it first as the dominant reason for the existing gender disparity of primary education. Over-crowded class rooms and shortage of female teachers in school were also

rated as a second and third reason respectively. However, lack of separate toilet facilities for girls in school was rated last

**Table 25 Rank order of School Related Factors contributing to Gender disparity of Primary Education as perceived by Students, Teachers and WEOEP of North Showa Zone**

| Factors | Rank | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Students** | **Teachers** | **WEOEP** | **Total** |
| Long distance from home to school | 33(1) | 16(1) | 6(1) | 55(1) |
| Lack of separate toilet facilities for girls in school | 20(6) | 10(6) | 6(6) | 36(6) |
| Inadequate clean drinking water in school | 24(4) | 9(3) | 7(2) | 40(4) |
| Shortage of learning materials such as text books | 23(5) | 13(5) | 7(5) | 43(3) |
| Differential attention to boys than girls by teachers | 21(2) | 9(6) | 5(1) | 35(7) |
| Over –crowded class-rooms | 26(3) | 10(2) | 4(3) | 50(2) |
| Shortage of female teachers in school | 22(7) | 11(7) | 5(5) | 37(5) |

Table 25 indicates that long distance from home to school and over-crowded class-rooms were ranked as first and second school factors contributing to the gender disparity of primary education in North Showa. Shortage of learning materials and inadequate clean drinking water in school were ranked as third and fourth respectively.

**Table 26 Rank-Order Correlation of the School Related Factors by Zone**

| No | Factors | Guji | | North showa | | D (R1-R2) | $D^2$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | X1 | R1 | X1 | R2 | | |
| 1 | Long distance from home to school | 75 | 1 | 55 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | Lack of separate toilet facilities for girls in school | 45 | 6 | 36 | 6 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 | In adequate clean drinking water in school | 41 | 6 | 40 | 4 | 2 | 4 |
| 4 | Shortage of learning materials such as text books | 42 | 4 | 43 | 3 | 1 | 1 |
| 5 | Differential attention to boys than girls by teachers | 42 | 4 | 35 | 7 | -3 | 9 |
| 6 | Over-crowded class rooms | 45 | 2 | 50 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| 7 | Shortage of female teachers in school. | 43 | 3 | 37 | 5 | -2 | 4 |
| | N=7 | | | | | $\sum D = 0$ | $\sum D = 18$ |

As can be observed from Table 26, out of the seven school related factors, the dominate factors that affected both zones were found to be long distance from home to school and over-crowded class-rooms. On the other hand, lack of separate toilet facilities for girls in school rated as the least in both Guji and North Showa Zones. Furthermore, this has been evident in the over all rank order correlation coefficients which is about 0.6785. I.e the value is nearer to 1, which means there is a positive relationship of the factors affecting the two zones or there is no significant difference between factors affecting Guji and North Showa zones, i.e. similar variables were found to be equally affecting the two zones.

### 4.3. Possible Interventions Measures As Perceived by Respondents

For the purpose of this study, open-ended items were presented to both teachers and WEOEP respondents of the study areas. Accordingly, two items were presented. And the first item was on the efforts being made at primary schools and woreda Education office. The second item was on possible intervention measures to be taken in order to reduce the existing gender disparity of primary education at different levels, i.e. at family, schools and government level.

Thus, a great majority of the respondents enumerated a number of the efforts being made between period of six years both at schools and Woreda education offices to close the gender gap of primary education in the study areas. Some of exemplary efforts were summarized as follows: -

A) At Woreda Education offices level

1) Training and capacity building programs in the form of work shops, seminars, conferencces and panel discussions on gender issue were carried out year after year.
2) To make school closer to girls', schools were built in rural areas.
3) Supply of facilities and educational materials to schools
4) Special attention was given during selection and recruitment of teachers to increase the number of female candidates in the teaching profession etc was cited among the major efforts being made at WEOs.

B) At School Level

5) Special attentions was given during registration to increase enrolment

6) Establishing good relationship with community in order to maintain safety and security of girls.
7) Organizing gender committees or clubs in order to develop gender awareness in boys and girls.
8) Follow up of absentees and drop outs were carried out and counseling support was also practiced. From the above responses, a number of positive efforts have been taken to address the gender gap in the primary education by governments, NGOs and institutions. However, there is still gender gap. And it is wide in some rural areas as compared to urban schools. In line with the above problem, teachers and WEOEPs were asked the major actions to be taken by parents, schools and the government at different levels. These are summarized as follows: -

- Parents should encourage and support their daughters to be successful in their education.
- Parents should not force their daughters for marriage.
- Schools should arrange tutorial classes for females.
- Schools should strengthen the provision of basic facilities for boys and girls.
- Teachers should act as best examples and be parental figures for female students.
- The government should take legal action on those exercising abduction and sexual abuse of female students.
- And the government should mobilize community; construct schools near in the vicinity or provide hostels for rural girls.

## CHAPTER FIVE

## SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents summary of the major findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

### 5.1. Summary

The main purpose of this study was to assess the current practices in the reduction of gender disparity in primary education enrolment in Oromia Regional state. In dealing with the problem, basic questions were raised addressing the areas such as trends observed, current challenges and some possible intervention measures to contribute to the reduction of gender disparity

The study was carried out at 16 primary schools in 8 Woredas of two zones that were selected using the random sampling technique. In so doing, the related literature was reviewed and the necessary data were gathered through questionnaires, both unstructured and structured interviews, focus group discussion from students, teachers, WEOEPs, PTA members and educational officials at zonal and OREB levels.

