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ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

**PROMOTING GIRLS' BASIC EDUCATION
IN THE RURAL AREAS OF
OROMIA**

**BY
BEFEKADU ZELEKE**

**JUNE, 1998
ADDIS ABABA**

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IN THE RURAL AREAS OF
OROMIA**

**A Thesis Presented to
The School of Graduate Studies
Addis Ababa University**

**In Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts
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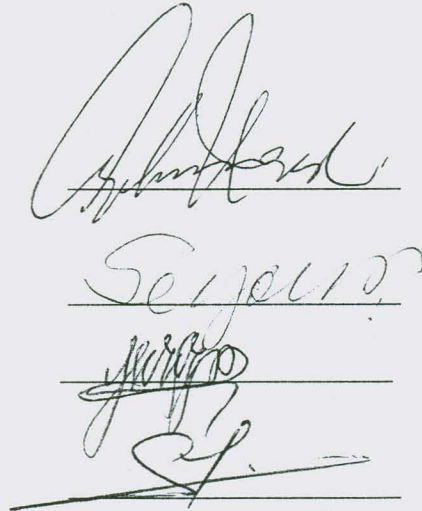
Approved by the Examining Board

Ayalew Shibeshi (Asso. Prof.)
Chairman, Department Graduate
Committee

Seyoum Teferra (Ph.D.)
Advisor

Tafesse Asfaw (Asst. Prof)
External Examiner

Yalew Ingidayehu (Ph.D)
Internal Examiner



The image shows four handwritten signatures, each written over a horizontal line. The signatures are in cursive and appear to be: 1. A large, stylized signature at the top. 2. A signature that looks like 'Seyoum'. 3. A signature that looks like 'Tafesse'. 4. A signature that looks like 'Yalew'.

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of this study was to examine the current status of girls' participation in basic education in the rural areas of Oromia, identify the major barriers i.e., in-school, and out-of-school factors (socio-economic, socio-cultural and political) and indicate the major areas of intervention to the regional policy makers and educational planners. A descriptive survey method was employed to achieve this objective. Data from documents were obtained from the annual statistical abstracts of the MOE, Oromia Education Bureau, and the 1994 Housing and Population Census. Furthermore, questionnaires and structured interviews were administered to 42 teachers, 70 female students, 48 parents, and 50 out-of-school girls in the rural areas. Gross Enrollment Ratios, annual rate of growth, and percentages were calculated to examine the participation of girls in rural primary schools when compared with girls in urban areas and rural male students for the academic years 1994/95 to 1997/98. In addition, percentages, Chi-square, one way ANOVA and Tukey- HSD tests were used to analyse the data obtained from questionnaires and interviews. The results indicated that, in-school factors such as school schedule was identified as a common problem for both study areas. Moreover, absence of separate toilet for girls, and weak school-community relationships were found to be the major obstacles in Muslim areas. Furthermore, distance from home to school was identified as a problem in Christian areas, while the majority of in-school factors were not considered as major barriers in both study areas. On the other hand, all socio-economic factors were identified as major impediments in all areas. Most of the socio-cultural factors, on the other hand, were indicated as major obstacles in Muslim areas rather than in Christian areas except lack of interest in education, and low status of women in development activities which were identified as common problems. On top of this, political factors such as perception of limited range of paid occupations open to women, lack of upper primary and secondary schools, and low participation of local administrators to encourage girls' education were identified as common problems in both areas. Hence, it is concluded that in most cases, the participation of girls in formal basic education in the rural areas of Oromia is a function of out-of-school factors. Therefore, it is recommended that the regional policy makers and educational planners should pay more attention to increase the demand for education so as to increase the participation of girls in rural primary schools of the region.

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ACRONYMS

The following abbreviations are used as meant in the study.

AAU	Addis Ababa University
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CSA	Central Statistical Authority
CRDA	Christian Relief and Development Association
DF	Degree of Freedom
EMPDA	Educational Materials Production and Distribution Agency
ERCS	Ethiopian Red Cross Society
FAWE	Forum For African Women Educationalists
GER	Gross Enrollment Ratio
GNP	Gross National Product
HSD	Honestly Significant Difference
IDS	Institute of Development Studies
ILO	International Labour Organization
MOE	Ministry of Education
OAU	Organization of African Unity
OEB	Oromia Education Bureau
OPHCC	Office for Population and Housing Census Commission
TGE	Transitional Government of Ethiopia
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa.
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund

CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS APPROACH

This chapter deals with the background, statement of the problem, importance, scope, limitations, definition of key terms, and organization of the study.

1.1. Background of the Study

Education, which is one of the major human activities, plays a vital role to promote national development and thus bring about positive changes in the lives of the people. Yet, development is brought about not only by educating men only, but also women. As Chabaud (1970:75) says” ...the emancipation of women is inseparable from economic, political and social change and the status of women is a reflection of the level of civilization reached by the society in which they live.”

Thus, education is a prerequisite for an equal and efficient contribution of women to development since it determines the quality of the female labor force and the suitability of its skills to the labor market.

Different authorities like Philips (1975), Muller (1981), Hawes in Bishop (1986), Dellors (1996), and others provide different interpretations to the concept of basic education. However, they all commonly agree that it is a foundation of education. According to these writers, basic education is a cornerstone for life long learning and development of human resources. As Delors (1996) puts it, basic education is an important tool to transfer the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes required to improve living conditions. This writer further notes that attitudes towards learning that will continue in the future are broadly formed at this stage of education.

The majority of governments now agree that girls' education plays an important role to both personal and societal development. Particularly, the 1990 World Conference on Education for All recommended the importance of girls' education as one of any country's

targets to achieve universal access to and completion of primary education by the year 2000 to reduce adult literacy rate, with particular emphasis on female basic education to reduce the current disparity between male and female education. (Inter Agency Commission, 1990)

Furthermore, evidences from different studies carried out by King (1990), Benavot (1989), Lockheed, Jamison and Lau (1980), and Safillios-Rothchild (1982) indicated that girls' basic education has direct relationships with personal, social and economic developments. Despite these benefits, however, governmental and non-governmental organizations have not yet reached the stage where basic education can be made accessible to rural girls.

As it is indicated by Seyoum (1986), the traditional education which has a long history in Ethiopian education, was characterized by strengthening the traditional view of the society in widening the gender gap between men and women.

The coming of Western Missionaries to the country in the 16th century, however, paved the way to the beginning of modern education in some parts of the country. Yet, the number of girls' schools and the participation of female students in education was negligible.

The beginning of modern education in this country was started in 1908 when Menelik II opened the first modern school in Addis Ababa. The provision of modern education for girls was, however, neglected until the opening of the first girls' school in Addis Ababa in 1931 by Empress Menen. During this period, too, the participation of girls in education was said to be limited to a few well to do families in the capital.

The expansion of modern education that was continued by Emperor Haileselassie was able to open different schools in provinces. Evidences from different documents further indicate that the number of girls in these schools was very few compared to boys.

The socialist education system that was followed by the Derg regime after the 1974 Ethiopian Revolution was not able to make girls to participate equally in education with their counterparts, either. Even today, besides the different efforts being made by central and regional governments to make education accessible to the rural areas, the participation of girls lags behind in both urban and rural areas and more so in the rural areas of the country.

Although the low participation of girls in Ethiopian education is well documented, the efforts being made to identify the major barriers are very limited. Most of the researches have focused their attention on factors affecting girls' academic performances mostly in schools found in the urban areas, while ignoring those found in the rural areas and girls who are out of school. As a result, the problems of girls found in the countryside who are trapped in the culture of under-development should be the focus of research attention. Thus, this study tries to fill this gap.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The fact that females are under privileged and underrepresented in development raises the issue that the role of education and girls' participation should be analysed and studied in relation to their low level status in the society. The majority of scholars who have studied girls' education agree that ideological and cultural factors are major focuses in restricting girls' participation in the education system.

Increasing girls' participation in basic education particularly in the rural areas has been identified as one of the most significant development challenge facing the least developing countries like ours. As it is stated in the Education and Training Policy, basic education that will focus on literacy, numeracy, environment, agriculture, crafts, home science, health services and civics will be provided (TGE, 1994:16). The policy further indicates that the low student participation rate is particularly worse in the rural areas and amongst girls in Ethiopia (TGE, 1994:11).

The general objective of this study is, therefore, to identify the major impediments to promote girls' basic education and come up with the strategies that should be implemented to alleviate these problems in the rural areas of Oromia Regional State. Moreover, the study tries to answer the following basic questions:

- 1) What is the status of girls' basic education in the rural areas of Oromia?
- 2) What are the major school-related factors affecting girls' participation in basic education?
- 3) What are the significant out-of-school factors hindering the participation of girls in basic education?
 - 3.1. socio-economic
 - 3.2. socio-cultural, and
 - 3.3. political
- 4) Is there any significant difference between the two study areas with respect to these factors?

1.3. Importance of the Study

This study is expected to be significant for the following reasons:

- 1) since the study on the problem was not given due attention in our education system, this study will help in the collection and compilation of information on the nature of these obstacles in rural areas.
- 2) The study may provide the regional educational planners and authorities with some ideas regarding the major obstacles to promote girls participation in primary schools that will help them to design objective plans to increase the number of girls in the schools found in the rural areas.
- 3) The results of this study may contribute additional information and serve as a data base of the existing materials and research findings in the field.

1.4. Scope of the Study

The study is delimited to Oromia Regional State. This is because according to the 1997 Annual Statistics of the MOE, the average national rate of primary school participation was 34.6 per cent. However, Oromia was one of the four regions with the participation rate below the national average. The participation rate of the region was only 30 per cent at the primary level. Furthermore, in terms of the participation of girls in primary education, the region stood first from the bottom compared to other regions in the country (MOE, 1997).

From the twelve zones found in the region, two zones are included in this study based on their low participation of girls, geographical and socio-cultural differences. These zones are Illubabor from the western and Western Hararghe from the eastern parts of the region. In the case of Illubabor, the majority (61.55%) of the rural population are Christians, (Orthodox, Protestant and Catholic) and the main cash-crop of the zone is coffee; while in western Hararghe the majority (85.76%) of the rural dwellers are Muslims, and the main cash-crop is "Chat." Delimitation has been made because the research would not be manageable if other zones from the Northern and Southern parts were included in the study.

Since there is no significant difference in socio-cultural, socio-economic and political backgrounds (which are assumed to affect girls' participation in basic education) between the woredas in the two zones selected, one woreda is randomly selected from each zone. Thus, Metu woreda from Illubabor and Chiro woreda from Western Hararghe are randomly selected for the purpose of this study. Furthermore, out of 69 primary schools found in the rural areas four from each woreda are randomly selected to get the necessary information. Thus, the total number of primary schools included in this study are eight (12% of the total schools). Hence, the schools considered in the study are:

1. Anger and Dukur Primary School - Illubabor
2. Tulube Primary School - "
3. Sardo Primary school - "
4. Kolode Primary School - "
5. Arbarakate Elementary School - W/Hararghe

- | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|---|
| 6. Fugnan Dimo Elementary School | - | “ |
| 7. Kuni Elementary School | - | ” |
| 8. Welergi Elementary School | - | ” |

1.5. Limitations of the Study

The long process taken by the graduate school of AAU to give the final decision on the proposal and untimely release of the fund allowed for the study have created time pressure to gather the necessary information and organize the study as it was planned. Had it not been for these problems, more zones and schools would have been included in the study.

1.6. Definition of Key Terms

The meanings of some of the key terms are presented hereunder as will be meant in the study.

Basic Education:- refers to skills acquired in primary school, basic literacy and numeracy inclusive of grades 1 through 4.

Family Size:- refers to the total number of family members living together, and family size with less than five members was considered as small family while those with more than five members were considered as large families.

Gender:- refers to the socially and culturally determined differences between males and females (IDS, 1996:3)

Girl:- is young unmarried female who has not yet assumed adult roles in society (Teitjen, 1991:4).

Income:- refers to the local classifications given to farmers depending on the size of land cultivated, number of cattle owned, quality of the house lived in, and the relative living conditions of each household when compared with others in the rural areas.

Parents' Education:- in this study refers to the level of education attained by parents (fathers and mothers), and compared as illiterate, who can read and write with simple numeracy, and those with primary education and above.

Rural Area:- refers to all localities that are inhabited by less than 2000 people and are not accorded an urban status by the Ministry of Urban Development and Housing (CSA, 1988:16).

1.7. Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five major chapters. Chapter one deals with the problem and its approach. Chapter two treats review of related literature. Chapter three and four deal with the methodology, presentation and analysis of data respectively. The final chapter discusses the summary, conclusion, and recommendations of the study. In order to have a brief background on the concept of basic education, importance and major obstacles to promote girls' basic education in the rural areas, the following chapter will provide the major works done by different authorities in the areas of the problem under study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. The Concept of Basic Education

The term basic education lacks a commonly accepted definition and it is country-specific depending on how the term is conceptualized by policy makers and educational planners (World Bank, 1995:104; Kanu, 1996:173).

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

Similarly, Muller (1981:34) states that basic education includes both formal education at primary level i.e., the first three to five years of schooling, and out of school educational programs set to satisfy the basic educational needs of particular groups. Delors (1996:118) in the same way explains basic education for children as an initial education which could be provided in school or out of school system from around the age of three to about the age of twelve.

Moreover, Hawes in Bishop (1986:53) shows how the concept of basic education is interpreted differently in different countries. For him, basic education is similar to the first part of the first cycle of schooling: three-five years in the former USSR, Ethiopia and Sierraleone; an alternative structure parallel to primary education in Brazil; and the acquisition of basic knowledge, skills and attitudes by all citizens in or out of school in Tanzania.

Although there is a great difference in the interpretations given to basic education in Africa, Kagai *et.al.* (1986:6-20) identify four main components of basic education in each

country. These include, early childhood education; the primary school; non-formal, functional literacy and post literacy programs; and educational components in other sectors other than education to promote specific educational aspects such as extension programs in agriculture, family planning and maternal and child health education programs.

At present, in Ethiopia, basic education includes education provided at the lower primary schools (grades 1-4) and contains instructions in literacy, numeracy, environment, agriculture, crafts, home science, health and civics (TGE, 1994:16).

The aim of basic education is to transfer the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes required to improve living conditions, to develop individuals' potentialities, creativity and critical mind for effective participation and service to improve his community (Muller, 1981:34; Kanu, 1996:174; Kagai *et.al.*, 1986:6).

Basic education, as Delors (1996:79) puts it, is "an indispensable passport to life" and includes all the components of knowledge needed for ultimate access to higher educational levels. Attitudes towards learning for the future are developed at this stage. This writer further notes that it is at the stage of basic education that "the spark of creativity may either spring into life or be extinguished, and access to knowledge may or may not become a reality." (Delors, 1996:115).

2.2. Importance of Basic Education for Girls

Education is a backbone for the economic and social advancement of any country, and yet basic education is the foundation (Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991:1-2). The basic reason behind investing in basic education is that it enables people to be more productive at work and at home (Lee, 1988:1481).

Particularly in the third world countries where a large proportion of the working population is based upon farming with high rates of illiteracy, basic education provides an investment opportunity which should have high priority on economic grounds. Thus,

measures to extend basic education in the rural areas involve direct expenditure on the poorest population groups. Investment in basic education, therefore, provides a means of tackling the poverty problem (Colclough, 1982:181; OAU and UNICEF, 1992: 73-76).

The major contributions of basic education to girls, particularly in the developing countries, can be grouped into two major categories: economic and social developments. (Colclough, 1982: 174; Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991:2; Diallo, 1997:11; Jabre, 1988: 21-22).

2.2.1. Economic Development

The rural dwellers in the developing countries are assumed to constitute about 60 percent of the total population. The majority of them are women with dual responsibilities both in daily work and family care. Access to education is limited; water, electricity and transportation are inadequate; social and health facilities are scarce (UNESCO, 1989:40).

In poor countries, famine is repeatedly observed for many years, and the majority of the victims are women and children in the rural areas. Therefore, effective and well-planned rural development strategy is a priority for survival. Since women constitute a large proportion of the agricultural labor force, the provision of appropriate rural basic education is mandatory to increase women's participation in agricultural production (UNESCO, 1989:48).

Evidence from different researches like King, 1990; Benavot, 1989; Psacharopoulos, 1988; Kelly, 1987; Summers, 1994 indicate that girls' basic education is positively correlated with the economic well-being of a country.

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

Benavot (1985) also studied a period from 1930-1980, and found that basic education had a significant positive effect on the economic growth of 110 developed and developing countries. Another study by Benavot (1989) further examined the long term effects of girls' education on economic growth compared to boys education and came up with the conclusion that the parameter associated with girls' basic education (0.064) is far greater than that of boys' (0.0056).

A study by Lockheed, Jamison and Lau (1980) further examined the effects of farmers' educational levels and exposure to extension services on productivity in thirteen developing countries and arrived at the conclusion that farm productivity increases on the average by 7.4 percent overall and 10 percent in developing countries as a result of farmers completing four additional years of basic education.

Another study by Safillios-Ruthchild (1982), and Jabre (1988) noted that basic education is crucial for girls as it establishes the literacy that increases options for vocational training, rural development projects, and non-formal education.

Education has a direct relationship to earnings and the rate of return to it is high. A study by Psacharopoulos 1985 in Lockheed and Verspoor (1991:3) estimated the social rate of returns of basic education to be 27 percent which is the highest compared to secondary and tertiary education. Furthermore, the private returns of basic education are even higher than the social returns, reaching 49 percent which is again greater than secondary and tertiary education (McMahon, 1984).

2.2.2. Social Development

In addition to its economic importance, basic education facilitates the achievement of other objectives like social policy, especially in the fields of fertility control, improvements in health, nutrition, literacy and communications (Wheeler, 1980; Hicks, 1980; Psacharopoulos, 1983).

One of the major difficulties of low-income countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America is their rapid population growth which strains their development programs. Thus, reducing fertility rates must be an important part of any development program in these countries. Reduced fertility further depends largely on the level of mothers' education (Cochrane, 1979).

Educating the future women reduces fertility (Jabre, 1988:22, Kelly, 1987:96; Summers, 1994:8), although according to some studies, fertility in Africa and Asia increases with a few years of education, and then declines with more schooling (Cochrane, 1980).

According to some research findings, family planning is closely linked with mothers' education than fathers' education (Jabre, 1988:21; Kelly, 1987:96). Further research results show that an extra year of female schooling reduces fertility by approximately 5 to 10 percent (Summers, 1994:10).

Moreover, women's education is related to decreased infant mortality rates, to child nutrition and maternal mortality rates (Summers, 1994: 10-12; Kelly, 1987:96; Pitt, 1995:36; Westoff, 1992:7). Another study by Schultz (1982) indicated that mothers' education has stronger effects than fathers' education in lowering infant mortality and improving family health. A study on the relationship between child nutrition and factors such as family income and maternal education revealed that literate mothers made better use of scarce resources for their children's welfare than did illiterate mothers with higher income (Baigai in Odaga and Heneveld, 1995).

Girls' basic education has also been associated with increased desire to educate their future children. Studies conducted by Wolfe and Behrman, 1984; King and Bellow, 1988; Birdsall, 1985, and Kossoudji and Muller, 1983, in Nicaragua, Peru, Brazil, and Botswana respectively show that mothers' education has been associated with increased participation in education by their children.

Girls' basic education is also helpful to bring attitudinal changes. According to Jabre (1988:22), women with basic knowledge of basic education are said to change the image they have of themselves, and develop greater self-confidence and awareness of their important role in the family and society. They are able to participate more in social milieu and thus start playing a greater role in communal decision making and aspects of change.

Furthermore, the recent international conference on AIDS held in Amsterdam recommended the importance of girls' education in the control of the disease. The 1994 World Development Report also concluded that, investment in girls' education is one of the highest return investments in environmental protection that needs attention especially in developing countries. According to this report, basic education discourages women from clearing forests, and it increases their ability to manage natural resources (Summers, 1994: 13-14).

Despite these and other positive effects of girls' basic education, girls' access to basic education is very limited. Girls' participation at school remains behind that of boys, and the number of illiterate women keeps on growing rather than declining. According to some data obtained from OAU and UNICEF (1992:146), out of the 200 million or more world wide people who do not complete or have access to basic education or secondary education, about 41 million are African girls'. There are a number of causes for this. The following subsection discusses some of these possible causes for girls inability to participate in education in general, and basic education in particular, with more emphasis to girls in the rural areas.

2.3. Major Factors Affecting the Promotion of Girls' Basic Education in the Rural

Areas

Factors affecting girls' participation in basic education could be categorized in different ways. Some of these factors are associated with society's customs, beliefs and attitudes about girls roles, responsibilities and capabilities particularly in rural areas, while others are related to institutional policies and practices. However, for the sake of convenience, this study will summarize these obstacles under four major categories: school-related, socio-

economic, socio-cultural, and political factors.

2.3.1. School-Related Factors

2.3.1.1. Lack of School Facilities

Lack of school facilities may affect enrollments, particularly girls. Yet lack of appropriate teaching and learning materials is likely to affect the performance of both sexes in rural areas. Specially in the areas where there is lack of furniture in schools and where students are required to sit on the floor, parents are probably against sending their daughters to such schools (World Bank, 1995: 116, IDS,1996: 5). In some cultures parents are reluctant to send their daughters to school because of the lack of separate toilets and common rooms (World Bank, 1995:116).

A study carried out by Arriagada (1983) in primary schools of Uganda indicated a positive relationship between students' participation and performances, and better provision of school facilities (Fuller, 1987: 262). Moreover, a study by Huyneman and Jamison (1980) have found out positive relationships between students' participation, and greater availability of texts and reading materials in Uganda (Fuller, 1987:261).

2.3.1.2. Distance to School

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

The maximum distance that children have to travel from home to school varies from country to country depending on the means of transportation, physical features of the land, and the age of the children to be served (UNESCO, 1996:17). Yet, it is commonly accepted that in primary education the children should be able to get school in not more than 45 minutes which

is equivalent to some 3 kms on foot on level ground, but less in mountainous areas (UNESCO, 1996:17). In Ethiopia, the primary school children should get schools within a distance of 3 kms from their home (MOE, 1996).

Absence of a school within an easy reach of home limits girls' enrollment more than boys because of parents' concerns about their daughters' safety where they are vulnerable to harassment, abduction or rape (Kelly, 1987:98). For instance, in Morocco, the presence of a paved road increased the chance of a girl attending school by 40 percent and reduced the probability of her dropping by 5 percent (World Bank, 1995:116). In Mali, too, distance accounted for 14 percent of the variance in girls enrollment. A study from Egypt indicated that when the school was located 1 kilometer from home, enrollment of girls was 72 percent, while when the school was located 2 kilometers far, the enrollment fell to 64 percent (ECA, 1997:37).

In Ethiopia, it is found that about 20 percent of first grade students travel more than 10 kilometers each day to attend school (IDS, 1996). Moreover, the findings of Tadesse (1974) indicated that long distance between students' homes and school was one of the school-related factors affecting students participation in rural areas of Ethiopia.

2.3.1.3. The Attitudes and Pedagogy of Teachers

Different studies indicate that teachers' attitudes, their behavior and teaching methods are among the factors affecting girls' persistence and academic achievement. Teachers' attitudes towards girls' achievement in a class are a reflection of the broader societal biases about the role of women in society and the academic capacity of girls (Odaga and Heneveld, 1995:31).

According to FAWE (1996:12), teachers regard girls as less able to learn and perform in a class than boys and may use physical punishment to enforce learning which promotes fear of school. This may also result in early dropout from schools in rural areas.

According to classroom observations conducted in Kenya, Malawi, Tanzania, and Rwanda it is found out that teachers pay more attention to boys than girls (Kilo, 1994 in Odaga and Heneveld, 1995). Thus girls are not willing to learn, particularly in coeducational institutions since they are often discriminated by teachers who perceive that they are incompetent (Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991: 149).

Studies from Ethiopia have shown that the longer teaching experience and the presence of female teachers have, the positive the effect becomes on girls' persistence and performance in such schools (Seged, *et.al.* 1989). On the other hand, Tadesse (1974) has found that lack of trained teachers was the major barrier to the participation of students in the rural primary schools of Ethiopia.

2.3.1.4. Lack of Educational Guidance and Counseling Services

Guidance is any help provided to individuals or groups to manage their activities and develop their own talents (Chauhan, 1982:27). Counseling, on the other hand, requires qualified, competent and interested personnel and promotes the individual's ability to make decisions, which leads him to independent life activities (Shertzer and Stone, 1980:18). Counseling according to Stoops and others (1981:344), helps the learner to adjust to his/her environment and to his/her peers. Both have close relationship with instruction since interpersonal relationships are at the center of both guidance and counseling and instruction (Hamblin, 1980: 19).

Yelfign and Others (1995:85) in their study of female participation and performance in Cheha district indicated the significance of guidance and counseling services in primary schools, and recommended the need to assign teachers as guidance and counselors after the necessary training and orientation is provided on the techniques so as to encourage girls pursue their education and solve some of their problems.

Although the importance of educational guidance and counseling service in schools is well-acknowledged by scholars in the field, its service is non-existent in government primary schools of Ethiopia.

2.3.2. Socio -Economic Factors

2.3.2.1. House Hold Income

Parents in rural areas with low household income and socio-economic background face problems in sending their children to schools. The increasing costs of schooling coupled with low household income is found to be the major reason why parents do not send children particularly girls to school or remove them from school.

In most developing countries, children of poor families have less chance to enroll in school and more probability to dropout than children of well-to-do families (Anderson 1988 in Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991:150). Since poverty is often linked to the limited educational attainment and low occupational status of the parents, poor families do not give priority to the value of education.

Study results from India, Nepal and Cote' Ivore show that in the richest families, the rates of enrollment exceeded those of the poorest by 50 to 100 percent (Evans, 1981; Glewwel, 1988 in Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991: 150).

In Egypt and Nigeria, too, parents' inability to cover the costs of schooling are said to be reasons why most students dropout of schools (Robinson and others 1984; Odebunmirely, 1983 in Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991: 152).

According to some recent studies, the new trend of cost sharing is said to work against girls' education (Kinyanjui, 1993; Namaddu, 1994 in Odaga and Heneveld 1995). Furthermore, as Obadina (1993) indicates, the introduction of fees in Nigeria between 1982 and 1986 resulted in the decline of primary enrollments from 92 percent to 78 percent. In Ghana unofficial fees and charges resulted in the decline of first year primary students by more

than 4 percent in 1992 (World Bank, 1995: 105). According to Dall (1989:7), economic problem of parents is found to be the main reason for a lot of children not to go to school in Mali.

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

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

2.3.2.2, **Child Labour**

Child labour is said to be a serious problem especially in developing countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America. According to a recent ILO's Bureau of statistics, the number of working children between the age of five and fourteen is about 120 million. Among these, 61 percent are found in Asia, 32 percent in Africa, and 7 percent in Latin America. (ILO, 1996:7).

In most of the developing countries, girls constitute an important labor force both in the family and in production. Different research findings from Tanzania, Burkinafaso, Ghana, and India show that girls are the major sources of labor in the household to fetch water; fetch fuel in the form of firewood, dried animal dung or crop residues; help to prepare food in grinding, husking and pounding of grains; looking after younger children; washing. In the work force they help with weeding, holing, with handicrafts production, and with trade. They are engaged in these activities from an early age-sometimes as young as six (Kelly, 1987:98; Rogers, 1980: 153; Jabre; 1987:23).

Child labor is a major source of survival and one of the reasons for low participation of rural girls in schools. In rural areas, it has been observed that girls spend a considerable amount of their time and energy working in the household and informal sector. While the importance of child labor for agricultural domestic and marketing tasks has been well documented, when it comes to child care, girls are more likely to be involved than boys (Odaga and Heneveld, 1995: 17). According to these writers, girls in rural areas are also expected to carry out other domestic duties such as cooking, cleaning and collecting water and wood for fuel. As a result they quit school at an early age.

A study result from Peru shows that the opportunity cost of school attendance to the rural families is a major barrier for girls to go to school (King and Bellow, 1991: 228).

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

2.3.3. Socio-Cultural Factors

In rural areas, where the majority of the people are illiterate, the socio-cultural expectations of girls and priorities given to their future roles as mothers and wives have a strong negative influence on their schooling. The socio-cultural customs and beliefs influence the decisions to enroll girls, to withdraw them from schools, their performance, and their grade level attainment. Some of these socio-cultural factors assumed to affect girls' participation in basic education in the rural areas are discussed hereunder.

2.3.3.1. Parental Attitudes Towards Girls' Education

Parental and familial attitudes have a strong influence on the decision to invest in children's education. Children's education is a direct result of how much resource and priority parents and families attach to teach their children. Families tend to judge the value of

education by the returns from the labor market (Odaga and Heneveld, 1995: 19-21).

The decision to go to school is directly related to girls' employment opportunities once they are educated. When employment is not open to women, girls' education tends to be depressed, while, when employment opens up, the demand for women's education is much greater on the part of parents. Evidence from Malaysia shows that girls' school attendance increased when the government announced an action that favored the employment of both sexes. In Chile, too, women stay in school longer than men because education is a prerequisite to gain reasonable wage. In contrast, girls' enrollments decreased in Tunisia, when employment opportunities for women had been closed (Kelly, 1987: 100).

In a household model of schooling choice, gender can be introduced in several ways. One is to assume that parents do not necessarily have the same preferences for their sons' and daughters' education. Although the majority of parents tend to favor the education of their sons more than their daughters, studies conducted in Peru by King and Bellow 1991:228; Gill, 1991:247; and in Ghana by Lavy 1992:26, show that fathers education favor the education of their sons while mothers' education is associated with their daughters' education.

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

The studies carried out in Kenya, Rwanda, rural Zimbabwe and Zambia, however, indicate that mothers perceive the education of their daughters as a key to achieve progress and favored to invest in girls' education (Davision, 1993; Prouty, 1991; Kelly, 1991 in Odaga and Heneveld, 1995:20).

2.3.3.2. Religion

The reinforcement of religious outlooks coupled with cultural practices limits girls' activities and excludes them from schools. According to King (1987:44), Ballara (1991:11), and Hyde (1989:4), religious ideas and teachings have a powerful influence in shaping women's lives and their access to education.

After briefly examining the major religious traditions: Hinduism, Buddhism, Islam, Judaism and Christianity, King (1987:47) concluded that when religions were less institutionalized in the early stages, women had some access to religious knowledge informally, but they were excluded from formal education after sacred knowledge started to be transmitted in an institutionalized manner.

The results of the study made in Ghana indicated that parents in Christian areas believe that all children should go to school than non-Christian parents, who give priority to send their sons only (Blakemore, 1975:246). According to this writer, Christianity stresses the significance of literacy and girls' education.

Some research findings, on the other hand, show that Islam is usually associated with low girls' participation particularly in rural schools (Odaga and Heneveld, 1995:24). The study made by Hyde (1989:20) in Nigeria revealed that religion was the major determinant of girls' schooling. Furthermore, Coombs (1985:226) noted that parents in Muslim areas were reluctant to send their daughters to schools. Similarly, Bowman and Anderson (1980:26) stated that the rate of enrollment of females was found to be very low in the areas where Muslims lived. This arises from the fear of the imposition of Western education which is largely associated with Christianity to convert their daughters. Parents in these areas prefer to send girls to koranic schools since they are needed only to learn prayers and have no use for reading as they are unlikely to become scholars (Odaga and Heneveld, 1995: 26).

Other researchers, however, oppose the above findings. Researchers like Al-Hariri (1987), Jones (1980), and Hyde (1989) argue that Islam is not responsible for the low

participation of females in schools. Al-Hariri (1987:52) for instance, states that Islam encourages both men and women to obtain education and to work so as to have a good life, although Islam discourages the free intermingling of men and women. Al-Hariri (1987:51) further quotes the saying of Mohammed which states that "Every Muslim male and female, is requested to seek for knowledge." According to this researcher, both sexes are equal in searching for education, and Islam does not make any distinction between the two sexes. Moreover, Hyde (1989) states that the participation of female students in Muslim areas of Northern Sudan is greater participation than the Southern Christian dominated area. Hence, it is possible to see from the above discussions that researchers do not agree on whether religion as a factor limits the participation of girls in school or not.

2.3.3.3. Early Marriage and Pregnancy

Early marriage is a premature union that takes place earlier than it should, for various reasons (Fatime, 1988: 56). It has been practiced in Asia, Africa and Latin America for many reasons which may differ from one country to the other (Mehra, 1988:48; Mbarouk, 1988:49).

Several studies in Africa and other developing countries have shown that there are certain culturally induced practices which encourage early marriage before the adolescents are physically, psychologically or socially prepared for it. In Tanzania, for instance, most of the parents believe that teen age girls are almost like rotten goods, similar to ripe tomatoes: when they are ripe and red, they should be used, otherwise they will be rotten. In Mali cultural identity young girls are made to understand that they must marry in order not to be ridiculed. In Ghana, the dowry and other related systems of giving cattle, sheep, etc. are the reasons why early childhood marriage is practised (Mbarouk, 1988: 61-62).

Another forced or early marriage for religious reasons is particularly common among Muslims where the young girl is considered as a ripe fruit which should be consumed before she is overripe. She is already prepared for marriage at the age of 13-14 (Fatime, 1988:56). The study carried out in rural Egypt indicates that the illiterate mothers do not approve of educating girls and arrange their marriages at an early age (Brink, 1985: 84-85).

Marriage at a very young age is almost universal in Nepal. It is estimated that 63.1 percent of Nepal women are married between the ages of 14 and 20 (Silliman, 1987:52).

Customs in Ethiopia, too, show early marriage in several ethnic groups, where girls are given away as early as at seven years of age (Mehra 1988:48). Specially, early marriage is one of the harmful traditional practices prevalent in Northern Ethiopia. The survey on early marriage in this part of the country indicates that the mean age for marriage is 14 years (Almaz, 1996:6).

Early marriage exerts its influence on the possibilities to develop education. A woman's age at first marriage is a key factor in the dynamics of development, determining not only individual socio-economic prospects, but also the level of development of the community to which she belongs (Muhsam, 1975:33; Yeboah, 1993:23).

Studies in several African countries have shown the strong association between early marriage, pregnancy, and the significant levels of school dropout rates.

A recent study of school girl pregnancy and continuance in Kenyan schools shows that out of 20,000 secondary school girls and 9,000 primary school girls drawn for the seven provinces of Kenya during the three school terms of 1985, 1986, and 1987, it is estimated that a total of up to 9,000 girls dropped out of schools in 1985, 13,000 in 1986 and 8,000 in 1987 because of pregnancy, an annual average of about 10,400 (Yeboah, 1993:25). According to the study result, primary school dropout related to pregnancy was common in rural than urban areas. (Odaga and Heneveld, 1995:30)

In Tanzania, a 1984 study by the Ministry of Education estimated that more than 18,000 girls dropped out of school due to pregnancy in 1982, amounting to about 10 percent of the female primary and secondary enrollment (Yeboah, 1993:25).