The data obtained were analyzed using some appropriate statistical tools such as frequency or percentages, and weight mean scores. In addition, t-test and Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient were used to identify whether some factors affecting one zone might have also affected the other zone. Depending on the outputs of the analysis made, the following major findings were obtained: -

**A: Current Status and Trends in Gender Disparity**

1. It was found that gender disparity in enrolment of primary education (1-8) in Oromia at regional level has narrowed down from 31 per cent in 2001/02 to 19.7 in 2006/07. Similarly the gender gap at sample zones, as shown in Table 9 narrowed down from 56 to 16.65 percent in the

year 2001/02 to 44.27 to 8.83 percent in 2006/07 both in Guji and North Showa Zones respectively. This trend has also continued in all sample schools (see Appendix A). However, the finding of this study also shows that as the grade level increases more, the proportion of female students are decreasing than boys (see also Appendix $A_1$). And this remains a big challenge due to the rate at which the disparity was decreasing is too slow year after year.

2. In the past six years, the annual decline rate of gender disparity in enrolment both at regional, sample zones and schools level was found to be better in grades 1-4 than grades 5-8. In this regard, the finding further implies that more new girls are coming to and also stay in primary school in North Showa when compared to new girls in Guji Zone (see Table 8, 10 and Appendix $A_2$).
3. It was found that dropout's rate was 17.7 per cent (boys 17.3 per cent and girls 18.6 percent) in 2001/02 has been reduced 14.5 to per cent (boys 14.5 per cent and girls15.7per cent in 2005/06 (see Table 11). Regarding gender disparity in repetition, the total proportion of female (student repeaters) was normally at decreasing trends in North Showa but not in Guji zone.

**B: Factors contributing to Gender Disparity**

4. Distance to school was found to be one of the most common explanatory factors for the existing gender disparity of primary education in the study areas. This is due to the higher opportunity (time) and direct (transport) costs as well as the potential risks for children especially girls of traveling long distances on their own.
5. The study also showed that the majority of parents (77 per cent of mothers and 61 percent of fathers) both in Guji and North Showa zones were either with very limited educational background or no schooling.
6. It has been found out that the extent of parental demand for child labor in specific house hold activities was high for females than boys as the

weighted mean score was found to be 4.23 and 3.97 for females and males respectively (see Table13). The results of this study confirms with what was documented by Seyoum (1986), Hyde (1993), Befekadu (1998) and Teshome (2002), in which females labor demand was identified as one of the main causes for the existing gender disparity of primary education of the region under investigation. The data also revealed that the extent of parental demand for child labor in specific house hold activities was nearly high for rural than urban children as the weighted mean score was found to be 3.59 and 3.05 respectively (see Table14). Further more, gender disparity of primary education as a function due to parental demand for child labor was more significant in Guji than North Shawo Zone (see Table14.)

7. According to the majority 56 or 45 percent of respondents, the level of demand for primary was found to be high in both Guji and North Showa Zones. For this, over crowded class-rooms which were ranked as one of the major school related factors can assure the extent or the magnitude of the demand for this sub-sector. However, girls continue to face discrimination in access to education compared to boys in both Guji and North Showa Zones as it was reported by 88 of all respondents most parents would prefer to give priority for boys than girls to schooling. In this sense, girl's education is low compared to boy's education in the study areas. This finding seems in line with the findings of King and Hill (1993), in which the level of female education is low subsequently, the gender gap is larger.

8 Although, the NETP have removed school fees essentially up to the level of general education in the country, the majority 95(51 per cent of students 46(49 percent) teachers and 9 (45 per cent) of WEOEP reported that parent and students both in Guji and North Showa zones have to pay some payments for schooling in a year.

9. The study also tried to identify some socio-cultural factors contributing to the existing gender disparity of primary education in the study areas (see Table 21and 22). That is, gender stereotyped role assigned to girls in societies and fears or misconceptions about schooling girls that might alienate from traditions were ranked as dominant factors that have a negative influence on gender and primary education. Hence, this research finding is consistent with the results of some other studies (Assefa, 1991, FAWE, 2001, Tilaye, 1999, Seyoum, 1986, Odaga and Hanevald, 1995).

10. Among the three determinants to gender disparity (socio-economic, socio-cultural and school related factors) the finding of this study was identified that gender stereotypes role assigned to girls in societies (socio-cultural) was more dominant reason for the existing gender disparity in Guji zone. While both economic and socio-cultural factors seemed equally contribute to the gender disparity of primary education in North Showa Zone. On the other hand, school related factors were found to be less significantly contributed to the gender disparity of primary education in both Guji and North Showa Zones

**C: Intervention measures in closing Gender disparity in Primary education**

11. It was found out that a number of possible intervention measures have been undertaken to address the existing gender gap in primary education in both sample zones. Accordingly, offering training on gender awareness, building new schools, organizing gender clubs or committees in schools, providing tutorial supports for girls, arranging incentives for needy girls, follow up of absentees and dropouts, strengthen community relationship, inviting more female candidates towards the teaching profession etc were cited as good practices in the reduction of gender disparities in the study areas.