A study conducted by Anbessu and Junge (1988) also found that early marriage is a problem for girls' enrollment and persistence in schools in Ethiopia. Once girls are married they are occupied in child-rearing and house duties that do not allow them to follow-up their education (Zenebe , 1988:96; UNECA, 1989: 64).

To minimize the problem of girls' drop-out caused by early marriage and pregnancy, some governments in Africa have tried to formulate Educational Acts. For instance, the Tanzanian Government's Educational Act of 1982 mainly states:

No pupil compulsorily enrolled shall marry or get married before completion of basic primary and Junior secondary education. In case marriage is contracted while at a school, such a pupil shall be expelled. (In Mbarouk, 1988:61).

This Education Act further states that:

A female pupil who is found to be pregnant or a male pupil who is found to be responsible for the pregnancy of the female pupil while at school before completion of the period (11 years) or a female teacher who is made pregnant by a pupil in similar category shall be liable to termination of service (in Mbarouk, 1988-61).

Recent evidence from Tanzania, however, indicates that such Educational Act still couldn't stop early marriage of school girls particularly in the rural areas. The parents bring together a boy and a girl in a hut and pretend that they have caught them red handed so that they can marry each other (Mbarouk, 1988:61). This implies that Educational Acts alone can not alleviate the problem unless supported by other measures such as teaching parents in the rural areas.

In Zimbabwe and Zambia, recent Ministries of Education policy statements have attempted to make provision for girls who have to leave school to give birth to re-enter the education system provided that the girl seeks admission to a new school (Yeboah, 1993:24).

2.3.3.4. Fear of Sexual Harassment, Abduction or Rape

Fear of abduction and/or rape has not been separately treated as one variable in many of the studies concerned with girls' absenteeism from rural schools.

Abduction or rape is a common phenomenon particularly in the rural areas and is recognized as a form of marriage in different ethnic groups in Ethiopia (Almaz, 1996:2). It usually takes place on the way to and/or from market or school. This implies that schools are one of the areas vulnerable (sensitive) to abduction, rape or sexual harassment.

Different studies and reports from some African countries show the seriousness of sexual harassment in schools to hinder girls' education. African Right Discussion paper (1994:1) discussed the magnitude of the problem as a major obstacle for girls' inability to pursue their studies.

Studies from South Africa and Zambia indicate that many primary school girls are raped or harassed on their way to school. Reports from Kenya also show that 19 girls were killed and 71 raped at St. Kizito mixed Secondary School in 1991. In Senegal, too, 60 percent of the rapes examined has been found to be school girls and students with an average age of under 15 years (African Right Discussion paper, 1994:7).

Similarly, few studies from Ethiopia show that abduction or rape widely takes place in the rural areas of Western region like Wollega, Southern Sidamo, and certain parts of Amhara and Tigray regions (Almaz, 1996:2). Furthermore, a study result of IDS (1996:75) shows that due to long distances of schools from their homes, fear for girls' safety is the major reason for parents not to send their daughters to schools in the rural areas.

2.3.3.5. Girls' Motivation and Expectations

Different studies from the least developed countries on students' attitude surveys reveal that girls have low expectation of female achievement in school and career prospects. A study

in Guinea, for instance, proves that at upper primary levels both boys and girls subscribed to gender stereotypes that favored boys, and girls internalized the images of inferiority (Anderson-Levitt 1994, in Odaga and Heneveld, 1995).

Socio-cultural factors and the socialization process affect girls' self-image, performance and attainment in school and their career aspirations.

Tinker and Bramsen, (1975), in their study of Islamic schools in Nigeria, noted that girls did not ask, and were not asked questions by their teachers, and simply sat at the back of the class away from the boys.

Studies carried out in rural areas on girls' career aspirations indicate that girls had more limited range of career aspirations, teaching and nursing being the most popular. They tend to aspire to traditional female occupations, particularly teaching and nursing regardless of place of residence (Odaga and Heneveld, 1995:41).

Furthermore, in Uganda, 13 percent of the dropouts interviewed cited lack of interest and poor academic performance as the major reasons for wastage (Flueret *et.al* 1992 in Odaga and Heneveld, 1995: 42). A study carried out in Malawi also indicates that students' lack of interest and persistence were among the factors cited for the high incidence of school drop-outs (Kapakasa, 1992).

2.3.4. Political Factors

2.3.4.1 Low Commitment to Girls' Education

Inadequate public and governmental supports provided to the education sector, particularly at the primary level, is one of the major factors affecting girls' participation in rural areas. According to Odaga and Heneveld (1995:46), governments ought to review an overall investment in education and to make more funds available for primary education where most girls are enrolled and where there is much room to improve access to, efficiency of, and quality of education.

Lack of political will to promote girls' basic education among governments of least developing countries is observed. Political will and recognition of the importance of attaining education for all girls remain important to increase female enrollments in these countries. Different studies demonstrate that low per capita income affects the capacity of governments to finance and deliver education. It also restricts the education supply making the proportion of public spending needed greater to achieve access in poorer countries (Colclough and Lewin, 1990; King and Hill, 1991 in Odaga and Heneveld, 1995:46).

The authors of recent studies further argue that, in different African countries like Ethiopia, Uganda, Malawi, Tanzania, Nigeria, and others, there are low gross enrollment ratios, because of low commitment of governments to provide schooling for all children. They say that these countries try to achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) with an amount of public spending on primary schooling equivalent to less than 2 percent of Gross National Product (GNP) (Odaga and Heneveld, 1995:46).

The expansion of lower primary schools is not the only solution to increase the enrollment of girls' in basic education in the rural areas. A study carried out by Lavy (1992:29) in rural Ghana indicates that the supply constraints on middle and secondary education are as important as the supply of primary schools to increase enrollments and decrease dropout of students from the education system.

When education at a certain level is not effectively made available for the whole population of the relevant age-groups, a smaller proportion of girls than of boys is enrolled in it (Eliou, 1987:60). Furthermore, as enrollments begin to slow and the population continues to increase, extending access to-out-of school children becomes more difficult and more expensive (Lockheed and Verspoor, 1991).

about 46,458,000 which is about 89 percent of the total population. The majority of the rural illiterates are said to be women and girls (UNDP, 1997:11, Assefa and Dilnesaw, 1996:16; Abbink, 1996:115).

The majority of Ethiopian Children have no access to basic education and health services suffering from problems of malnutrition and high morbidity and mortality (Assefa and Dilnesaw, 1996:19). The literacy rate is 41 and 21 percent for male and female respectively. The average primary school enrollment is 34.6 percent (UNDP, 1997: 11, MOE 1997). According to the current demographic trends, the system will not show any improvement in the future (Assefa and Dilnesaw, 1996:16). Recent data shows that out-of-school children in the country increased from 3.3 million in 1968 to 5.4 million in 1988 and to 19.7 million in 1995 and projected to increase to 25.6 million in 2005 and to 43.1 million by the year 2020 (OPHCC, 1991 in Assefa and Dilnesaw, 1996:16).

In the rural areas where agriculture is the main stay of the people, women work fifteen to eighteen hours a day and are responsible for 50-60 percent of subsistence agricultural production while suffering from poor standards of living, poor health conditions, and with limited or no access to basic education (Almaz, 1995:3; Dessitu, 1995:86; Almaz, 1991:4).

Since Ethiopia is a country rich in traditions (UNECA, 1989:64) the study of women's status need to consider the country's historical, socio-cultural, economic and related determinants which are assumed to affect their participation in different development programs including education (Atsede, 1995:39).

The limited participation of girls in the Ethiopian education system is linked to the historical development of education in the country. Education in its traditional form, has a long history in Ethiopia. Originally, the educational system of the country was predominantly religious oriented to serve the man power needs of the church, the mosque and the state.

(Teshome, 1979; Pankhurst, 1968; Maaza, 1966). Since women were not allowed to assume responsibilities in both institutions (state and religion), the exclusion of women from the teaching activities was the main feature of these institutions (Alem Tsehay, 1985: 17-20).

As Gobat in Seyoum (1986), and Pankhurst (1968) put it, at the end of the 20th century there was nearly ninety percent illiteracy in the country and the situation was even worse from the women's side. Gobat further noted some of the prominent women like Empress Taitu, Tsehai Darge, and Woizero Ekuletaw Askale of Gojam who were able to study "Kene" of the traditional church education. Thus, the traditional beginnings of education in Ethiopia favoured the patriarchal system based on the superior nature of males and heads of the households which recognizes women as dependents.

With the coming of Western missionaries to Ethiopia in the early 16th century, modern education was started in some areas (Maaza, 1966, Pankhurst, 1968, Teshome, 1979). According to Teshome (1979:22), a Lutheran Missionary was said to organize lessons in Hebrew and Greek for boys only in 1634. However, girls' school was set up lately around 1866 in Monkullu and moved to Belessa in 1890 (Pankhurst, 1968: 672; Teshome, 1979:23). Two girls' schools were also established: one in 1898 at Alitena, and the other at Addi Ugri in nearly similar year (Pankhurst, 1968:672). From 100 students registered to attend their education in these schools, 88 of them were males while the number of females was only 12 by 1905 (Teshome, 1979:23). Furthermore, a boarding school established by Lazarists at Keren in 1872 was teaching both boys and girls, and according to some reports, there were 80 boys and 70 girls who were boarding with 500 day students (Pankhurst, 1968:672).

In his effort to strengthen modern education, Emperor Menelik II took the first initiative to open Menelik II school in 1908 in Addis Ababa, although he had already started a school in the palace, primarily for the sons of the nobility by 1905 (Teshome, 1979: 28; Pankhurst, 1968: 676). He has also issued a proclamation for parents to send their children, both boys and girls, to schools after the age of six (Atsede and Kebede, 1988; Teshome

1976:29). One of his remarkable statement in his proclamation was the mentioning of girls indicating the beginning of the end of societal conservatism towards the education of girls. In spite of such efforts, the education of girls remained behind for many years.

The opening of the first girls' school in Addis Ababa in 1931 by Empress Menen, however, marked the beginning of the provision of modern education for girls in Ethiopia, although there were only eighty students in the school in 1935 (Atsede and Kebede, 1988:15-16; Alemtsehay, 1985:21; Maaza, 1966:61; Senedu, 1957:77; Naomi, 1957:102).

The introduction of modern education in the country was interrupted by the Ethio-Italian war from 1936-1941 (Teshome, 1979; Maaza, 1966). After restoration of peace in the country, however, Emperor Haile Selassie considered education as a basic instrument for his modernization process and started to expand modern education in different parts of the country.

Besides the enrollment of girls and young women in great number in the newly opened provincial schools, Empress Menen School and Empress Menen Handicraft School for Girls were opened in 1941 and 1942 respectively. This has increased the overall enrollment of girls from 8.7 percent in 1946-1947 to 12.4 percent in 1950-1951 (Atsede and Kebede, 1988:17).

Throughout the 1940's government schools admitted both sexes but maintained separate classes for girls and boys. As Atsede and Kebede (1988:18) put it, from the 540 government schools in 1950, 450 of them were co-educational: teaching girls and boys in the same classes. This was the major effort made in the application of the principle of equality of opportunity in education for both sexes.

The expansion of the formal school system has continued from the time of its beginning up to now both in the urban and rural areas of the country. Despite the governments efforts to provide equal opportunities to women and non-discriminatory policies, the actual

situation in Ethiopia today confirms the superiority of the male in an indirect way in education (Almaz, 1995:5).

Thus, the identification of the major obstacles to promote girls' education in this country particularly in the rural areas becomes very crucial. This further requires consultations with parents, girls who are the victims, and other community members in these areas. Having this objective as a main concern, the following sub topic-treats the theoretical background on the situation of girls' basic education in the rural areas of the Oromia Regional State which is the largest region in the country.

2.5. The Need for Girls' Basic Education in the Oromia Regional State

Oromia is the largest Regional State of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. According to the 1994 housing and population census, the region contains twelve zones, 180 woredas, 375 towns, and 10,161 farmers' association in the rural areas. The total population was estimated to be 18, 732, 525 where females account for 50 percent. From the total population of the region, the majority (16,511,016 or 89.5 percent) are said to be rural settlers whose life is based on agriculture. Coffee, which is the main export of the country, is largely produced in this region.

Oromia is one of the regions with the highest illiteracy rate in the country. The 1994 housing and population census estimates that out of the total population of the region, 12, 232, 406 never attended education. From these, 11,672,245 (95 percent) are said to be the rural people. The total Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) in primary schools (grades 1-8) is only 30 percent. Yet, the GER of girls in the rural areas is only 12 percent of the total school age children. This puts the region first from the bottom compared to the four regions with the enrollment ratio below the national average (MOE, 1997)

The 1994 housing and population census further shows that the average fertility rate of the region was 4.9 with 3.4 and 5.1 for urban and rural areas respectively. The infant mortality rate of the region stood second compared to other regions.

A special feature of the social and political structure of the Oromos is the institution of the GADA, where women were totally excluded from the running of political and social affairs. GADA ceased functioning during the first decades of the 19th century (Tekeste, 1996:32). Orthodox Christian and Islam are the two main religions with 41.3 percent and 44.3 percent respectively (OPHCC, 1996).

In Oromia, like other women in other parts of the country, rural women have always to work on the land as farmers and cultivators with no access to modern technology, innovation, education, and communication. This has contributed to the region's backwardness in education, which in turn has affected people's lives in the rural areas. In the region, at all levels of education in both rural and urban areas, and more so in rural areas, the enrollment and achievement of girls are much lower than those of boys. In spite of recent efforts being made by the regional state to provide education to rural girls, their participation is found to be the lowest of all regions as discussed above.

Several studies conducted in other rural areas of Ethiopia associate the disadvantaged position of girls with the heavier burden of household work relative to boys which they are traditionally required to carry out. Fikirte (1990), and Zewdie and Barbara (1990), in their study of women's work load and time use in four peasant associations found that females spent almost 15 hours a day on activities such as working on the farm, fetching fire wood and water, and preparing food for their family.

Thus, in this chapter, it is tried to provide some theoretical backgrounds, and different research findings obtained on the barriers to girls' education in similar countries. The following chapters, however, treat the real problems of promoting girls' basic education in the rural areas of Oromia. The immediate chapter briefly treats how the data are gathered, and what tools are employed to interpret the data from the field.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

As reiteratively stated, the purpose of this study was to examine the status of girls' basic education, identify the major impediments and come up with the strategies to be implemented to alleviate the problems. Thus, to attain this goal, a descriptive survey is employed on the assumption that it could help to reveal the current state of girls' basic education. Accordingly, the following techniques and procedures were implemented to collect and analyze the data.

3.1. Data Gathering Instruments and Procedures

The main data gathering methods used for this study were questionnaires and structured interviews since they are more appropriate to secure factual information, opinions and attitudes in a structured framework from respondents. Document analysis was also made to see the current status of girls' basic education in the rural areas of Oromia. The data for document analysis were obtained from Oromia Education Bureau and schools included in the study.

Regarding the questionnaires and structured interviews, two types of questionnaires were set. A questionnaire for teachers was prepared in English while that of girls in school was first prepared in English and later translated to their own mother tongue "Afan Oromo." Moreover, two types of structured interviews were prepared for parents and girls out-of-school first in English and translated into "afan Oromo" later. In order to ensure the appropriateness of the items, a pilot study was carried out in two schools i.e. Quni and Medicho and the surrounding areas found in Western Hararghe.

Based on the results obtained from the pilot study, some items were left out and others were included depending on the relevant information gathered from the respondents.

The following major broad topics were addressed in the revised questionnaires and interviews:

- 1) Respondents personality characteristics, including parents' socio-economic backgrounds in the case of parents and both group of girls.
- 2) Major activities performed by girls in school and those out-of-school.
- 3) Major school-related factors affecting girls participation in basic education in the rural areas.
- 4) Major out-of-school factors affecting girls' participation in basic education.

These are:

- 4.1. socio-economic
- 4.2. socio-cultural, and
- 4.3. political factors.

In the first part of the questionnaires and interviews, multiple choice-type and open ended questions in the form of tables were forwarded where necessary. In the case of major factors affecting girls participation, the items were prepared in the form of Likert-type attitude scale and the level of agreement was indicated on a five-point scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. In the case of major duties of girls, nominal scale (everyday, sometimes, never) was used to identify those activities performed by both group of girls.

3.2. Sampling

As discussed in the delimitation, two zones were included for this study. Valuable information were gathered from eight primary schools and the surrounding areas found in these zones.

Four groups of respondents: teachers, girls in school, parents, and girls out-of-school (those who have never been to school or dropped-out from school due to some reasons) were the major subjects of the study.

Regarding teacher respondents, out of 76 male teachers assigned to teach in the sample schools for the academic year 1997/98; 30% that is, 25 teachers were included in the study. On the other hand, out of 39 female teachers in these schools, nearly 50% that is, 22 of them were involved in the study to make fair representation of female teachers since their number is smaller than males. Then, simple random sampling procedure was employed to get individual respondents.

In the case of female students, since the number of sections for each grade in the sample schools is only one, especially for grades 4 and above, one grade / section was randomly selected using simple random sampling technique except in some schools where two sections/ grades were included due to small number of female students in these schools. Thus, out of 152 girls going to school in these selected sections, nearly 50% that is, 78 of them were selected using simple random sampling procedure. Regarding the selection of schools, teachers, and female students refer to appendix 5.

Stratified quota sampling technique was employed to draw the necessary number of parents' respondents. Thus, parents were stratified first according to their religion into two: Christians and Muslims. All Christian respondents were taken from Illubabor and Muslims from Western Hararghe. Furthermore, parents were stratified into three based on their economic status as rich, average, and poor. As the researcher tried to elicit information from different government organizations at the zonal level, there has not been household surveys carried out according to income in the country. Government office such as the Ministry of Agriculture, which are said to make frequent contacts with farmers, do not have any classification of farmers based on income. Therefore, it was a felt-need to classify farmers using local definitions used in the rural areas. Thus, the amount of land cultivated in hectares or pairs of oxen, number of cows or cattle, the amount of coffee or chat produced annually, whether the farmer is a surplus producer for market, only for self consumption or look for market to feed his family (what he produces is not even enough to feed his family), whether his house is made of iron sheet or from grass (hut), and the quality of the house in general were considered to classify farmers. Then, discussions were made with principals, teachers and elder people found around the sample schools to identify farmers' respondents for each

economic stratum. Thus, a total of 48 farmers, 24 from each zone were selected using purposive sampling. The sample size is assumed to be representative because researchers like Hinkle, Wiersma and Jurs (1988:170), Clark and Hosking (1986:153), and Cohen and Manion (1980:70) state that when the sample size is greater than 30, the approximation of the sample distribution to a normal distribution is usually close and appropriate to apply statistical tools for analysis. Furthermore, to ensure fair representation, eight farmers from each economic stratum and from each zone were included using purposive and stratified quota sampling.

In the case of girls-out-of school, stratified quota sampling was used based on their religion: Christians and Muslims. Thus, 25 Christian girls from Illubabor, and 25 Muslim girls from Western Hararghe were randomly selected and interviewed.

3.3. Administration of the Instruments

After sample schools for the study were identified with the help of Woreda Education Offices, a visit was made to each school by the researcher. Then, a total number of teachers was obtained from school record. Further, after the number of male and female teachers was identified, the questionnaire was distributed to 30% of male and 50% of female teachers randomly selected in each school. The necessary clarifications were also given by the researcher for questions raised regarding some of the items from individual respondents.

Purpils' questionnaire was administered in the form of interview. Although the study includes formal basic education (i.e. the first cycle of the primary grades 1-4), students from the first three grades were deliberately excluded from the sample on the consideration that they were too young to provide the required information. Therefore, girls from grades four and above were included for the study. As it was discussed in the sampling part, a section or two was selected from each school and 50% of girls were included from the section. After respondents were randomly selected, each item with its alternatives was read by teachers, research assistants and the researcher himself where necessary. Then, students were allowed to give their own answers to each item individually. This has helped to overcome mistakes that would have been committed by students.

In the case of parents and girls-out-of school, the respondents were identified by the researcher, teachers, elder people and assistant researchers. After the individual respondents were identified as discussed in the sampling, the researcher and the enumerators went to the specific residence of the respondents. Then, discussions were made on the objectives of the interview with farmers' associations, parents' respondents, and the families of the out-of-school girls to minimize the misunderstandings. Finally, the interviews were conducted by the enumerators.

3.4. Methods of Data Analysis

3.4.1. Variables Used

The dependent variable of this study was the participation of girls in basic education in the rural areas. In this study, the independent variables (determinants of girls participation) were grouped into two major categories: school-related and out-of-school factors. The out-of-school factors were further classified as socio-economic, socio-cultural and political factors.

3.4.2. Data Analysis

Depending on the number of groups involved and the level of measurement used to measure the dependent variable (Faraa, 1983:166-172), the following statistical techniques were employed.

Percentages were used to explain the personality characteristics of the respondents and self-perception of girls in school.

The Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) which is defined as the number of pupils in primary (grades 1 through 8), divided by the total population of age 7 to 14 was calculated for the academic years 1994/95 to 1997/98 to compare rural vs urban girls and male vs female enrollments in the rural areas. This ratio is also known as "participation rate", and it is used to indicate the capacity of the education system and its utilization. Furthermore, rate of enrollment growth, and percentages were used to determine the current status of girls' basic education.

The weighted mean was calculated to identify the major factors affecting girls' participation in basic education in the rural areas.

Chi-square was employed where nominal and ordinal scales of measurement were used i.e., to examine the associations of boys and girls education with parents' socio-economic backgrounds. Moreover, this mathematical tool was used to identify the major duties of both groups of girls.

One-way ANOVA and Tukey-HSD test were used to determine the significant mean differences between and among teachers, parents and girls out-of-school upon their views concerning the major factors affecting girls' participation in basic education.

In all the above cases, the existing differences were tested for statistical significance at 0.05 level to tolerate errors that come due to chance, as it is conventionally used in social science researches. Thus, using the above tools, the following chapter treats the data obtained from the field to achieve the objectives of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This part of the thesis deals with the presentation and analysis of the data gathered from documents in OEB and the sample schools, through questionnaires for teachers and girls in school, and from interviews done with parents and girls out of school. Of the total 47 questionnaires distributed for teachers 42 (89.4%) and out of 78 distributed to girls in school 70 (89.7%) were returned and used for the analysis. In the case of parents 48 (100%), and girls out-of-school 50 (100%) were properly filled in by the assistant researchers and used for analysis. The analysis was made based on the responses obtained from these groups of respondents in relation to the data collected from the documents.

Table I
Teacher Respondents by Their Zone, Sex, Age, Education, Service and Position

Zone	No.	%	Sex	No.	%	age	No	%	Educ.	No.	%	Service	No.	%	Position	No	%
Illubabor	17	40.5	Male	23	54.8	20-25	7	16.7	12 th com.	1	2.4	1-5 years	2	4.8	Principal	8	19
West Hararghe	25	59.5	Female	19	45.2	26-30	10	23.8	12+TTI	39	92.8	6-10 "	14	33.3	V/ Principal	3	7.1
Total	42	100	Total	42	100	31-35	13	30.9	12+1	2	4.8	11-15 "	9	21.4	Unit Lead.	3	7.1
						36 and above	12	28.6	12+2 and above	-	-	16-20 "	17	40.5	Teacher	28	66.7
						Total	42	100	Total	42	100	21 years and above	-	-	Total	42	100
						Total	42	100	Total	42	100	Total	42	100			

As indicated in the introductory part of this chapter, a total of 42 teacher respondents were involved in the study. As Table I shows, 17(40.5%) of them are from Illubabor, while 25 (59.5%) are from Western Hararghe. Regarding respondents' sex, 23 (54.8%) are males and 19(45.2%) are females. This is assumed to be representative when compared to the total population since 30 percent of male and 50 percent of female teachers are included in the study.

With regard to respondents' age, the majority (30.9%) and (28.6%) are between the age-group of 31-35 and 36 and above respectively. The remaining (23.8%), and (16.7%) are between the age-group of 26-30 and 20-25 years respectively. This shows that the majority of teacher respondents are found in the adult age-group and their responses could be dependable.

Concerning the educational background of the respondents, the majority (92.8%) are TTI graduates, and only 1(2.4%), and 2(4.8%) have 12th grade and 12+1 qualifications respectively.

Among the teacher respondents, 17(40.5%) have teaching experiences of 16-20 years, 14 (33.3%) have served between 6-10 years, 9(21.4%) between 11-15 years and 2(4.8%) between 1-5 years.

As far as their position is concerned, 28 (66.7%) are teachers, 8(19%) principals, 3(7.1%) vice principals, and 3(7.1%) are unit leaders.

TABLE II

Parents Respondents by Their Zone, Sex, Occupation and Income

Zone	No.	%	Sex	No.	%	Occupation	No.	%	Income	No.	%
Illubabor	24	50	Male	42	87.5	Farmers	47	97.9	Rich	16	33.3
W/Haraghe	24	50	Female	6	12.5	Small Business	1	2.1	Average	16	33.3
Total	48	100	Total	48	100	Total	48	100	Poor Total	16 48	33.3 100

As seen in Table II, 24 (50%) of parents from each zone were interviewed. Moreover, this figure is also true of the religion of the respondents since those from Illubabor are all Christians and those from Western Hararghe are all Muslims. The main reason is to make the representation of the two groups fair as discussed in the sampling.

The majority of the respondents, i.e., 42 (87.5%) are males, while 6(12.5%) are females due to the low number of female headed households in the rural areas.

Regarding the occupation of the respondents, all of the respondents i.e,47 (97.9%) are farmers except 1(2.1%) who is engaged in small business work. To make fair representation, 16 (33.3%) of the respondents are included from each economic strata as is locally defined.

TABLE III**Parents Respondents According to Their Age and Education**

1	Age	No.	%
	40 years and Below	15	31.3
	41 - 50	14	29.2
	51 - 60	7	14.5
	61 years and Above	12	25
	Total	48	100
2	Husbands' Education	No.	%
	Illiterate	21	43.8
	Read and write	12	25.0
	Completed Primary Education and Above	15	31.2
	Total	48	100
3.	Wives' Education	No.	%
	Illiterate	35	72.9
	Read and write	11	22.9
	Completed Primary Education and Above	2	4.2
	Total	48	100

Table III further shows that 15(31.3%) of the parents are below the age of 40, while 14(29.2%) are between 41-50 years, 7(14.5%) are between 51-60 years and the remaining 12(25%) are above 61 years old.

Regarding the educational level of the respondents as indicated in Table III, 21(43.8%) of the men are illiterate, while the majority i.e, 12(25%) and 15 (31.2%) can read and write, and have completed primary education and above respectively. In the case of women, however, 35(72.9%) are illiterate, 11(22.9%) can read and write, and only 2 (4.2%) have

completed primary education and above. These figures show that men are relatively more literate than women in the rural areas. This implies that more effort has to be made in the rural areas to improve women's education by making basic education accessible to rural girls who will be future women to reduce the disparity.

TABLE IV

Girls In-School by Their Zone, Parents' Income, Fathers' and Mothers' Education.

1	Zone	No.	%
	Illubabor	40	57.1
	West Hararghe	30	42.9
	Total	70	100
2	Parents' income	No.	%
	Rich	20	28.6
	Average	48	68.5
	Poor	2	2.9
	Total	70	100
3	Fathers' Education	No.	%
	Illiterate	27	38.6
	Read and write	31	44.3
	Completed Primary Education and above	12	17.1
	Total	70	100
4	Mothers' Education	No.	%
	Illiterate	50	71.5
	Read and write	19	27.1
	Completed Primary Education and above	1	1.4
	Total	70	100

As seen in Table IV, 40 (57-1%) of the girls in school respondents are from Illubabor and 30 (42.90%) are from Western Hararghe. This figure is also true of their religion since all respondents from Illubabor are Christians and those from Western Hararghe are Muslims.

The majority of the girls in-school (68.5%) and (28.6%) are from average and rich family backgrounds respectively, while only (2.9%) are from poor family as locally defined.

Regarding the education of their parents, the majority, i.e., 31(44.3%) and 12(17.4%) of their fathers can read and write, and have completed primary education respectively, while 27 (38.6%) of them are from illiterate fathers. On the other hand, the majority of their mothers, i.e., 50 (71.5%) are illiterate, 19 (27.1%) can read and write, and only 1 (1.4%) has completed primary education and above. These figures further prove that women are more illiterate than men in rural areas. This could be due to the inequality of opportunities between the two sexes in the education system.

TABLE V

Girls in-School by Their Grades and Distance (in hours) from Their Homes to Schools.

Grades	No.	%
4	18	25.7
5	25	35.7
6	21	30
7	3	4.3
8	3	4.3
Total	70	100
Distance	No.	%
Less than ½ hr	45	64.3
½ hr - 1 hr	21	30
1 hr - 1½ hrs	3	4.3
1½ hrs - 2 hrs	1	1.4
2 hours and Above		
Total	70	100

As Table V shows, the majority of the respondents i.e., 18(25.7%) and 21 (30%) are from grades 4,5 and 6, while only 3 (4.3%) each are from grades 7 and 8. The majority of the

students, (64.3%) walk less than half an hour, 21 (30%) walk ½ hr to 1 hr to reach their school. At the same time, only 3 (4.3%) and 1(1.4%) walk 1 hr to 1½ hrs and 1½ hrs to 2 hrs to reach their school. This shows that the majority of girls in-school are relatively nearer to their school. This means, as schools are located nearer to girls' homes in the rural areas, the higher the chance for them to go to school as it was found in other researches in different countries.

TABLE - VI

Girls Out-Of School by Their Zone, Age and Marital Status

Zone	No.	%
Illubabor	25	50
West Hararghe	25	50
Total	50	100
Age	No.	%
7-10	1	2
11 - 14 years	8	16
15 - 18 years	16	32
19 years and above	25	50
Total	50	100
Marital Status	No.	%
Married	23	46
Unmarried	27	54
Divorced	-	-
Total	50	100

Table VI indicates that 25(50%) girls out-of-school from each zone are interviewed to make fair representation of the two groups who are different in religion, i.e., Christians and Muslims.

The majority of these respondents, i.e., 25(50%), 16(32%) are between the ages of 19 and above and 15-19 years old respectively. At the same time, only 1 (2%) and 8(16%) of them are in the age ranges of 7-10 and 11-14 years respectively. From these respondents, 27 (54%) of them are unmarried, while 23 (46%) are married.

TABLE VII

Girls-Out-of-School According to Their Parents' Income, Mothers' Education, Fathers' Education, and Distance From Their Home to the Nearer School in Hours

Parents' Income	No.	%
Rich	1	2
Average	23	46
Poor	26	52
Total	50	100
Mothers' Education	No.	%
Illiterate	40	80
Read and Write	8	16
Completed Primary Education and above	2	4
Total	50	100
Fathers' Education	No.	%
Illiterate	33	66
Read and write	17	34
Completed Primary Education and above	-	-
Total	50	100
Distance from Home to School	No	%
Less than ½ hr	9	18
½ hr - 1 hr	20	40
1 hr - 1½ hrs	17	34
1½ hrs - 2 hrs	4	8
2 hrs and above	-	-
Total	50	100

As Table VII shows, the majority i.e., 26(52%), and 23 (46%) of girls out-of-school are from poor and average family backgrounds, while only 1(2%) is from a well to do family.

In the case of parents' education, 40 (80%) indicated that their mothers are illiterate, and only 8(16%) and 2 (4%) said that their mothers can read and write, and have completed primary education and above respectively. The majority (66%) of their fathers are again illiterate, while only 17 (34%) of them can read and write. This implies that improving family education through literacy programs in the rural areas could help to improve the participation of girls in education.

Regarding distance of the nearer school from their home, 20 (40%), and 17 (34%) walk ½hr to 1 hr and 1 hr to 1½hrs respectively. Only 9 (18%) of them can get school within a distance of ½hr and below, while 4(8%) of them have to travel 1½hrs to 2 hrs to find the nearer school to their home. This further shows the scarcity of schools within a reasonable distance from their home in the rural areas as opposed to what is recommended by UNESCO.

Thus, when one compares girls in-school and those out-of-school using Tables IV, V and VII, it is easy to find that the majority of girls out-of-school are from poor family backgrounds, are from illiterate parents, and have to walk for a long distance to find the nearer school to their homes than girls in-school. This finding confirms the finding of Anderson (1988) which states that children of poor families have less chance to enroll in school and more probability to dropout than those from well-to-do families. Furthermore, the above finding appears to be in line with the findings of Tadesse (1974), that the highest number of school dropouts come from families whose economic background is below average in rural Ethiopia.

4.1. The Status of Girls' Basic Education in the Rural Areas of Oromia

In order to examine the current status of girls' participation in rural primary schools, the number of school-age children for each academic year was obtained from the 1994

Housing and Population census. The number of school-age children, except for the 1994 which is the exact number of school-age children (7-14 years), was taken from the projection given to the year 2000 by OPHCC (1994). Since this projection was given in categories rather than for specific ages, the ages from 5-14 years were arbitrarily considered to encompass school-age children for primary schools (grades 1-8).

The number of girls and boys enrolled for each academic year was obtained from the annual statistics abstracts of the MOE and OEB (see Appendix - 1).

Based on the above figures, GER for primary school (grades 1 to 8) was calculated using the formula:

$$\text{GER} = \frac{\text{Pupils in Primary grades}}{\text{School-age population for primary Schools}} \times 100.$$

This ratio was used to compare urban and rural girls as well as rural girls and boys. It is the most commonly used indicator of coverage. Furthermore, it indicates the capacity of the education system and its utilization. The annual rate of growth for each group of subjects was calculated using the formula $E_n = E_o (1 + r)^n$ taking the enrollment of 1994/95 academic year as a base. Percentages were also used to see the status of rural girls compared to other groups.

As Appendix - 1 shows, the GER for urban girls was 72.75%, 67.36%, 73.06%, and 64.24% for the academic years 1994/95 to 1997/98 respectively while the GER for rural girls was found to be only 7.96%, 7.34%, 8.78%, and 12.54% for these years respectively. The GER for rural boys, on the other hand, was 20.26%, 20.46%, 25.13%, and 29.81% for 1994/95 to 1997/98 academic years respectively. This indicates that the participation rate of rural girls for these four academic years was found to be very small when compared to urban girls and boys in the rural areas. Moreover, the ratio shows that above 80% of school age girls are still out-of-school in the rural areas.