## 5.2. Conclusions

Based on the analysis of the findings it can be concluded that though there is a significant shift towards gender parity in the study areas, still girls continue to face sharp discrimination in access to primary schooling. According to this study, some of the reasons that discourage girls' education as compared to boys were found to be the prevailing traditional attitudes and practices, gender stereotype role assigned to girls in the societies, parental demand for girls' labor, and distance to school, unexpected and irregular school payments and poor educational background of most parents particularly mothers. To reduce the existing gender gap in primary education enrolment of the two zones, it was identified that both supply and demand side intervention measures were employed. For this, the gender gap in enrolment of primary education (1-8) at regional level as well as in both Guji and North Showa Zones has narrowed down.

## 5.3. Recommendations

On the basis of findings and the conclusion drawn from this study, the following possible solutions are suggested to reduce, if possible eliminate the gender disparities which exist due to primary education enrolment in Oromia Regional State.

1. As it is indicated in the study, socio-cultural factors such as gender stereotype role assigned to females in societies, fear or misconception about educating girls and early marriage were identified to have strong association with the problem of gender disparity in primary education. Thus, to bring changes in attitudes of the community for realizing high success in achieving gender parity;
   a. OREB, WEOs and primary schools have to introduce and celebrate girls' education week.

b. OREB has to use mass media for projecting positive image of girls' education.

c. Both WEOs and schools have to encourage the involvement of parents to support girls' education through parents -teachers associations, villages committees, girls' advisory committees, etc.

2. Proximity or distance from school was cited as a major factor contributing to gender disparity in the study area. Many cases indicate that girls were more affected than boys. It is therefore, suggested that OREB in collaboration with WEO and the community has to construct more low cost schools using locally available materials at the rural area of the region.

3. In all educational institutions visited (i.e. primary schools, WEO, ZEOand OREB) there were fewer number of females educational professionals than their counterparts (males). This has an implication for the existence of high gender disparity in primary education. Thus, to bring successful role models very close to girls in school, Woreda education offices have to employ and give promotion to more female teachers and educational officials to educational leadership position as director, supervisor, etc.

4. The findings of this study showed that many of the root causes of gender disparity in primary education were economic, cultural and other forces or factors in society that reach beyond the boundaries of educational systems, institutions and processes. Therefore, it is recommended that Oromia Regional State Should:

a. Promote parental literacy campaign against early marriage, the low status of women in society particularly for rural mothers to create life long awareness on gender issues, child rearing practices, life skills and family planning etc. These programs should be continued. Closer integration with existing formal education structures and with grass - roots organizations such as agricultural extension, health and capacity building could lower the cost of these programs.

b. make the local governments and authorities, educational institutions, NGOs, religious leaders, elders, and community as a whole support and participate in activities of girls education.

5. Since parental demand for girls' labor in specific household activities was high for rural than urban, therefore, it is recommended that the local government has to:

a. encourage the establishment of free or subsidized community child care and pre school facilities at rural village using Para professional staff under the immediate supervision of kebele education and training board .This enhances rural girls to enable them to have more time for their learning .

b. introduce time -saving amenities such as a convenient water -supply and fuel for house hold in the long term .These innovations help to reduce the time constraints on girls and to free them for education .

6. Finally, the whole history of the problem of gender disparity in primary education is not such an easy one to be adequately studied with this short time. Thus, the student researcher would like to recommend that other professional or organizations better carryout further research by incorporating non-formal basic education.

# REFERENCES

## *A. Books*


Aikman S. **et al** (2005). **Beyond Access**: **Transforming Policy and Practice for Gender Equality in Education**. UK: Oxfam House.

Almaze Eshete. (2003). **Women in Faculties of Teacher Training Institutions in Ethiopia.** Addis Ababa: UNESCO, IICBA, Ethiopia, Africa.

Anderson, Levitt, **et al** (1992**). Inside Classrooms in Guinea**: **Girls Experiences**. Washington D.C: World Bank.

Baum, Warren C. and Stokes M. Tolbert. (1985). **Investing in Development; lessons of World Bank Experience**. Washington D.C Oxford University press.

Bellew, R. **et al** (1991). **Promoting Girls' and Women's Education Lessons from the Past**. Washington Dc: World Bank, Pressing Centers.

Bishop,G.(1989).**Alternatives Strategies for Education** .London: Macmillan Ltd

Brown, L. (1993).**The New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary on Historical Principles** (Vol.2).New York: Oxford University Press.

Chabaud,J.(1970).**The Education and Advancement of Women**. Paris: UNESEO Publications

Cohn, E. (1979). **The Economics of Education.** Washington DC: Cambridge Ballinge Publisher Company.

Coombs, P.H. (1985). **World Education Crisis**: **The view from the Eighties.** New York: Oxford University press.

Good, C.V. (1973). **Dictionary of Education**. New York: Mc Graw-Hill. Inc.

Hyde, K. A. (1989). **Improving Women's Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: A Review of Literature** Washington D.C: The World Bank press.

King, E. (1993). **Women's Education in Developing countries, Barriers, Benefits and Politics.** New York: A World Bank Pressing centers.

Lockheed, M. E. (1991). **Improving Primary Education in Developing countries.** New York: Oxford University press.

Lasonen,J.(2005).**Education and Training in Ethiopia: An Evaluation of Approaching of EFA Goals**. Jyvaskyla: IER University of Jyvasyla.

MOE (1994).**The New Education and Training Policy.** Addis Ababa: Mega Printing Enterprise.

--------- (1996). **Basic Indicators of Education Systems Performance**: **A manual for Statisticians and Planner**. Addis Ababa Printed by EMPDA.