The annual rate of growth (see Appendix - 1) of these groups further shows that the rate of growth for rural girls seems to increase greatly than that of urban girls, but it is still less

than that of rural boys except for 1997/98 academic year. This is due to the fact that the enrollment of rural girls started from the bottom than girls in urban areas. Hence, it is possible to say that from 1994/95 to 1997/98 academic years, rural girls have had a high relative increase, but started from a small base, while urban girls have had a lower relative increase, but started from much larger base. The annual growth rate for rural boys was found to be better than girls in rural areas. The finding further implies that more boys are coming to primary schools than girls in the rural areas. This is, of course, an expected event from the real situation of rural areas.

As the percentages from Appendix - 2 show, the participation of urban girls in primary grades (1-6) for the academic years 1994/95 to 1995/96 and lower primary grades (1-4) or basic education for the academic years 1996/97 to 1997/98 was 45.5%, 43.3%, 41.9%, and 41.7% respectively when compared to boys in urban areas. This shows better participation of urban girls in primary grades with their counterparts. On the other hand, the percentages of rural girls in these grades were found to be 26.7%, 25.2%, 24.8%, and 28.5% compared to boys in rural schools for the academic years 1994/95 to 1997/98 respectively. This implies that on the average $\frac{3}{4}$ th of enrollments in the rural primary schools were occupied by males. Hence, it is possible to say that the majority of the rural girls are not coming to schools when compared to boys in rural areas and girls in towns.

Therefore, from the above discussions it is concluded that the status of girls' basic education in the rural areas of Oromia is found to be very low.

TABLE - VIII

**School-Related Factors Affecting Girls' Participation in Basic Education as Perceived
by Parents, Girls Out Of-School and Teachers**

Item No.	Factors	Parents		Girls Out-Of-School		Teachers		F.Ratio
		Mean	SD.	Mean	S.D	Mean	SD	
1.	Distance from home to school	2.42	0.85	3.42	0.78	2.74	0.83	19.1574*
2.	The school's schedule	3.23	0.59	3.96	0.60	4.02	0.89	18.6160*
3.	Lack of water	2.25	0.64	2.14	0.70	2.76	1.03	7.7343*
4.	Lack of separate toilet for girls	3.00	1.13	3.06	1.28	2.60	1.08	1.8395
5.	Lack of desks	2.48	0.79	2.30	0.65	3.09	1.01	11.5298*
6.	Lack of enough space	2.44	0.71	2.32	0.79	2.88	0.97	5.7307*
7.	Shortage of books	2.04	0.71	2.16	0.71	3.57	0.70	63.4294*
8.	Shortage of qualified and experienced teachers	2.06	0.76	2.10	0.58	2.81	0.94	13.4026*
9.	School-community relationship	2.58	0.74	3.36	0.80	2.83	0.76	13.0214*

(* significant at an alpha level (<0.05), and D.F between groups = 1 and within groups = 138)

As it can be seen from Table VIII, out of the nine major school-related factors affecting girls' participation, the one way ANOVA result shows that the overall differences among the mean scores of the study groups are statistically significant at an alpha level less than 0.05 for eight of these factors. The only exception was found to be item number 4. In order to identify which groups of respondents contributed more to this difference, pair wise comparison was necessary. Thus, Tukey-HSD procedure was used (see Appendix - 3).

The result of the comparison indicated significant mean differences between group 2 i.e., girls out-of-school (mean = 3.4200), and group 3, teachers (mean = 2.7381) and group 1, parents (mean = 2.4167) for item number 1.

This implies that both teachers and parents did not consider distance from home to school as a major factor, while only girls out-of-school considered it as a major impediment.

Regarding the school's schedule (item number 2), the comparison result indicated the significant mean differences between group 3: teachers (mean = 4.0238) and group 2: girls out-of-school (mean = 3.9600), and group 1: parents (mean = 3.2292). This further shows that teachers and girls out-of-school highly rated the schools' schedule to be a major barrier for girls' participation, while parents rated less than the two groups but still above average. Therefore, it is safe to say that the school's schedule was one of the major school related factors to affect girls' participation in basic education in the rural areas.

The comparison result for item number 3 shows the significant mean differences between group 3 (mean = 2.7619), and group 1 (mean = 2.500) and group 2 (mean = 2.1400). This means teachers have rated lack of water as a major obstacle higher than the two groups. Yet, since the mean results of the three groups show below average, lack of water was not considered as a major factor to affect girls' participation in lower primary schools. In the case of item number 4, the one way ANOVA result shows no significant mean differences between the three groups although two of these groups have rated it slightly greater than average.

The multiple comparison result for item number 5 shows the significant mean differences between group 3 (mean = 3.0952), and group 1 (mean = 2.4792) and group 2 (mean = 2.3000). This further indicates that teachers considered shortage of desks as a major factor and rated it slightly above average, while the two groups (girls out-of-school and parents) did not. Since the majority of the respondents rated it below average, shortage of desks was not found to be a major barrier to affect girls' participation. Similarly the multiple comparison result for item number 6 shows the significant mean differences between group 3 (mean = 2.8810), and the remaining groups: group 1 (mean = 2.4375) and group 2 (mean = 2.3200). The results indicate that teachers have rated lack of enough space higher than the other two groups. Since all the groups rated it below average, lack of enough space was not found to be a major barrier to affect girls' participation in basic education in rural areas.

As it can be seen from the comparison result (see Appendix - 3) for item number 7, there is a significant mean difference between group 3 (mean = 3.5 714), and the remaining groups: group 2(mean = 2.1600) and group 1 (mean = 2.0417). This means teachers have rated shortage of books higher than the other two groups which is above average, while the remaining groups rated shortage of books less than teachers and below the mean average. Similarly, the comparison result for item number 8 shows the mean differences between group 3(mean = 2.8095), and the rest groups: group 2 (mean = 2.1 00) and group 1 (mean = 2.0625). This shows that teachers rated shortage of qualified and experienced teachers greater than the other two groups. However, since the mean results of all groups were less than average, it is possible to say that shortage of qualified and experienced teachers was not a major factor to affect girls' participation.

As the one way ANOVA result for item number 9 in Table VIII shows, there was a significant mean difference between the groups. The Tukey - HSD comparison test (see Appendix - 3) further indicates the significant mean differences between group 2(mean = 3.600), and the other two groups: group 3 (mean = 2.8333) and group 1 (mean = 2.5833). The result indicates that girls out-of-school rated the item higher than the remaining two groups to show that the weak school - community relationship was the major factor to affect girls' participation in lower primary schools. As the mean results of the majority of the groups show, the school-community relationship was not found to be a major factor for the low participation of girls.

TABLE IX

Zonal Dichotomy of School Related-Factors Affecting Girls' Participation

Item No.	Factors	Illubabor		West Hararghe		Total		F.Ratio
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
1.	Distance from home to school	3.02	0.81	2.74	0.99	2.87	0.92	3.0922
2.	The school's schedule	3.64	0.76	3.81	0.81	3.73	0.79	1.7313
3.	Lack of water	2.20	0.77	2.51	0.86	2.36	0.83	5.1911*
4.	Lack of separate toilet for girls	1.89	0.59	3.81	0.77	2.91	1.18	269.62*
5.	Lack of desks	2.42	0.88	2.76	0.86	2.60	0.88	5.1309*
6.	Lack of enough space	2.38	0.78	2.66	0.89	2.52	0.85	3.9414*
7.	Shortage of books	2.39	0.99	2.67	0.95	2.54	0.98	2.9401
8.	Shortage of qualified and experienced teachers	2.09	0.67	2.49	0.91	2.30	0.83	8.38*
9.	School-community relationship	2.80	0.89	3.05	0.76	2.93	0.83	3.2196

(*Significant at an alpha level <0.05 and DF between groups 1 and within groups = 138).

Table IX shows the overall differences among the mean scores of the study sites which are statistically significant at alpha level (<0.05) for item numbers 3, 4, 5, 6 and 8. Since there are only two study areas (groups) to be compared, there was no need to make Tukey-HSD multiple comparison test, for it is easy to detect the differences by looking at the mean results only.

As it can be seen from Table IX, distance from home to school was rated slightly above average in Christian area (Illubabor), while it was rated below average in Muslim area (Western Hararghe), although the analysis of variance shows no significant differences in the means of the two groups. On the other hand, the school schedule was highly rated in both areas. Again, the results of the analysis of variance show no significant differences in their means. This shows the similarity of the mean values of the two study sites. Therefore, as it can be seen from Tables VIII and IX, the school schedule was found to be the major school-related factor affecting girls' participation in lower primary grades in the rural areas. The one

way ANOVA result for item number 3 shows the significant mean differences for both sites. As it can be seen from Table IX, lack of water was rated in Western Hararghe (mean = 2.51) and less rated in Illubabor (mean=2.20). Despite the significant mean differences that existed between the two areas, the mean values of the two sites show below average. Therefore, lack of water was not considered as a major school related problem to affect girls' participation in both areas.

The analysis of variance for item number 4 shows the significant mean differences between the two areas. As seen from Table IX, the significant mean difference was observed in Muslim area: Western Hararghe (mean =3.81) and Christian area: Illubabor (mean = 1.89). This shows that lack of separate toilet for girls was highly rated in Muslim areas, whereas it was rated low in Christian areas. The result further tells us that lack of separate toilet for girls was found to be the major school-related barrier to hinder the participation of girls in rural lower primary schools in Muslim areas than schools found in the Christian areas. This could be due to cultural influences that parents in Muslim areas are reluctant to send their daughters to schools where girls share common lavatories with boys.

The results of the analysis of variance for item numbers 5,6, and 8 show significant mean differences between the two areas under study. Yet, for all of the items (as it can be seen from Table IX) the mean values were below average. This shows that shortage of desks, shortage of enough space and books, and shortage of qualified and experienced teachers were not the major impediments to promote girls' participation in rural primary schools in general. In the case of item number 9, although the result of the analysis of variance shows no significant difference, the mean value (3.05) in Western Hararghe was rated slightly above average rather than in Illubabor (mean = 2.80). This shows that weak school community relationship was found to be one of the major school-related problems to affect girls' participation more in Muslim areas than in Christian areas.

In general, as the results from Tables VIII and IX indicate, the school schedule was found to be a common major school related problem affecting girls participation in the rural areas. Moreover, lack of separate toilet for girls and weak school-community relationships were found to be major problems of girls found in the Muslim areas. On the other hand, distance from home to school was found to be a problem affecting girls' participation in Christian areas. This might be due to uneven distribution of the rural settlers in Illubabor when compared with Western Hararghe where there is relatively higher population density in the rural areas. In sparsely populated areas like Illubabor, it is difficult to provide social services such as schools at reasonable distances. Furthermore, UNESCO (1996) indicated that the lower the population density or the higher the minimum size of school, the greater the distance will be. The remaining factors: lack of water, lack of desks, lack of enough space, shortage of books and shortage of qualified and experienced teachers were not identified as major school-related barriers affecting girls' participation in primary schools. The majority of these findings are against what Tadesse (1974) has identified as school-related barriers. This indicates that some improvements have been made in the provision of primary schools in the rural areas since then.

TABLE - X

Socio-Economic Factors Affecting Girls' Participation in Basic Education as Perceived by Parents, Girls Out-Of-School and Teachers

Item No.	Factors	Parents		Girls Out-Of-School		Teachers		F.Ratio
		Mean	SD.	Mean	S.D	Mean	SD	
1.	Poor family background	3.31	0.85	3.52	0.97	3.21	0.98	1.3024
2.	Parents' lack of education	3.25	0.89	2.80	0.78	3.59	0.66	11.8088*
3.	to work for the household	3.65	0.69	4.02	0.59	3.45	0.63	9.4452*
4.	to work on the farm	3.58	0.65	3.48	0.68	3.31	0.89	1.5488
5.	to earn money	3.79	0.71	3.60	0.78	3.40	0.54	3.4824*

(*Significant at an alpha level (0.05), and DF between groups = 1 and within groups = 138)

The above results from Table X indicate that the overall differences among the mean scores of the study groups are statistically significant at an alpha level (<0.05) for item numbers 2,3 and 5. In order to find which group means contributed to this difference, Tukey-HSD procedure was employed (see Appendix - 3).

As the Appendix indicates, the mean differences were observed between group 3 (mean = 3.5952) and group 1 (mean = 3.2500), and group 2 (mean = 2.800) for item number 2. This shows that teachers and parents rated parents' education higher and above average than girls out-of-school who rated it below average. Since the two groups have rated it above average, parents' lack of education was considered as a major socio-economic factor to affect girls participation in primary schools. Similarly, the mean scores of the study groups for items number 3 and 5 are statistically significant at an alpha level (<0.05). In order to identify the groups contributed to the mean differences, Tukey-HSD method was employed (see Appendix- 3). The results indicate the mean differences between group 2 (mean = 4.0200), and the remaining groups: group 1 (mean = 3.6458) and group 3 (mean = 3.4524) for item number 3. This shows that girls out-of-school have highly rated working for the household than parents and teachers, who rated above average. Since no one group has rated it below average, working for the household was considered as a major socio-economic obstacle to promote girls' participation in the rural areas. The mean differences between group 1 (mean = 3.79197), and the remaining groups: group 2 (mean = 3.6000) and group 3 (mean = 3.4048) was observed for item number 5 (see Appendix - 3). This further indicates that parents rated working in the farm as a major socio-economic factor affecting girls' participation higher than girls' out of school and teachers. However, as the mean results of the three groups show, working in the field was rated above average indicating that it is a major socio-economic obstacle to hinder girls' participation in rural primary schools.

The results of the analysis of variance for items number 1 and 4 show no significant differences between the means of the groups. This tells us the uniformity of the mean values

of the groups. The mean values of the groups further show that none of them have rated both items below average as can be seen from Table X. This confirms that poor family background and the need to earn money were the major socio-economic barriers to promote girls' participation in primary schools.

**TABLE XI -
Zonal Dichotomy of Socio-Economic Factors Affecting Girls' Participation**

Item No.	Factors	Illubabor		West Hararghe		Total		F.Ratio
		Mean	SD.	Mean	S.D	Mean	SD	
1.	Poor family background	3.34	0.89	3.32	0.98	3.36	0.94	0.1913
2.	Parents' lack of education	3.19	0.86	3.18	0.84	3.19	0.85	0.029
3.	to work for the household	3.85	0.75	3.61	0.59	3.72	0.68	4.4780*
4.	to work on the farm	3.50	0.59	3.43	0.86	3.46	0.74	0.2867
5.	to earn money	3.42	0.70	3.77	0.67	3.61	0.71	8.8389*

(* Significant at alpha level <0.05 and DF between groups 1 and within groups = 138)

As it can be seen from Table XI, the overall differences among the mean scores of the study areas are statistically significant at an alpha level (<0.05) for item numbers 3 and 5. The mean results of the two areas for item number 3 (to work for the household) show that it was rated higher (mean = 3.85) in Illubabor than in Western Hararghe (mean = 3.61), whereas item number 5 (to earn money) was rated higher in Western Hararghe (mean = 3.77) than in Illubabor (mean= 3.42). There was no significant mean difference observed for the rest of the items showing that these socio-economic factors were rated similarly in both areas under study. Moreover, the mean values of all the socio-economic factors show above average indicating that these variables are the major impediments for girls' participation in primary schools.

Thus, Tables X and XI indicate that the socio-economic factors: poor family background, parents' lack of education, and child labour (to work to the household, to work on the farm, and to earn money) were the major barriers for girls' participation in primary schools in the rural areas. Furthermore, it is found out that no difference was observed regarding the socio-economic factors between the Christian and Muslim areas under study. These findings have similarities with the conclusions reached by Evans 1981, Gtewwel 1988, and Dall 1989 which state that economic problems of parents were found to be the major reasons for a lot of children not to go to school in India, Nepal and Mali. Moreover, the above findings are similar to the findings of Tadesse (1974).

TABLE - XII

Socio-Cultural Factors Affecting Girls' Participation in Basic Education as Perceived by Parents, Girls Out-Of-School and Teachers

Item No.	Factors	Parents		Girls out-of-School		Teachers		F.Ratio
		Mean	SD.	Mean	S.D	Mean	SD	
1.	Early marriage	3.46	0.89	3.64	1.06	3.95	0.85	3.0791*
2.	Early Pregnancy	3.48	0.79	3.32	0.91	3.14	0.84	1.7355
3.	Fear of sexual harassment, abduction or rape	3.13	0.98	3.00	1.26	3.00	0.88	0.2175
4.	The traditional female role is too strong	2.73	0.79	3.38	0.88	3.19	0.74	8.2936*
5.	Boys gain preference in parental decision	2.91	0.80	3.18	0.87	3.26	0.66	2.3953
6.	Religious factors favour the education of boys	2.94	0.87	2.68	0.89	3.12	0.94	2.7774
7.	Fathers are not keen on girls' education	2.73	0.74	3.04	0.75	3.24	0.73	5.4555*
8.	Mothers are not keen on girls' education	3.10	0.74	2.92	0.83	3.36	0.73	3.4883*
9.	Girls motivation and expectation is low or lack of interest in education	4.00	0.62	3.74	0.85	3.38	0.58	8.7353*
10	Low status of women in development activities	3.89	0.63	3.70	0.74	3.33	0.57	8.4935*

(* Significant at an alpha level (<0.05), and DF. Between groups = 1 and within groups = 138)

The above results indicate that the overall differences among the mean scores of the study groups are statistically significant at an alpha level < 0.05 for item numbers 1, 4, 7, 8, 9 and 10. In order to identify the groups which contributed more to this differences, Tukey-HSD procedure was used (see Appendix - 3).

As can be seen in the Appendix, the comparison indicated significant mean differences between group 3 (mean = 3.9524), and the others: group 2 (mean = 3.6400) and group 1 (mean = 3.4583) for item number 1. This shows that early marriage was highly rated by teachers than girls out-of-school and parents. All the three groups of respondents, however, rated early marriage above average to show that it is a major socio-cultural factor affecting girls' participation. In the case of items 4 and 7, significant mean differences were observed between group 2 (mean = 3.800) groups 3 (mean = 3.1905), and group 1 (mean = 2.7292) for item number 4. This further shows that girls out-of-school and teachers rated the traditional female role to be too strong as higher and above average; parents on the other hand rated it below average. A significant mean difference was also seen between group 3 (mean = 3.2381), group 2 (mean = 3.0400) and group 1 (mean = 2.7292) for item number 7. This further indicates that teachers rated higher than girls out-of-school and parents to show that fathers are not keen on girls' education. This implies that teachers are more aware that girls are not given equal educational opportunities by their fathers.

Significant mean differences were also shown for item number 8. According to the multiple comparison result (see Appendix - 3) a significant mean difference was observed between group 3 (mean = 3.3571), and others: group 1 (mean = 3.1042) and group 2 (mean = 2.9200) to show that teachers have rated higher than the remaining two groups and considered that mothers are not keen to their daughters' education. In the case of items 9 and 10, significant mean differences were observed between group 1 (mean = 4.000) and group 2 (mean = 3.7400), and group 3 (mean = 3.3810) for item number 9. In all the cases, the mean values are above average to show that girls' motivation and expectation is low or lack of interest in education was the major socio-cultural factor affecting girls' participation. The multiple comparison result for item number 10 also shows significant mean differences between groups 1 (mean = 3.8958) and group 2 (mean = 3.7000), and group 3 (mean = 3.3300). This further tells us that parents and girls out-of-school rated the item higher than teachers and considered low status of women in development activities to be limited as a major socio-

cultural factor affecting girls' participation. The mean results of the three groups further show above average indicating the low participation of women in development activities to affect girls' participation in primary schools.

TABLE - XIII

Zonal Dichotomy of Socio-Cultural Factors Affecting Girls' Participation

Item No.	Factors	Illubabor		West Haraghe		Total		F-Ratio
		Mean	SD.	Mean	S.D	Mean	SD	
1.	Early marriage	2.98	0.83	4.28	0.56	3.67	0.96	115.9969*
2.	Early pregnancy	2.76	0.72	3.82	0.63	3.32	0.86	87.1831*
3.	Fear of sexual harassment, abduction or rape	2.24	0.82	3.76	0.66	3.04	1.06	145.7564*
4.	The traditional female role is too strong	2.55	0.68	3.59	0.66	3.10	0.85	85.1909*
5.	Boys gain preference in parental decision	2.68	0.66	3.51	0.71	3.11	0.79	50.0631*
6.	Religious factors favour the education of boys	2.23	0.60	3.51	0.69	2.89	0.91	134.4299*
7.	Fathers are not keen on girls education	2.72	0.69	3.23	0.75	2.99	0.76	16.8374*
8.	Mothers are not keen on girls education	2.82	0.76	3.38	0.75	3.11	0.81	19.0701*
9.	Girls motivation and expectation is low or lack of interest in education	3.65	0.83	3.78	0.65	3.72	0.74	1.1152
10	Low status of women in development activities	3.52	0.75	3.78	0.60	3.66	0.69	5.5122*

(*Significant at an alpha level less than 0.05, and D.F. between groups = 1 and within groups = 137)

Table XIII shows significant mean differences for nine of the items out of ten. The only item where no significant mean difference was seen was item number 9. If one considers the mean differences of the two groups, all items are highly rated in Western Hararghe than in

Illubabor. Items 1 to 8 are rated highly and above average in Western Hararghe, while these items are all rated below average in Illubabor. This further shows that the socio-cultural factors are the major impediments to promote girls' participation in primary schools in Muslim areas than in Christian areas. The last two items (girls' motivation and expectation or lack of interest in education, and low status of women in development activities) are highly rated in both areas. This shows that these two variables are common socio-cultural factors affecting girls' participation in the rural areas.

Therefore, as Tables XII and XIII show, the majority of the socio-cultural factors are found to be the major barriers to promote girls' participation in Muslim rural primary schools than in Christian areas. Furthermore, girls motivation and expectation or lack of interest in education, and low status of women in development activities were found to be the major socio-cultural obstacles to promote girls' participation in primary schools in both areas. This could be due to the unwillingness of Muslim parents to send their daughters to schools. This may also emanate from the fact that parents and children in the rural areas view the benefits of education from the possibility of getting job opportunities after completing their schooling. Hence, lack of job opportunities and less chances provided to women to participate in development activities in the rural areas may hinder girls' participation in education and leads them to develop less interest or negative attitude towards education.

The above findings prove the research findings in Nigeria and Guinea by Odaga and Heneveld (1995) indicating that religious beliefs were the major barriers to keep girls away from public schools. Furthermore, the findings by Kapakasa (1992) in Malawi indicated that lack of interest in education was the major reason for low participation of girls in schools. Similarly, the findings by Tadesse (1974) in rural schools of Ethiopia proved that socio-cultural factors to be the major barriers to the participation of students in rural areas.

TABLE - XIV-

Political Factors Affecting Girls' Participation in Basic Education as Perceived by Parents, Girls Out-Of-School and Teachers.

Item No.	Factors	Parents		Girls out-of-school		Teachers		F-Ratio
		Mean	SD.	Mean	S.D	Mean	SD	
1.	Limited range of paid occupations open to women is perceived to be limited	3.98	0.67	3.78	0.74	3.21	0.61	15.2082*
2.	Government policy discourages female participation in education	1.51	0.55	1.68	0.51	1.38	0.54	3.6358*
3.	Lack of upper primary and secondary schools	4.10	0.66	4.18	0.59	3.57	0.50	13.8591*
4.	Low participation of local administrators to encourage girls' participation in education	3.85	0.64	3.90	0.65	3.26	0.66	12.6544*

(* = Significant at an alpha level < 0.05 and D.F = between groups = 2 and within groups = 137)

As it can be seen from Table XIV, out of the four major political factors assumed to affect girls' participation, the one way ANOVA result shows that the overall differences among the mean scores of the study groups are statistically significant at an alpha level less than 0.05 for all of them. In order to identify which groups of respondents contributed more to this difference, Tukey-HSD method of pair-wise comparison was carried out.

The result of the comparison shows (see Appendix - 3), significant mean differences between group 1 (mean = 3.9792), group 2 (mean = 3.7800), and group 3 (mean = 3.2143) for item number 1.

This implies that both parents and girls out-of-school rated item 1 higher than teachers and resulted in mean differences between the three groups. As the mean results of the three groups indicate, all of them rated limited range of paid occupations open to women perceived

to be limited above average. The result further tells us that it was one of the major political factors to hinder the participation of girls in primary schools.

The result of Tukey-HSD multiple comparison (see Appendix - 3) for item number 2 indicates significant mean differences between group 2 (mean = 1.6800), and the remaining groups: group 1 (mean = 1.5208) and group 3 (mean = 1.3810). This means girls out-of-school have rated government policy discourages female participation in education higher than the remaining two groups and this has contributed to the overall mean differences. Yet, since the mean scores of all groups is below average, it is possible to say that government policy was not perceived as a major political factor to hinder the participation of girls.

The comparison result for item number 3 indicates (see Appendix - 3) significant mean differences between group 2 (mean = 4.1800), group 1 (mean = 4.1042), and group 3 (mean = 3.5714). According to the results, girls out-of-school and parents rated lack of upper primary and secondary schools higher than teachers and it was the main reason for the significant mean differences between the three groups. Since the mean results of all groups are greater than mean averages, lack of upper primary and secondary schools was found to be the major political factor to affect girls' participation in primary schools in the rural areas.

In the case of item number 4, significant mean differences were observed (see Appendix - 3) between group 2 (mean = 3.900), group 1 (mean = 3.8542), and group 3 (mean = 3.2619). This shows that girls out-of-school and parents rated the item higher than teachers which contributed to the mean differences between the three groups. As the mean results of the three groups show, low participation of local administrators to encourage girls' participation in education was found to be one of the political factors affecting girls' participation in rural primary schools.

TABLE -XV

Zonal Dichotomy of Political Factors Affecting Girls' Participation in Basic Education.

Item No.	Factors	Illubabor		West Haraghe		Total		F-Ratio
		Mean	SD.	Mean	S.D	Mean	SD	
1.	Limited range of paid occupations open to women is perceived to be limited	3.68	0.74	3.68	0.74	3.68	0.74	0.024
2.	Government policy discourages female participation in education	1.55	0.56	1.53	0.53	1.54	0.29	0.0401
3.	Lack of upper primary and secondary schools	4.05	0.69	3.91	0.60	3.97	0.65	1.6507
4.	Low participation of local administrators to encourage girls' participation in education	3.61	0.72	3.77	0.71	3.69	0.72	1.83

(* = Significant at alpha level <0.05 and D.F; between groups 1 and within groups = 138).

As Table XV shows, there was no significant mean difference between the two study areas for all of the items. This means all respondents of the two areas have similar views of the political factors and rated them accordingly. The mean results of the items further indicate that three of these factors are rated above average, while item number 2 (government policy discourages female participation in education) was rated very low. This is to show that government policy does not discourage females' participation in education. The remaining three factors were considered as major political factors affecting girls' participation in rural primary schools.

Tables XIV and XV thus indicate that limited range of paid occupations open to women is perceived to be limited; lack of upper primary and secondary schools which is similar to the findings of Lavy (1992) in rural Ghana, and low participation of local administrators to encourage girls' participation in education were found to be the major

political barriers to promote girls' participation in both Christian and Muslim areas of the region. On the other hand, government policy was perceived by the respondents to encourage girls' participation in primary schools.

TABLE XVI

Perception of Girls In-School towards Their Classroom Participation and Performances (N=70).

Items	Boys		Girls		Both		Don't know	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Who performs better in class exams?	34	48.57	14	20	18	25.71	4	5.72
Who ask questions in class?	36	51.43	1	1.43	32	45.71	1	1.43
Who goes to secondary school?	33	47.14	4	5.72	28	40	5	7.14
For whom is it important to attend school?	1	1.43	-	-	69	98.57	-	-
Who helps the family most?	1	1.43	39	55.71	30	42.86	-	-

As it can be seen from Table XVI above, the majority of the respondents, i.e., 34(48.57%) indicated that boys perform better than girls and only 18(25.71%) said both girls and boys perform better. On the other hand, the majority i.e., 36(51.43%) of them reported that boys ask questions in class, and only 32 (45.71%) felt that both ask questions. Similarly, the majority i.e., 33 (47.14%) chose boys to go to secondary school, while only 28(40%) reported both to go to secondary schools. Yet, nearly all respondents- 69 (97.57%) recognized the importance of schooling for both boys and girls. Moreover, the majority i.e., 39(55.71%) agreed that girls help their family more than boys, and only 30(42.86%) said both help their family.

Thus, from the above discussions it is possible to conclude that girls in-school have negative perception towards their performances and classroom participation. This may have

emanated from the traditional (cultural) views that girls are inferior to boys in their performances in schools.

TABLE XVII

Girls Perception of the Involvement of Their Parents to Solve Their Academic Problems at Home (N = 70).

Items	Yes		No		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Does someone at home usually ask you about your school day?	60	85.7	10	14.3	70	100
Does someone at home sometimes help you with your homework?	24	34.3	46	65.7	70	100
Does someone at home usually talk to your teacher?	11	15.7	59	84.3	70	100
Does someone at home usually look at your exercise book?	22	31.4	48	68.6	70	100

As Table XVII above indicates, the majority i.e, 60 (85.7%) of the respondents replied that their parents ask them about their school day, while only 10(14.3%) said no. The majority, 46(65.7%) showed that nobody helps them with their homework, and 59 (84.3%) further indicated that no one talks to their teachers about the academic difficulties they face in schools. Furthermore, 48 (68.6%) of the girls replied that nobody looks at their exercise books at home. From these responses, it is possible to say that although parents in the rural areas are willing to know about their daughters' school days, they couldn't help them to solve the academic difficulties they face in schools. This might be because the majority of the rural population are illiterate or at least less educated than their daughters. Moreover, these problems coupled with the burden of duties girls assume both in and outside home could be the reasons for low performance of girls in rural schools and may lead to early dropouts caused by repeating grades..

TABLE XVIII

A Chi-Square Result of Children's Family Background Characteristics and Academic Status

Family Characteristic		Boys' Educ.			Girls' Educ		
		DF	X ²	C	DF	X ²	C
Fathers' Education		2	98.88*	0.39	2	21.02*	0.198
Mothers' Education		2	17.337*	0.49	2	73.47*	0.35
Parents' Income	Rich	2	113.43*	0.60	2	11.12*	0.29
	Average	2	1.71	0.14	2	3.17*	0.19
	Poor	2	24.6*	0.54	2	8.17*	0.24
Family Size	< 5 people	2	8.95*	0.23	2	15.38*	0.31
	> 5 people	2	26.31*	0.44	2	6.27*	0.17

(* = Significant at an alpha level less than 0.05)

A chi-square result from Table XVIII above shows a significant association between parents' socio economic backgrounds and children's education for almost all variables except for association between average parents' income and boys' education at an alpha level less than 0.05. In order to compare the strength of these associations between the variables, a contingency coefficient (c) was calculated as it was recommended by Clark and Hosking (1986: 265). These writers indicated four ways of measuring the strength of associations although they are some what arbitrary. As it can be seen from Table XVIII, the association between fathers' education and boys' education (c = 0.39) is stronger than the association between fathers' education and girls' education (c=0.198). Similarly, the association of mothers' education is stronger with boys' education (c = 0.49) than with girls' education (c = 0.35), but the association is better than that of fathers' education in both cases. Thus from these figures it is possible to say that parents' education has stronger associations with boys' education than girls' education. This further implies that parents in the rural areas favor the

education of boys than girls. Yet, mothers' education has stronger association with children's education than fathers' education. This leads to the conclusion that the education of girls who will be mothers in future must be encouraged so as to promote the participation of children in rural primary schools.

The calculated contingency coefficient (c) from Table XVIII further shows that the association between parents' income, i.e., rich ($c=0.6$) for boys is stronger than that of girls ($c = 0.29$). This means the better the family income, the greater will be the chance for boys to go to school than girls; but at the same time, the calculated coefficient (c) in the case of girls for the remaining family incomes ($c = 0.19, c = 0.24$) for average and poor family backgrounds respectively, the association is stronger for girls from rich families. This shows that girls from better off families have better chance to go to school than the rest.

As seen in the Table, the association between the family size, i.e., those less than 5 people, the association with boys education ($c=0.23$) is less than the association with girls education ($c = 0.31$). This means the lesser the family size the greater will be the chance for girls to go to school. On the other hand, the calculated ($c= 0.44$) for boys is greater than that of girls ($c = 0.17$) for families with greater than 5 people. This shows that the larger the family size the better the chance for boys to go to school than girls. This is may be, as discussed above, due to the fact that parents in the rural areas favor the education of boys than girls and as the size of the family increases, parents may not be able to afford to send all of their children to school because of direct and indirect costs. As a result, when choices have to be made among children to go to schools, girls are at the disadvantage position than boys. Hence, the economic problems of parents coupled with the high demand for girls' labour could hinder girls' participation in the rural primary schools.

4.2. A Chi-Square Result of the Major Activities Performed by Girls In-School and Out Of-School

As Appendix 4 indicates, out of the nine major activities performed by both group of girls, a chi-square result shows significant similarities for seven of these activities at an alpha level less than 0.05 between the two groups of girls. The only exceptions are activity number 2 and 9, where no significant similarities are observed. When each of these activities is separately examined, the majority of the respondents, 35(50%) of girls in school and 37(74%) of girls out of school replied that they help activity 1(work in the field with crops) sometimes, while the majority i.e, 55(78.6%) of girls in school and 44 (88%) of girls out of school indicated activity 2(fetching water) as an activity performed everyday. Regarding activity 3(fire wood collection), the majority i.e, 40(80%) of girls out-of-school indicated that they perform it everyday, while 56(80%) of girls in-school said they sometimes involve in fire wood collection. At the same time, for activity 4(look after little brothers and sisters), most of the girls out of school, i.e, 29 (58%) showed it as an everyday duty, while 43 (61.4%) of girls in school said they sometimes help their parents in looking after the young siblings at home.

Appendix 4 further shows that the majority - 32(45.7%) of girls in-school, and 43(86%) of girls out-of-school indicated activity 5(preparing food) as their every day activity, while the majority- 63 (90%) of girls in-school and 35(70%) of girls out-of-school replied that activity 6(shopping) is the activity that they sometimes perform. On the other hand, 46(65.7%) of girls in school and 36(72 %) of girls out of school replied activity 7(washing) as their sometimes duty. Furthermore, 24(48%) of girls out-of-school are engaged in activity 8 (grinding) everyday, while 45(64.3%) of girls in-school sometimes help in grinding at home. In the case of activity 9 (looking after cattle), the majority- 38(54.3%) of girls-in school and 30(60%) of girls out-of-school replied that they never participate. This does not mean that girls do not participate in looking after cattle in the rural areas. It could be because most of these girls are from poor family backgrounds with very small number of cattle and thus the demand for their labour in this area may be very less.