---------- (2002).**Education Sector Development Program II (ESDPII) Action Plan**. Addis Ababa: United printing press.

--------- (2004). **Gender Mainstreaming Guidelines and Checklists for REB, TTI and Schools**. Addis Ababa: Master printing press

---------- (2003/4).**Education Statistics Annual Abstract.** Addis Ababa: EMPDA Printing Press.

-------- (2004/5). **Education Statistics Annual Abstract.** Addis Ababa: EMPDA Printing Press.

Odaga, H. (1995). **Girls and Schools in Sub-Saharan Africa: From Analysis to Action**. Washington DC: World Bank.

OREB (2002). **Education Statistics Annual Abstract**. Addis Ababa: EMPDA Printing Press.

---------- (2005). **Education Sector Development program III (ESDP III).** Addis Ababa: Surfael Printing press.

--------- (2003/4). **Education Statistics Annual Abstract**. Addis Ababa: EMPDA Printing Press.

Parkash, R.(2005**) .Methods of Education Research.** New Delhi: Ajayverma. For common Wealth Publishers.

Stomquist, (1997**).Increasing Girls and Women's Participation in Basic Education**. New York: Agency for International Development.

Tekeste Negash. (1996).**Rethinking Education in Ethiopia**. Nordiska Afrika Institute, Uppsala.

Teshome Nekatibeb.(2003).**GenderDisparity in Ethiopian Primary Eduaction** AddisAbaba:Image Printing Press.

Tietjen, K. (1991). **Educating Girls: Strategies to Increase Access, Persistence, and Achievement**. Washington Dc: USA Agency for International Development.

UNESCO (1985). **Educational planning in the Centers of Current Development problems**. Paris: II EP.

----------(2003). **Gender and Education for All: The Leap to Equality.** The EFA, GMR, Paris: UNESCO publishing.

----------(2003).**Financial Education Investment and Returns: Analysis of the World Education Indicators**. Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

-------- (2005). **Scaling up Good practices in Girls Education.** Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

----------2005).**Primary Education for All Children** .Paris: UNESCO Publishing.

Herz, B. **et al** (2004). **What works in Girls Education: Evidence and Policies from the Developing World**. Washington DC: Council on Foreign Relations, Inc.

UNICEF, (2003). **The State of Worlds children 2004 Girls, Education and Development.** New York: UNICEF press

*ማህተማ ሥሰሴ ወልዳመስቀል፣ (1962) ዘክረ ነገር ፣ አደስ አበባ ፣ በነፃነት ማተሚያ ቤት ታተመ::*

*ት/ሚ/ር ፣ (1994 E.C) ፣ የትምህርትና ሥልጠና ፓሊሲና አተገባበሩ ፣ ሚጋ ማተሚያ ሲንተርኘራዝ ታተመ::*

### *B. Journals and proceeding*

Ayalew Shibeshi. (1989) "Some Trends of Regional Disparity in Participation of Primary Schooling," **The Ethiopian Journal of Education**. Vol. XI, No.1.

Firdissa Jabessa. (2001). "Causes of Educational in Equality in Oromia Region focus on primary level". **In proceedings of the National Conferences on the Quality of Primary Education in Ethiopia.** Nazareth 9-11 Nov., 2001.

Genet Zewudie. (1998)."Women in Education: A Study of the Academic Performance and participation of Female Students in the High School of Addis Ababa". **The Ethiopian Journal of Education**. Vol. XI, No.1.

Habtamu Wondimu. (2002)."Progress, problems and Perplexity of Regional In equity in Access to Primary Education in Ethiopia with a Focus on the south". **The Ethiopian Journal of Educational Researchers Association.** Vol.I No.1.

Katunzi,(2003). "Comlementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET). Reaching children out of school, **A paper in the Tanzania Education Journal** No.21Jan-June 2003.

MOE (1999). **Improving Retention with a Special Focus on Girls.** Addis Ababa: Alpha Press, Ethiopia.

Pauline, **et al** (1997). **Gender and Primary Schooling in Ethiopia** Research Report IDS. Brighton, Sussex. England.

Samuel Kalu (2002)."Gender, Education and Economic Development in Africa". **The Ethiopian Journal of Education**. Vol. XVI, No.1.

Seyoum Teferra (1986). "The Education of Women in Ethiopia: A Missing Piece in the Development Puzzle," **The Ethiopian Journal of Education.** Vol. XVI, No.1

Seyoum Teferra (1996). "Attempts at Educational Reform in Ethiopia: A Top-down or a Bottom-up Reform," **The Ethiopian Journal of Education**". Vol. XVI, No1.

Yelfign Worku. (2001). "Development of Women and Girls Education in Ethiopia": **In proceeding on Quality of primary Education in Ethiopia in the 21st century**. AAU, IER.

### C. Unpublished Materials

Alematsehay Taddesse.(1985)."A Critical Analysis of the Problem of Women's Education in Ethiopia". IDR, AAU.

Almaz Eshete,(1991). "Women in Ethiopia: Problems and Prospects": A paper presented at the Seminar on Gender Issues in Ethiopia. Addis Ababa, IDR, MOE.

Anbesu Biazen andJunge,B.(1988)."Problems in Primary School Participation in and performance in Bahir Dar Awraja". Addis Ababa, ICDR MOE.

Asefa Beyene. (1991). "Female participation and performances in rural primary Schools in Ethiopia: Executive Summary Report." Addis Ababa, ICDR, MOE.