Thus, as the above findings indicate, both group of girls actively participate in almost all of the activities both in and out of home to help their parents. This shows that girls labour is very important for the survival of the rural population. It further implies that the opportunity cost to send girls to schools is very high and hinders their participation in the rural areas.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Summary

The main aim of this study was to examine the current status of girls' participation in basic education, identify the major impediments and come up with the major strategies that should be implemented to minimize them in the rural areas of Oromia. To this end, basic questions were raised, addressing areas such as the current status of girls' basic education, the major in-school and out-of-school factors affecting girls' participation, and if there are significant differences between the study sites regarding these factors.

The study was conducted in eight government primary schools and their surroundings selected from Christian and Muslim dominated areas. The subjects of the study were 42 teachers, 48 parents, 70 girls in-school and 50 girls out-of-school. Bits of information were obtained from these sample respondents through survey questionnaires and structured interviews. Moreover, documents from statistical abstracts of Oromia Education Bureau and Ministry of Education, and the 1994 Housing and Population Census were used to examine the participation of girls in rural primary schools for the academic years 1994/95 to 1997/98.

The data obtained were analysed using various statistical tools such as percentages, GER, annual rate of growth, one-way ANOVA and Tukey-HSD tests, and Chi-square tests. Depending on the results of the data analysis, the following major findings were obtained.

1. As revealed by the overall results of the percentages, GER and annual rate of growth of students' enrollments, the participation of girls in the lower primary schools found in the rural areas of Oromia was found to be very small when compared with the participation of girls in urban areas and boys in the rural areas.
2. As the mean values, one-way ANOVA, and Tukey-HSD tests show, the major in-school factors affecting girls' participation in the rural areas as perceived by parents, girls out-of-school and teachers were:
 - a) school schedule was found to be the major obstacle in both areas;

- b) lack of separate toilet for girls, and weak school- community relationships were found to be the major school-related problems in Muslim areas;
 - c) distance from home to school was found to be a major problem in Christian areas.
 - d) the remaining in-school factors: lack of water, lack of desks, lack of enough space, shortage of books and shortage of qualified and experienced teachers were not identified as major problems affecting girls' participation in rural lower primary schools.
- 3) The data analysis results of the mean, the one-way ANOVA, and Tukey-HSD tests further show major out of school factors affecting girls' participation in basic education as perceived by parents, girls out-of-school and teachers:
- a) socio-economic problems such as poor family backgrounds, illiteracy (parents' lack of education), child labor (to work for the household, to work on the farm, and to earn money), were identified as major barriers to affect girls' participation in lower primary grades in both Christian and Muslim areas;
 - b) socio-cultural factors: early marriage and early pregnancy, fear of sexual harassment, abduction or rape, the traditional female role, giving preference to boys' education, religious factors, and lack of parents' interest in their daughters' education were found to be the major barriers to hinder girls' participation in primary schools found in Muslim areas;
- On the other hand, low girls' motivation and expectation from education or lack of interest in education, and low status of women in development activities were identified as common barriers in both areas;
- c) political factors: perception of limited range of paid occupations open to women, lack of upper primary and secondary schools, and low participation of local administrators to encourage girls' participation in education were found to be the major barriers to promote girls' participation in lower primary grades found in both rural areas of Oromia, while government policy was perceived to encourage girls' participation in both study sites.
4. Chi- square results further indicated that the association between parents' education and boys' education was found to be stronger than with that of girls'. Yet, the association of

mothers' education with children's education was found to be stronger than that of their fathers'.

5.2. CONCLUSIONS

Depending on the major findings of the study the following main conclusions were drawn.

As the results of this study revealed, the status of girls' participation in basic education was found to be very low. Furthermore, the participation of girls in basic education in the rural areas of Oromia in most cases is concluded to be a function of out-of-school factors: socio-economic, socio-cultural (especially in Muslim areas) and political factors rather than in school factors.

The participation of girls in education is the result of the interplay between the demand for education and the supply of services that respond to the nature of that demand and to community needs. Supply includes, schools, teacher training and textbooks, while demand is a direct indication of household decisions that are affected by cultural, social and economic factors. Therefore, as the findings of this study show, the major barriers to girls' participation in basic education were found to be out-of-school factors, like socio-cultural and socio-economic (more of the demand side) than in-school or supply of education such as desks, shortage of enough spaces and books, and shortage of qualified and experienced teachers. This further has great implications for policy makers and planners in the region. Thus, it is concluded that policy makers and planners in the Oromia region should pay more attention to increase the demand side of education to improve girls' participation in the rural lower primary schools of the region.

5.3. Recommendations

On the basis of the findings obtained and the conclusions arrived at, the following strategies are forwarded to improve girls' participation in basic education in the rural areas of Oromia.

1. As the findings of this study revealed, the schedules used in the rural schools were found to be the major obstacles to promote girls' participation in the rural areas. Obviously, the timing of the school year in our country does not take into account agricultural cycles, which limit attendance in rural areas. Therefore, revising the current school year to accommodate the seasonal demand for child labour on the farms and in the fields is crucial to increase girls' participation in the rural primary schools. This could be achieved by developing daily schedules that allow girls to attend school and also perform some of their traditional home responsibilities, and developing yearly schedules with vacations scheduled to allow girls to perform seasonal responsibilities. Furthermore, parents should also be consulted to decide on what hours of the day the classes should be conducted. Any changes in schools schedules must be based on the interest of the rural community whose children will be affected. Thus, the Oromia Education Bureau ought to revise the existing academic schedule according to the local labour demand for children in order to increase girls' participation in education in the rural areas of the region.
2. The findings of this study further indicated that lack of upper primary (grades 5-8), and senior secondary schools was the major impediment to promote girls' participation in the rural primary schools. Since all schools in rural areas do not always offer every grade (grades 1-8), the Oromia Education Bureau and the rural community ought to upgrade the existing primary schools so as to create additional places for higher grades and encourage students to continue their education.
3. In the areas where school-community relationship is weak, encouraging community participation can raise parental demand for girls' education. Educational programs are more likely to be successful when there is significant community involvement and participation, particularly from parents at the school level. Parental involvement can build school-community relationships in an ongoing positive way, can help parents understand the work of schools and improve students' participation in schools. Therefore, the Woreda Education Offices and schools in the rural areas ought to make a concerted effort to

strengthen the relationships between schools and the community through parents' and schools' committees so that parents and the rural community increase their support to schools and thereby improve the participation of their children in schools.

1. In the remote areas where parents are illiterate, where backward beliefs and customs prevail, and where girls are not allowed to equally participate with boys, it is necessary to raise the consciousness of the people in order to introduce the concept of gender equality, and the benefits of girls' education and its potential effects on health, nutrition and economic productivity, so as to increase the participation of girls in education. Thus, the Oromia Education Bureau in collaboration with the Regional State officials and administrators at all levels ought to raise the issue of girls' education as an agenda for discussion on different conferences and meetings to be held at different levels starting from the grass root level.
2. Although formal primary schooling is the preferred means of providing basic education, many children in the rural areas live and work in places where schools are not found or do not coincide with the demand for their labour. Hence, in such situations the use of non-formal education is very important for children who work during formal school hours. Therefore, the Oromia Education Bureau, the Zonal Education Departments and Woreda Education Offices ought to use non-formal education to make basic education accessible to rural girls so as to promote girls' participation in basic education.
3. Since this study is a beginning but not an end in the area of girls' education in the rural areas and limited in its scope, further study should be carried out to promote girls' participation in basic education in the rural areas.

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APPENDICES

APP. NO.	Title
1	School Age Children, Gross Enrollment Ratio, and School Age Children Enrolled in Primary Schools (1 A-C).
2	Male VS Female Enrollments in Lower Primary Schools in Urban and Rural Areas (1994/95 - 1997/98)
3	Multiple Range Tests: Tukey-HSD Test With Significance Level 0.050
4	A Chi-Square Result of the Major Activities Performed by Girls in school and out-of-School.
5	Number of Schools, Teachers and Female Students included in the Study (5A-C)
6	A Questionnaire Prepared for Teachers in Primary Schools.
7	A Questionnaire Prepared for Girls in School
8	Structured Interview Prepared for Parents
9	Structured Interview Prepared for Girls Out-of-School

Appendix 1A

School Age children in the Oromia Regional State

Year	Urban Girls	Rural Girls	Rural Boys
1994 (7-14 years)	235,658	1,978,075	2,097,397
1995 (5-14 years)	295,364	2,604,024	2,740,739
1996 (5-14 years)	307,755	2,662,763	2,802,561
1997 (5-14 years)	320,664	2,722,827	2,865,779

(Source: OPHCC, 1994:40, 312-314).

Appendix 1B

Gross Enrollment Ratio (GER) in primary schools (Grades 1-8) for 1994/95 to 1997/1998
Academic years

$$\text{GERp} = \frac{\text{Pupils in Primary Grades}}{\text{School Age Population for Primary}} \times 100$$

Academic Year	Urban Girls	Rural Girls	Rural Boys
1994/95	72.75%	7.96%	20.26%
1995/96	67.36%	7.34%	20.46%
1996/97	73.06 %	8.78%	25.13%
1997/98	64.25%	12.54%	29.81%

Appendix 1C

School Age Children Enrolled in primary schools (grades 1-8) in the Oromia Regional State (1994/95 to 1997/98 Academic years).

Academic Year	Urban Girls	Rural Girls	Rural Boys	Annual Rate of Growth		
				Urban girls	Rural girls	Rural boys
1994/95	171,432	157,465	424,860			
1995/96	198,978	191,122	560,807	16.07%	21.4%	32%
1996/97	224,849	233,740	704,132	13%	22.3%	25.56%
1997/98	205,998	341,504	854,45	-3.8%	46.1%	21.34%

(Source: MOE, 1996: Annual Statistics Booklet

MOE, 1997: Annual Statistics Booklet

Oromia Regional State Education Bureau 1997 Education Statistics

Oromia Education Bureau, Department of statistics

Rate of Growth

$$E_n = E_o (1 + r)^n$$

Where;

E_n = No. of students enrolled in the final year

E_o = No. of students enrolled in the initial year

r = rate of Growth

n = the difference between the final and initial years compared

N.B. The school age children for the years 1995 to 1997 are projections given by OPHCC of the 1994. Since the projections were given in categories than for specific years (the ages 5-14 are arbitrary taken as a school age children for primary grades (1-8). Yet, the exact school age children ought to be 7 years and above.

Appendix 2

Male Vs Female Enrollments in lower primary schools (Basic Education) in both Urban and Rural Schools (Academic years 1994/95 - 1997/98)

A - Urban

Grades 1-6					
Academic Year	Male (No)	%	Female (No.)	%	Total
1994/95	155,595	54.5	129,649	45.5	285,244
1995/96	200,578	56.7	153,390	43.3	353,968
Grades 1 - 4					
Academic Year	Male (No)	%	Female (No.)	%	Total
1996/97	189,163	58.1	136,147	41.9	325,310
1997/98	180,840	58.3	129,438	41.7	310,278

B - Rural

Grades 1-6					
Academic Year	Male (No)	%	Female (No.)	%	Total
1994/95	409,452	73.3	149,512	26.7	558,964
1995/96	545,897	74.8	184,294	25.2	730,191
Grades 1 - 4					
Academic Year	Male (No)	%	Female (No.)	%	Total
1996/97	631,587	75.2	208,628	24.8	840,215
1997/98	740,828	71.5	295,700	28.5	1,036,528

Appendix 3

Multiple Range Tests: Tukey - HSD Test with significance Level 0.050

Group 1 = parents

Group 2 = Girls out-of-School

Group 3 = Teachers

[*] Indicates significant differences which are shown in the lower triangle

1. School Related Variables

1.1. Distance from home to school

	G G G
	r r r
	P P P
	1 3 2
Mean	Community
2. 4167	G r P 1
2. 7381	G r P 3
3. 4200	G r P 2 * *

1 - 2. School's Schedule

	G G G
	r r r
	P P P
	1 2 3
Mean	Community
3.2292	G r P 1
3.9600	G r P 2 *
4.0238	G r P 3 *
1.3	Water
	G G G

	r	r	r
	P	P	P
	2	1	3
Mean	Community		
2.1400	G	r	P 2
2.2500	G	r	P 1
2.7619	G	r	P 3 * *

1.4	Desk		
	G	G	G
	r	r	r
	P	P	P
	2	1	3
Mean	Community		
2.3000	G	r	P 2
2.4792	G	r	P 1
3.0952	G	r	P 3 * *

1.5	Space		
	G	G	G
	r	r	r
	P	P	P
	2	1	3
Mean	Community		
2.3200	G	r	P 2
2.4375	G	r	P 1
2.8810	G	r	P 3 * *

	1.6	Book
		G G G
		r r r
		P P P
		1 2 3
Mean		Community
2.0417		G r P 1
2.1600		G r P 2
3.5714		G r P 3 * *

	1.7	Teacher
		G G G
		r r r
		P P P
		1 2 3
Mean		Community
2.0625		G r P 1
2.1000		G r P 2
2.8095		G r P 3 * *

	1.8	School community Relation
		G G G
		r r r
		P P P
		1 3 2
Mean		Community
2.5833		G r P 1
2.8333		G r P 3
3.3600		G r P 2 * *

2. Socio-Economic Variables

2.1 Illiteracy

G G G
r r r
P P P
2 1 3

Mean Community

2.800 G r P 2

3.2500 G r P 1 *

3.5952 G r P 3 *

2.2 to work for the household

G G G
r r r
P P P
3 1 2

Mean Community

3.4524 G r P 3

3.6458 G r P 1

4.0200 G r P 2 **

2.3 To earn money

G G G
r r r
P P P
3 2 1

Mean Community

3.4048 G r P 3

3.6000 G r P 2

3.7917 G r P 1 *

3. Socio-Cultural Variables

3.1 Early Marriage

G G G
r r r
P P P
1 2 3*

Mean Community

3.4583 G r P 1

3.6400 G r P 2

3.9524 G r P 3

3.2 The traditional female role in too strong

G G G
r r r
P P P
1 3 2

Mean Community

2.7292 G r P 1

3.1905 G r P 3*

3.3800 G r P 2*

3.3 Fathers' are not keen on girls' education

G G G
r r r
P P P
1 2 3

Mean Community

2.7292 G r P 1

3.0400 G r P 2

3.2381 G r P 3*

3.4 Mothers are not keen girls' Education

G G G

r r r

P P P

2 1 3

Mean Community

2.9200 G r P 2

3.1042 G r P 1

3.3571 G r P 3*

3.5 Girls Motivation and Expectation is low

G G G

r r r

P P P

3 2 1

Mean Community

3.3810 G r P 3

3.7400 G r P 2*

4.0000 G r P 1*

3.6 Low Status of Women in development activities

G G G

r r r

P P P

3 2 1

Mean Community

3.3333 G r P 3

3.7000 G r P 2.*

3.8958 G r P 1*

4. Political Variables

4.1	The range of paid occupations open to women is perceived to be limited
	G G G
	r r r
	P P P
	3 2 1
Mean	Community
3.2143	G r P 3
3.7800	G r P 2 *
3.9792	G r P 1 *
4.2	Government Policy discourages female participation in Education
	G G G
	r r r
	P P P
	3 1 2
Mean	Community
1.3810	G r P 3
1.5208	G r P 1 *
1.6800	G r P 2 *
4.3	Lack of upper primary grades and secondary schools
	G G G
	r r r
	P P P
	3 1 2
Mean	Community
3.5714	G r P 3
4.1042	G r P 1

4.1800 G r P 2 *

4.4 Low participation of local administrators

G G G

r r r

P P P

3 1 2

Mean Community

3.2619 G r P 3

3.8542 G r P 1 *

3.9000 G r P 2 *

Appendix 4 A Chi Square Result of the Major Activities performed by Girls in School and out of School

No.	Activities	Every day				Sometimes				Never				DF	X2
		Girls in School		Girls out of school		Girls in School		Girls out of school		Girls in School		Girls out of school			
		Obs.	Exp.	Obs.	Exp.	Obs.	Exp.	Obs.	Exp.	Obs.	Exp.	Obs.	Exp.		
1	Work in the field with crops	12	12.83	10	9.17	35	42	37	30	23	15.17	3	10.83	2	12.*629
2	Fetch Water	55	57.75	44	41.25	10	7.55	3	5.42	5	4.67	3	3.33	2	2.216
3	Firewood collection	8	28	40	20	56	35.58	5	25.42	6	6.42	5	4.58	2	62.*476
4	Look after little brothers and sisters	22	29.75	29	21.25	43	32.08	12	22.92	5	8.17	9	5.83	2	16*.72
5	Prepare food	32	43.75	43	31.25	30	19.25	3	13.75	8	7	4	5	2	22*.326
6	Shopping or going to market	4	9.33	12	6.67	63	57.17	35	40.83	3	3.5	3	2.5	2	8*.902
7	Washing	21	18.08	10	12.92	46	47.83	36	34.17	3	7	4	5	2	4*.415
8	Grinding	11	20.42	24	14.58	45	37.92	20	27.08	14	11.67	6	8.33	2	14.*722
9	Look after cattles	11	8.17	3	5.83	21	22.17	17	15.83	38	39.67	30	28.33	2	2.671

(* = significant at an alpha level less than 0.05)

Appendix -5

Number of Schools, Teachers and Female Students included in the study

A. Number of Schools

Woreda	Total No. of rural primary schools	No. of sample schools	%
Chiro	37	4	10.8
Metu	32	4	12.5
Total	69	8	11.6

B. Number of Teachers for 1997/98 Academic Year

Name of the School	Year founded	Zone	Male	Female	Male	Female
Anger and Dukur pr.sc.	1938 E.C	ILL.	9	4	3	2
Tulube Primery Sch	1957 E.C	“	14	4	4	2
Sardo “ “	1971 E.C	“	7	4	2	2
Kolode “ “	1980 E.C	“	5	1	2	1
Arbarakate “ “	1971 E.C	W/H	10	10	3	5
Fugnan Dimo Pr. Sch	1969 E.C	“	5	3	2	2
Kuni “ “	1964 E.C	“	22	11	7	7
Welergi “ “	1987 E.C	“	4	2	2	1
	Total	“	76	39	25	22

C- No. of Female Students

Name of School	Grades	Section/Grade included	No. of Female Students	Samples	%
Anger and Dukur Pr.Sc	1-6	5 and 6	21 christians	10	50%
Tulube Primary School	1-6	4 and 5	37 "	19	"
Sardo " "	1-5	5	27 "	13	"
Kolode " "	1-4	4	5 "	3	"
Arbarakate " "	1-7	5	19 Muslims	10	"
Fugnan Dimo" "	1-6	4 and 5	23 "	12	"
Kuni " "	1-8	7and 8	13 "	7	"
Wellergi " "	1-4	4	7 "	4	"
		Total	152	78	"

APPENDIX - 6
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

A Questionnaire Set on Promoting Girls' Basic Education in the Rural Areas of Oromia

This questionnaire is to be filled by principals, vice principals and teachers in primary schools found in the rural areas of Oromia.

The main purpose of this questionnaire is to gather the necessary information on the current status of girls basic education, identify the major obstacles, and come-up with the necessary strategies that should be implemented to promote girls' basic education in the rural areas of Oromia. You are, therefore, kindly requested to fill in the questionnaire to know your opinion about the different issues related to the study.

The success of this study entirely depends upon your earnest and sincere response to the questions.

Thank you in advance for your co-operation.

PART - I. Background Information

Instruction:- Please indicate your answer by marking an "x" in the space provided.

- 1) Zone _____
A) Illubabor _____
B) West Hararghe _____

- 2) Name of your school _____
- 3) Your position in the school _____
A) Principal _____ C) Unit leader _____
B) Vice principal _____ D) Teacher _____

- 4) Sex _____
A) Male _____ B) Female _____

- 5) Age _____
A) 20-25 _____ C) 31-35 _____
B) 26-30 _____ D) 36 and above _____

- 6) Religion _____
A) Orthodox Christian _____ C) Other _____
B) Muslim _____

- 7) Marital status _____
A) Married _____ B) Unmarried _____ C) Divorced _____

- 8) Your educational background _____
 H) 12th complete _____ C) 12+1 _____ E) 12+3 _____
 I) 12+ TTI _____ D) 12+2 _____ F) 10+2 _____
- 9) Total service _____
 A) 1-5 years _____ C) 11-15 years _____ E) 21 years and above _____
 B) 6-10 years _____ D) 16-20 years _____

PART - II

Instruction:- Please indicate the extent to which the following factors affect the participation of girls in rural primary schools. Mark an "X" in column which nearly affects the participation of girls by using the following five point rating scales: Strongly Agree: 5, Agree =4, Undecided =3, Disagree =2 and Strongly Disagree = 1.

Factors Affecting Female Participation in Primary Schools in the Rural Areas.

1	School Related Factors/Problems	5	4	3	2	1
1.1	Distance from home to school is too for					
1.2	The school's schedule doesn't coincide with the demand for girls' labor at home.					
1.3	The school lacks water					
1.4	Lack of separate toilet for girls					
1.5	Lack of desks					
1.6	Lack of enough spaces in class					
1.7	Shortage of books					
1.8	Shortage of qualified and experienced teachers					
1.9	The school-community relationship is very weak					

2	Socio-Economic Problems/Factors	5	4	3	2	1
2.1	Lack of money to pay for school expenses (poor family backgrounds)					
2.2.	Parents' lack education (Illiteracy)					
2.3.	to work for the house hold					
2.4.	to work on the farm					
2.5.	to earn money					
3	Socio-Cultural Factors--					
3.1.	Early marriage					
3.2.	Early Pregnancy					
3.3	Fear of sexual harassment, abduction or rape					
3.4.	The traditional female role is too strong					
3.5.	Boys gain preference in parental decision					
3.6.	Religious factors favour the education of boys					
3.7.	Fathers are not keen on girls' education					
3.8.	Mothers are not keen on girls' education					
3.9.	Girls motivation and expectation is low or lack of interest in education					
3.10.	Low status of women in development activities					
4	Political and Institutional Factors					
4.1.	The range of paid occupations open to girls/women in perceived to be limited					
4.2.	Government policy discourages female participation in education					
4.3.	Lack of upper primary (grades 5-8) and secondary schools being at a reasonable distance from home					
4.4.	Low participation of parents and local administrators to encourage the participation of girls in education.					

PART - III

Instruction:- Please indicate the extent to which the following major interventions/strategies can improve the participation of girls in basic education in the rural areas of Oromia. _Mark an "x" in column which nearly improves girls participation by using the following five rating scales: Very high = 5, High = 4, Medium = 3, Low = 2, and very low = 1.

Suggestions/Recommendations

	Statements	5	4	3	2	1
1	Locate Schools closer to communities and use multiple shifts and multiple teaching					
2.	Promote hiring of female teachers					
3.	Lower the costs of schooling to parents ie; provide incentives for parents to send their daughters to school					
	. Provide text books, making exercise books, pens and pencils available with lesser costs to girls					
4.	.Develop relevant curriculum more relevant to girls' daily lives and aspirations					
	. eliminating mathematics and science gaps					
5	Increase community participation through:					
	. supporting communities that express their interest in improving education for girls					
	. involving the community in planning and decision making in education					
	. involving the community in recruiting students					
	. providing literacy programs to adults					
	. persuading parents that education is valuable					
6	Promote localisation and decentralisation					
	. participate the local community and local administration in the planning and management of the local education system					
7.	Design systems that accommodate the needs of female students					
	. designing flexible schedules					
8	Support multiple delivery systems					
	. open experimental schools					
	. provide assistance and resources to several experimental, small non-traditional alternative schools					
	. create stronger links between the non-traditional, alternative schools and the formal schools					
	. issuance of certificates which are equivalent to those issued by formal schools by the non-formal training centres and the non-traditional alternative schools					
	. use church and mosque or Koranic schools to supplement the formal school					

What factors other than those mentioned in part III, do you think affect the participation of girls in primary schools in rural areas?

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

What other strategies other than those mentioned in part IV do you think will improve the participation of girls in the primary schools found in the rural areas?

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

PART - V - To be filled by principals or vice principals only

Instruction:- The following questions are about the quality of your school and other related issues. Please be honest while giving your answers to the questions based on the objective reality of your school.

- 1. Name of the school _____ Year founded _____
- 2. Total number of students. _____

Year	GRADES																										
	1			2			3			4			5			6			7			8					
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T			
1987																											
1988																											
1989																											
1990																											

- 3) Total number of teachers _____

Year	M	F	T
1987			
1988			
1989			
1990			

- 4) Teacher - student ratio

- 1987 _____
- 1988 _____
- 1989 _____
- 1990 _____

5) Total number of sections

Year	Sections/Classes
1987	
1988	
1989	
1990	

6) Total number of desks

Year	No. of desks
1987	
1988	
1989	
1990	

- 7) Average number of students per class? _____
- 8) Average number of students per desk? _____
- 9) The average number of books per class? _____
- 10) Number of classes not used when it rains? _____
- 11) Number of classes without running water? _____
- 12) Number of blackboards in the school? _____
- 13) Does your school have
- 13.1. water? A) Yes _____ B) No _____
- 13.2. a toilet? A) Yes _____ B) No _____
- 13.3. a separate toilet for girls? A) Yes _____ B) No _____
- 13.4. a library? A) Yes _____ B) No _____
- 13.5. electric light? A) Yes _____ B) No _____
- 14) The school functions - A) both shifts _____
- B) only one shift _____

APPENDIX -7

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

A Questionnaire Prepared on Promoting Girls' Basic Education in the Rural Areas of Oromia.

This questionnaire is to be filled by primary school girls found in the rural areas of Oromia. The main purpose of the questionnaire is to gather the necessary information on the current status of Girls' Basic Education, identify the major obstacles and come-up with the necessary strategies that should be implemented to promote girls' basic education in the rural areas of Oromia. You are, therefore, kindly requested to fill in the questionnaire. The success of this study entirely depends upon your earnest and sincere response to the questions.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

I. Background Information

Instruction:- Please indicate your answer by marking an ' X ' in the space provided.

1. Zone _____
A) Illubabor _____ B) West Hararghe _____
2. Name of your school _____
3. Your Age _____
A) Below 10years _____ C) 13 - 15 years _____
B) 10-12 years _____ D) 16-18 years _____
E) 19 years and above _____
4. Grade _____
A) 4th _____ B)5th _____ C) 6th _____ D) 7th _____ E) 8th _____
5. Religion _____
A) Orthodox Christian _____ B) Muslim _____ C) Other _____
6. Parents' economic status _____
A) Rich _____ B) Average _____ C) Poor _____

7. Parents' educational background

parent	Illiterate	Can read and write	Completed primary education
Father			
Mother			

8. The number of your brothers and their educational backgrounds

Age	Educational level			Total
	Illiterate	dropouts	in school or completed	
1-5				
6-10				
11-15				
16-20				
21 and above				

9. The number of your sisters and their educational backgrounds

Age	Educational level			Total
	Illiterate	dropouts	in school or completed	
1-5				
6-10				
11-15				
16-20				
21 and above				

10. How do you usually come to school?

- A) walk on foot _____ B) By bicycle _____ C) Horse _____ D) Other _____

11. How long does it take you from your home to school?

- A) Less than half an hour _____ B) From half an hour to an hour _____
 C) One hour to one and half hours _____ D) One and half hours to two hours _____

E) Two hours and above _____

12. Who looks after you most of the time at home?

- A) Mother and Father _____ E) Grand Mother or Father _____
B) Mother only _____ F) Older brother or sister _____
C) Mother with step Father _____ G) I look after myself _____
D) Father with step Mother _____ H) Other _____

PART II

Instruction :- Mark an ' X ' for the alternative that describes you best.

1. Does someone at home usually ask you about your school day ?

- A) Yes _____ B) No _____

2. Does someone at home sometimes help you with your home work ?

- A) Yes _____ B) No _____

3. Does someone at home usually talk to your teacher ?

- A) Yes _____ B) No _____

4. Does someone at home usually look at your exercise book ?

- A) Yes _____ B) No _____

5. Who performs better in class exams ?

- A) Boys _____ B) Girls _____ C) Both _____ D) Don't Know _____

6. Who ask questions in class ?

- A) Boys _____ B) Girls _____ C) Both _____ D) Don't Know _____

7. Who goes to secondary school the most ?

- A) Boys _____ B) Girls _____ C) Both _____ D) Don't Know _____

8. For whom it is important to attend school ?

- A) Boys _____ B) Girls _____ C) Both _____ D) Don't Know _____

9. Who helps the family the most ?

- A) Boys _____ B) Girls _____ C) Both _____ D) Don't Know _____

PARTT III

What do you do to help your mother or father out of your school days or even before and after school ?

No	Activities	Everyday	Sometimes	Never
1	Work in the field with crops			
2	Fetch water			
3	Firewood collection			
4	Look after little brothers and sisters			
5	Prepare food			
6	Shopping or going to market			
7	Washing			
8	Grinding			
9	Look after cattle			

APPENDIX - 8

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Structured interview prepared for local people in the Rural Areas of Oromia

PART - I Personal Data

1) Zone _____

- A) Illubabor ____
B) West Hararghe ____

2) Sex _ A) Male _____ B) Female _____

3) Religion _____
A) Christian _____ B) Muslim _____
C) Other _____

4) Occupation _____

- A) Farmer _____ C) House work _____
B) Small business worker ____ D) Petty trader ____

5) Income _____ A) Rich ____ B) Average _____ C) Poor

6) Educational level

Parents	Illiterates	read & write	Primary Education & Above
Husband			
Wife			

7) Family size by age group and gender

Age Group	Male	Female	Total
1-5			
6-10			
11-15			
16-20			
21 and above			

8) Educational status of Male dependants

Age Group	Illiterate	Dropouts	completed or being attend
6-10			
11-15			
16-20			
21 and above			

9) Educational status of female dependants

Age Group	Illiterate	Dropouts	completed or being attend
6-10			
11-15			
16-20			
21 and above			

PART -II

In your opinion, which of the following factors do you think prevent girls to attend school in your village?

	Statements	strongly agree	Agree	Undeci ded	dis agree	strongly disagree
1	School Related Factors					
1.1	Distance from home to school is too great					
1.2	The schools schedule does not coincide with the demand for girls' labor at home					
1.3	The school lacks water					
1.4	Lack of separate toilet for girls					
1.5	Lack of desks					
1.6	Lack of enough space in school					
1.7	Shortage of books					
1.8	Shortage of qualified and experienced teachers					
1.9	The school community relationship is very weak					
2	Socio-economic Factors					
2.1	Lack of money to pay for school expenses (poor family backgrounds)					
2.2	Parents' lack education (illiteracy)					
2.3.	to work for the household					
2.4	to work on the farm					
2.5	To earn money					

3	Socio-cultural Factors					
3.1	Early marriage					
3.2	Early Pregnancy					
3.3	Fear of sexual harassment, abduction or rape					
3.4	The traditional female role is too strong					
3.5	boys gain preference in parental decision					
3.6	Religious factors favour the education of boys					
3.7	Fathers are not keen on girls' education					
3.8	Mothers are not keen on girls' education					
3.9	Girls motivation and expectation is low or lack of interest in education					
3.10	Low status of women in development activities					
4	Political and Institutional Factors					
4.1	The range of paid occupations open to girls/women is perceived to be limited					
4.2	government policy discourages female participation in education					
4.3	Lack of upper primary (grades 5-8) and secondary schools at reasonable distance from home					
4.4	Low participation of parents and local administrators to encourage the participation of girls in education					

- what other factors other than those mentioned above, do you think affect the participation of girls in primary school in your village?

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

- What measures do you think should be taken to increase girls participation in primary school in your village?

- a) _____
- b) _____
- c) _____
- d) _____
- e) _____
- f) _____

APPENDIX -9

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Structured Interview Prepared for Non-enrolees and Drop outs in the Rural Areas of Oromia

I. Personal Data

- 1) Zone ___ A) Illubabor _____
A) West Hararghe _____
- 2) Your age _____
B) 7-10 C) 15-18
C) 11-14 D) 19 years and above _____
- 3) Religion _____
A) Orthodox Christian _____ C) Other _____
B) Muslim _____
- 1) How long does it take to go from your home to the nearest school in your village?
D) Less than half an hour _____
E) half an hour to an hour _____
F) an hour to one and half hours _____
G) One and half hours to two hours _____
H) More than two hours _____

5. Educational status of Your Parents

Parents	Illiterates	read & write	Primary Education & Above
Father			
Mother			

6. Marital Status

- a) Married _____ B) Unmarried _____ C) Divorced _____

7) Your families are _____

- A) Rich _____ B) Average _____ C) Poor _____

1) Family size by age group and gender

Age Group	Male	Female	Total
1-5			
6-10			
11-15			
16-20			
21 and above			

9) Educational Status of your brothers (if any)

Age Group	Illiterate	Dropouts	Completed or being attend
6-10			
11-15			
16-20			
21 and above			

10) Educational status of your sisters (if any)

Age Group	Illiterate	Dropouts	completed or being attend
6-10			
11-15			
16-20			
21 and above			

2

11. If you are with your family, what do your do to help you mother or father?

	Everyday	Sometimes	Never
Work in the field with crops			
Fetch water			
Look after little brothers and sisters			
Prepare food			
Shopping/Going to market			
Washing/Laundry			
Fire wood collection			
Processing grain/grinding			
Look after cattle			

12. Which of the following reasons were the major factors for you not to attend or drop-out of school? Give your degree of agreement to the statements to your interviewer

	Statements	strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
1	School Related Factors					
1.1	Distance from home to school is too great					
1.2	The schools schedule is not favourable to help parents or yourself					
1.3	The school lacks water					
1.4	Lack of separate toilet for girls					
1.5	Lack of desks					
1.6	Lack of enough space in class					
1.7	Shortage of books					
1.8	Shortage of qualified and experienced teachers					
1.9	The school community relationship is very weak					
2	Socio-economic factors					
2.1	Lack of money to pay for school expenses (poor family backgrounds)					
2.2	Parents' lack education (Illiteracy).					
2.3	to work for the household					
2.4	to work on the farm					
2.5	To earn money					
3	Socio-Cultural Factors					
3.1	Early marriage					
3.2	Early pregnancy					
3.3	Fear of sexual harassment, abduction or rape					
3.4	The traditional female role is too strong					
3.5	My brothers gain preference in my parents' decision					
3.6	Religious factors favour the education of boys					
3.7	My father is not keen on my education					
3.8	My mother is not keen on my education					
3.9	Lack of interest in education					
3.1	Girls/women are under represented in development activities					
4	Political and institutional factors					
4.1	The range of paid occupations open to girls/women is limited					
4.2	Government policy discourages female participation in education					
4.3	Lack of upper primary (grades 5-8) and secondary schools nearer to my home					
4.4	Low participation of parents and local administrators to encourage the participation of girls in education					

15) If you have other reasons other than those mentioned above?

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my work and that all sources of material used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name: Befekadu Zeleke

Signature  _____

Place and Date of Submission

Addis Ababa University

June, 1998