Befekedu Zeleke.(1998)."Promoting Primary Basic Education of Girls in Oromia Regional State." AAU, MA Thesis.

Degarge Menale(1998)."Regional Disparity in Ethiopia: Implication for Planning and Policy Makers."AAU,MA.Thesis.

DFIDS (2006)."Girls Education Strategy, Girls' Education towards a better Future for All." first progress report.

Dirrisa Birbrso. (1993)."Female Participation in Primary and Secondary Education Post -1974 of Ethiopia. "AAU, MA Thesis.

Effa Gurmu.(2006)."Factors Hindering Enrolment of Females students in Second Cycle of Primary school of Dodota Sire in Arsi Zone. "AAU, MA Thesis.

FAWE (2001)."Girls Education and Poverty Eradication"FAWE, Burssels, Belgium.

Fehr, H. (2003). Report From Virtual Discussion: Gender Disparities in Education Common Wealth of Learning.

Hyde,K.(1993)."Forum for Africa Women Educationalists: A Paper Presented at FAWE Executives Committee Meeting".Harare, Zimbabwe.

Karin, et al (2005). Taking Stock of Girls' Education in Ethiopia Preparing for ESDP III .Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

KUAWAB, Business consultants, (1999). "Oromia Comprehensive Education Study". Addis Ababa,Ethiopia.

Lioyd, C.B. and Hewett, P.C (2003). "Primary Schooling in Sub-Saharan Africa: Recent Trends and Current Challenges policy." Research Division working paper, population council, (unpublished materials). Available

online at http://WWW. Popcouncil. Org/publications/WP/prd/rdwplist. Htm

Mbilinyi, D. A.S. (2003)." Equity in Learning: The Gender Dimension." Pairs: IIRP

Merga Fayisa,(1999)."Factors Contributing to Girls grade Repetition of Secondary School in Jimma Zone." AAU, MA Thesis.

MOE (1972).Education: A Challenge to the Nation, A Report of the Education Sector Review.

--------(2004)."Situation of girls Education in Ethiopia". Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

OREB (2005). "Strategic Planning Girls Education in Oromia (2005/06 to 2009/10.)" Afan Oromo version.

---------- (2004/5)."Education Performance Indicator of 1997E.C". Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Oxfam, GB.(2005). "Developing Capacity to Achieve Gender Equality in Education" Oxford: WWW. Oxfam.org.UK, Oxfam House.

Prasad,P.A.(2006).Gender Disparities in Education needs Community Participation .A paper Presented by Department Economics, Barras Hindu University, Varanasi. Available Online at http://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de(622).

Rose, P(2003). "Can gender Equality in Education be attained"? Evidence from Ethiopia Background paper for 2003, UNESCO Global Monitoring Report UK. University of Sussex.

Save The Children,(2005). "Policy Briefing: Achieving the Gender Parity Millennium Development Goals." London, UK.

Teshome, Nekatibebe (2002). "Low participation of Female Students in primary Education: A case Study of Dropouts from the Amhara and Oromia Regions in Ethiopia." Addis Ababa: UNESCO, IICBA.

Tilaye Kassahun (1997)."Gender Specific Investigation in to the Problem of High School Dropouts in the Amhara Region". AAU, MA Thesis.

Tsion Dessie and Wanna Leka (1994). "Educational Wastage: The Case of Female Students in Selected Primary and Secondary School of Ethiopia".

UNESCO (2000)."Gender Equality and Equity: A Summary of Review of UNESCO's Accomplishment since Beijing 1995".

------ The United Nation Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) Message for EFA week 24-30 April, 2006. Available. http:///www. media Unesco.org:81/education page1

----------(2006)."Education for All Global Monitoring report of 2006".UNESCO press.

World Bank (2002 b); "Strategies for Girls" Education in Sub-Saharan Africa: what do we really know?

WEAD, OEB (2003)."A Study on Factors that Affect Females Participation in primary school of Oromia "

WEF (2000)."Education For All: Meeting Our Collective Commitments". Text Adopted by the WEF, Dakar, Senegal, 26-28April 2000.

Yelfign Worku (2000)."Women and Girls Education in Ethiopia". Addis Ababa, MOE.

Table 27 Some Trends in Enrolment of Primary Schooling by the Grade level in Oromia (between 2001/02 and 2005/06.

| Year | Grade 1% | | Grade 2% | | Grade 3% | | Grade 4% | | Grade 5% | | Grade 6% | | Grade 7% | | Grade 8% | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| 2001/02 | 58.51 | 41.49 | 60.24 | 39.76 | 62.56 | 37.44 | 64.20 | 35.80 | 68.36 | 31.64 | 70.90 | 29.10 | 70.01 | 29.99 | 67.86 | 32.14 |
| 2005/06 | 52.48 | 47.52 | 53.28 | 46.72 | 55.37 | 44.63 | 57.25 | 42.75 | 59.79 | 40.21 | 61.55 | 38.45 | 63.40 | 36.60 | 66.61 | 33.39 |

Source: (OREB, Education Statistics Annual Abstract 2001/02: 66 and OREB, (2005/6) Unpublished Report).

Table 28 Some Trends of Gender Disparities at Sample Primary Schools from 2001/02 –2005/06

| Zone | Woreda | Sample Schools | Proportion of girls in percentage | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | Enrolment | | Repetition rate | | Drop out rate | |
| | | | 2001/02 | 2005/06 | 2001/02 | 2005/06 | 2001/02 | 2005/06 |
| Guji | Adola | Biluu | 38.1 | 45.5 | 9.2 | 9.5 | 7.2 | 6.6 |
| | | Kucho | 43.5 | 49.6 | 21.2 | 10.6 | 5.9 | 5.9 |
| | Bore | Bore | 25.7 | 42.8 | 8.6 | 6.3 | 8.4 | 7.8 |
| | | Yirba | 31.2 | 39.3 | 28.6 | 10.5 | 7.9 | 9.0 |
| | Negele Town | Negele | 29.9 | 43.3 | 6.4 | 6.0 | 2.9 | 3.2 |
| | | Makanayyas | 43.0 | 43.8 | 16.4 | 14.2 | 6.5 | 6.5 |
| | Odo Shakisso | Odo-shakisso | 45.0 | 49.6 | 9.3 | 10 | 4.1 | 7.0 |
| | | Taro | 18.5 | 34.5 | 1.8 | 2.0 | 6.7 | 8.0 |
| North Showa | Barrak | Jima Sanbate | 46.6 | 49.8 | 7.4 | 7.4 | 2.7 | 2.7 |
| | | Lega Tafo | 42.24 | 46.1 | 1.6 | 2.5 | 4.5 | 4.0 |
| | Girar Jarso | Abdisa Aga | 48.9 | 50.0 | 0.8 | 1.0 | 0.5 | 1.8 |
| | | Chagel | 40.7 | 43.8 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 3.6 | 3.1 |
| | Sululta | wasarbi | 40.1 | 46.0 | 0.4 | 2.3 | 1.9 | 3.0 |
| | | Sululta | 41.0 | 47.0 | 4.9 | 5.0 | 3.0 | 3.2 |
| | Yayya-gulale | Fittal | 50.0 | 48.7 | 7.8 | 8.1 | 9.4 | 9.2 |
| | | Sadini Biyyo | 43.7 | 43.0 | 1.2 | 2.2 | 6.0 | 6.2 |

Sources: School census Document between 2001/02 and 2005/06

**Appendix – $A_2$**

**Table 29 Some Trends in Enrolment of Primary schooling in Oromia region by Cycle (between 2001/02 and 2006/07).**

| Year | Enrolment in Percentage (GER in %) | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1st Cycle (Grade 1-4) | | | 2nd Cycle (Grade 5-8) | | | Both (Grade 1-8) | | |
| | M | F | T | M | F | T | M | F | T |
| 2001/02 | 104.7 | 68.3 | 86.6 | 47.3 | 21.4 | 34.5 | 73.3 | 46.0 | 61.8 |
| 2006/07 | 115 | 101 | 108 | 71 | 47.6 | 59.6 | 89.9 | 79.2 | 89.09 |

**Source: OREB, Education Statistics Annual Abstract2001/02:38-39 and OREB,(2006/07) Yearly report.**

# Appendix B

**Addis Ababa University**

**School of Graduate Studies**

**Department of Educational Planning and Management**

**Questionnaire**: - (To be completed by Teachers Primary School and woreda educational personnel)

This is questionnaire is set to obtain data for the study on the current practices in the reduction of gender disparity of primary education in oromia regional state. The success of this study largely depends on your earnest and sincere response to the questions- You are there fore, kindly requested to complete the questionnaire carefully. The data will be used solely for research purpose.

**Thank you!**

**INSTRUCTION**: - Fill in the space provided or Mark an "X" in the box which you prefer to select from the given alternatives.

**Part I. Background Information**

1. Name of your woreda Education office/school you are currently teaching
2. Grade level you are currently teaching

   A) Grade 1-4 ☐ B) Grade 5-8 ☐

3. Sex ☐ A) Male ☐ B) Female ☐
4. Age A. Below 25 years ☐ B. 25-34 Years ☐

   C) 35-44 Years ☐ D) 45-54 Years ☐

   E) 55 and above ☐
5. Educational; status

   A) TTI Certified ☐ B) Diploma ☐ C) Other (if any) ☐
6. Years of service

   A) 0-5 Years ☐ C) 11-15 Years ☐

   B) 6-10 Years ☐ D) 16-20 years ☐

   E) 21 and above ☐
7. Position

   1.1. For Woreda Educational office personnel

   A) Office Head ☐ B) Division Head ☐

   C) School supervisor ☐ D) Expert ☐

   E) Other (if any) ☐

   1.2. For School Academic staff

   A) Principal ☐ B) Vice principal ☐

   C) Unit leader ☐ D) Gender focal E) Teacher ☐

**Part II. Factors contributing to Gender disparities of primary education in the study area.**

8. How do you rate the demand for primary education in your area?

   A) Very High ☐ B) High ☐ C) Average ☐

   D) Low ☐ E) very low ☐

9. Your response to question number "8" is either 'A' or 'B' let say, between the choices of sending either of the sexes, for whom do you think that priority be given?

   A) For boys ☐ B) For girls ☐ C) Do not know ☐

10. If your response to question number 10 is 'A' what do you think is the dominant reason for this preference?

   A) More of economic factors due to high prevalence of the need for girls labor at home than boys

   B) Parents attach less importance to girls education

   C) Fear of forced marriage or abduction.

   D) Traditionally females have to work only at home

   E) Low employment prospect of girls

11. Do parents pay some form of fees in a year for primary schooling?

   A) Yes ☐ B) No ☐

12. If your response is to question number "11" is A the estimated amount is

   A) Less than 20 birr ☐ B) Between 20-50 ☐

   C) Between 51-80 birr ☐ D) Between 81-110 birr ☐

   E) 110 birr and above ☐

13. In your opinion, do you think that school cost affect parents' willingness to educate their children in your area?

   A) Yes ☐ B) No ☐ C) Do not know ☐

14. Do all children (boys and girls) have equal access to primary schooling in your locality?

   A) ☐ Yes B) No ☐ C) Do not know ☐

15. If your response to question number "14" is A, are schools available at the nearest distance for all children?

A) Yes ☐ B) No ☐ C) do not know ☐

16. If your response to question 15 is "B", how far is the distance to the nearest primary school to travel?

A) Less than 1 km ☐ B) 1-2 km ☐ C) 3-4 km ☐

D) 5 km and above ☐

17. From your experiences, do parents allow their daughters to go to school far away from their villages?

A) Yes ☐ B) No ☐ C) Do not know ☐

18. The following are possible socio-cultural reasons so, indicate the extent to which these reasons contribute to the existing gender disparity in primary education

| NO | Item (s) | Rank | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Very high | High | Average | Law | Very Low |
| 18.1 | Fear of forced marriage or abduction | | | | | |
| 18.2 | Gender stereotyped role assigned to girls in society e.g. Women's place is only at home | | | | | |
| 18.3 | Parents consider early marriage of their daughters as sources of income | | | | | |
| 18.4 | Fear or misconceptions that schooling might alienate girls from tradition | | | | | |
| 18.5 | Early marriage | | | | | |
| 18.6 | Other (if any) | | | | | |

19. Do most parents in your area encourage their daughters schooling as equally as boys?

A) Yes ☐ B) No ☐ C) do not know ☐

20. If you response to question number 19 is 'B' for whom do you think Most parents give more encouragement for schooling? A) Boys B) Girls

21. The following are possible school-related reasons for Gender disparity. Indicate the most serious first and the least one last. And you may also add your own item if necessary)

| NO | Possible reason(s) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 21.1 | Long distance from home to school | | | | | | | |
| 21.2 | Lack of separate toilet facilities for girls in school | | | | | | | |
| 21.3 | Inadequate clean drinking water in school | | | | | | | |
| 21.4 | Shortage of learning materials such as text-books. | | | | | | | |
| 21.5 | Differential attention to boys and girls by teachers | | | | | | | |
| 21.6 | Over-crowded class-rooms | | | | | | | |
| 21.7 | Shortage of female teachers in school | | | | | | | |
| 21.8 | Other(if any) | | | | | | | |

22. List some exemplary efforts made by your office or school(s) to reduce the existing gender disparities with in the past five years( 1994 E.c to 1998 E.C)

I. At primary school-level (1-8)

A. _____

B. _____

C. _____

II. woreda education office level

A._____

B. _____

C. _____

23. What intervention mechanisms would you suggest to be taken by parents, schools and government to reduce the existing gender disparity in primary education in your area?

I. By parents

A._____

_____

B. _____

_____

C. _____

_____

II. By schools

A. _____

_____

B. _____

_____

C. _____

_____

III. By government_____

A. _____

_____

B._____

_____

C._____

_____

***Thank You***

## Appendix -C

# Addis Ababa University
# School of Graduate Studies
# Department of Educational Planning and Management

Structured Interview: - To be completed by students (boys and girls)
This structured interview is designed to obtain data for the study on the current practices in the reduction of gender disparities of primary education in oromia regional state. The success of the study largely depends on your earnest and sincere response to the questions. You are there fore, kindly requested to give your response honestly as possible. The data will be used solely for research purpose

**Thank you in advance!**
**Part. I . Background Information**

1. Name of your school _____
2. Woreda _____ Zone _____
3. sex A/Male ☐ B/ Female ☐
4. Age A/ Below 10 years ☐ C/ 15-19 years ☐
   B/ 10- 14 years ☐ D/ 20 and above ☐
5. Grad level _____
6. Residence A/ urban ☐ B/ Rural ☐
7. With whom do you live?
   A/ father and mother ☐ D/ Relatives ☐
   B/ Mother only ☐ E/ Other (if any) _____
   C/ father only ☐

**Part II. Factors contributing to Gender disparities primary education**

8. Do your parents put pressure on you to get married instead of pursuing your education?
   A/ Yes ☐ B/ No ☐ C/ I am not certain
9. What is the educational status of you mother? ( if alive )
   A/ Illiterate ☐ D/ Secondary education (9-12) ☐
   B/ Literate ☐ E/ above secondary education ☐
   C/ Primary education / 1-8)
10. What is the educational status of your father ( if a live )
    A/ Illiterate ☐ D/ Secondary education (9-12) ☐
    B/ Literacy ☐ E/ above secondary education ☐
    C/ Primary education
11. Does your family pay some form of fees in a year for schooling?
    A/ Yes ☐ B/ No ☐ C/ Do not Know ☐
12. If your response to question number "13" is A, the estimated amount is _____
    A/ Less than 20 Birr ☐ D/ Between 81 to 110 Birr ☐
    B/ Between 20 to 50 Birr ☐ E 110 and above
    C/ Between 51 to 80 Birr ☐
13. Does your family need your labor contribution (work) at home during out of schooling days or even before and after school hours?
    A/ Yes ☐ B/ No ☐
14. If your response to question number 13 A, to what extent do you think that the following household activities affect your schooling ?

| No | Activities | Degree | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Very High | High | Average | Low | Very low |
| 14.1 | Cook meals | | | | | |
| 14.2 | Fetch water | | | | | |
| 14.3 | Look for siblings | | | | | |
| 14.4 | Fetch fire wood | | | | | |
| 14.5 | Clean the house | | | | | |
| 14.6 | Wash clothes or utensils, | | | | | |
| 14.7 | Farming | | | | | |
| 14.8 | Marketing | | | | | |
| 14.9 | Feed cattle | | | | | |
| 14.10 | Nurse sick relatives | | | | | |

15. From your own experiences, do most parents allow their daughters to go the school far away from their villages?
    A/Yes ☐ B/ No ☐ C/ Do not know ☐
16. If your response to question number 21 is B, why? ( Below is a list of possible social- cultural reasons are given . so, indicate the extent to which these contribute to the problem )

| No | Possible reason (s) | Degree | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | V/ High | High | Average | Low | Very low |
| 16.1 | Fear of forced marriage or abduction | | | | | |
| 16.2 | Gender stereo typed role assigned to girls in society | | | | | |
| 16.3 | Parents consider early marriage of their daughters as sources of in come or social prestige | | | | | |
| 16.4 | Fear or misconceptions that schooling might alienate girls from tradition | | | | | |
| 16.5 | Early marriage | | | | | |
| 16.6 | Other ( if any) | | | | | |

17. What the general attitudes of your parents is to wards your being a student?
    A/ support it ☐ B/ Not support it ☐ C/ In different ☐
18. The following are possible school – related factors for gender disparity. So, based on your own experiences and observations rank the items according to their contribution. Indicate the most serious first and the least one last .And you may also add your own item if necessary

| No | Possible Reason/s/ | Rank | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18.1 | Long distance from home to school | | | | | | | |
| 18.2 | Lack of separate toilet facilities for girls in school | | | | | | | |
| 18.3 | Inadequate clean drinking water in school | | | | | | | |
| 24.4 | Shortage of learning materials such as text books | | | | | | | |
| 18.5 | Differential attention to boys than girls by teachers | | | | | | | |
| 24.6 | Over- crowded class-rooms | | | | | | | |
| 24.7 | Shortage of female teachers in school_____ | | | | | | | |

**Appendix-D**

# Addis Ababa University
# School of Graduate studies
# Department of Educational planning and Management

Focused group discussion Guide lines for Parents

1. Name of your

   Kebele_____ woreda_____ Zone_____

2. Sex A/ Male ☐ B/ Female ☐

3. Age _____

4. Religion A/ Orthodox Christian ☐ B/ Islam ☐ C/ Other (if any)

5. Educational Level A/ Illiterate ☐ D/ Secondary education ☐
   B/ Literacy ☐ E/ Other (if any) ☐
   C/ Primary education ☐

6. Marital status A/ Married ☐ C/ Divorced
   B/ Unmarried ☐ D/ Widowed ☐

7. Number of off-springs A/ boy (s) _____
   B/ Daughter (s) _____
   C/ Other (if any)_____

8. Do all (or some) of your children attend School?
   A/ Yes ☐ B/ No ☐

9. If your response to question number 8 is A, what is their sex?
   A/ Number of sons who attend school_____
   B/ Number of daughters who attend school_____

10. How do you rate the demand for primary education in your locality?
    A/ very High ☐ C/ Average ☐ E/ very low ☐
    B/ High ☐ D/ Low ☐

11. If your response to question number 10 is either A or B, let say, between the choices of sending either of the two sexes, for whom do you think that Priority is given?
    A/ for boys ☐ B/ for girls ☐ C/ I am not certain ☐

12. If your response to question number 11 is A, what do you think is the most dominant reason for the existing gender differences in the area?

a) _____
_____
b) _____
_____
c) _____
_____
d) _____
_____

13. What interventions mechanism would you suggest to be taken by parents, Schools and government to reduce the existing gender disparity of Primary education in your area?

i) By parents

a) _____
_____
b) _____
_____
c) _____
_____

ii) By school.

a) _____
b) _____
c) _____

iii) By Government

a) _____
_____
b) _____
_____
c) _____

Appendix - E

# Addis Ababa University
## School of Graduate Studies
## Department of Educational Planning and Management

### Interview for Educational Personnel Working at OREB and Zone Education Offices

1) Why do girls in the region have less access to primary schooling than boys? Why is their performance so poor in the study area?

A. _____

_____

B. _____

_____

C. _____

_____

D. _____

_____

2) List some exemplary efforts made by your office or department to reduce the existing gender-gap in the past five years (1994 E.C to 1998 E.C).

I. At Oromia Region Education Bureau

A. _____

_____

B _____

_____

C. _____

II. At Zonal Education Office.

A. _____

B. _____

C. _____

III. At wereda Education office

A. _____

B. _____

C. _____

IV. At primary School-Level

A. _____

B. _____

C. _____

3) What intervention mechanisms would you suggest to be taken by parents; schools and government to reduce the existing gender disparity of primary education in your area?

I. By parents

A. _____

B. _____

C. _____

II. By Schools

A. _____

B. _____

C. _____

III. By Government

A. _____

B. _____

C. _____

## DECLARATION

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

Name: Getachew Korssa

Signature----------

Date----20/07/2007----

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

Seyoum Teferra, (Professor)

Signature----------

Date----July 20, 2007----

Addis Ababa University