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**THE CHALLENGES IN ATTAINING UNIVERSAL PRIMARY EDUCATION IN AFAR  
REGION:**

**THE CASE OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN IN DUBTI WOREDA**

**BY**

**AHMED MAHMUDA**



**COLLEGE OF EDUCATION AND BEHAVIOURAL SCIENCE.**

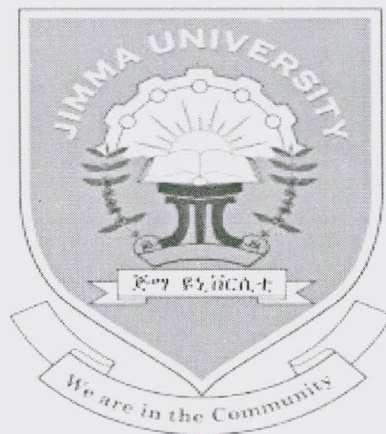
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**JIMMA UNIVRSITY**

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LEADERSHIP & MANAGEMENT**

## LETTER OF APPROVAL

This is to certify that the thesis prepared by Ahmed Mahmuda entitled “The challenges of attaining universal primary Education in Afar region; the case of out of school children in Dubti Woreda ”. In addition, the paper is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Educational Leadership complying with the regulation of the university and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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### **Abstract**

*The general objective of this study was to assess the challenges of out-of-school children in Afar region. To achieve this objective the study employed a case study design using qualitative methods. The study was carried out in one simple randomly selected Woreda of Zone One. All 45 participants, 16 parents, 12 children, 14 Parent Teacher Associations, 2 regional education officials and 1 woreda education official were also involved in the study for focus group discussion, semi-structured interview through simple random and purposive sampling techniques respectively. Focus group discussion and semi-structured interview was the main instrument of data collection. Document analysis and observation were also utilized to substantiate the data obtained through focus group discussion and semi-structured interview. Using the theory of social exclusion and the right-based approach to education, the study selected two social groups; rural and urban. It analyzed how differences in social, economic as well as political circumstances between the groups continue to reinforce the exclusion of children from education. The finding of this study indicate that the two social groups have group-specific factors which explain why their children are excluded from education. The children from the rural group experience four forms of disadvantages: the provision of education which is mainly focused on school-based approach, lack of parents awareness on the importance of education, relevance of the curriculum to their linguistic and cultural reality and disparity in the provision of education among the kebele's that prevent the full participation of the rural group. Parents from the urban group, on the other hand, managed to send some of their children to school while keeping others at home. This group appears to be excluded due to factors, such as : Economic circumstance, inability to pay the contribution imposed on parents as a registration fee in an ad hoc manner for some households who have low income resources and large family members, lack of curriculum relevance. The study argues that the provision of education should be flexible which take into account the socio-economic, linguistic and cultural reality of the pastoral community, and more focus should be needed to be given for demand-side factors.*

## CHAPTER ONE THE PROBLEM & ITS APPROCH

### 1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

In 1990, the World Conference on Education for All (EFA) which was held in Jomtien, Thailand, agreed upon six education goals. In 2000, the goals were endorsed again by governments and bilateral and multinational donors. The second of the goals is ‘Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality’ (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2000). This goal is also emphasized in the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Since then, achieving Universal Primary Education (UPE) has become one of the priority areas of national development agendas in most developing countries. Education is considered to be a precondition to achieving an array of other goals ranging from individual self-realization, peace and stability to economic goals for social development (Ibid; Mundy, 2007; Sen, 1999; Chabbott, 2003). Strategies to achieve the goal, and measuring and monitoring of progress have been put in place around the world.

Most African countries have registered progress towards the realization of UPE. Amongst others, through abolishing school fees, a number of African countries have increased enrolment rates in primary education (World Bank, 2009). But the progress is not even. So far, Sub-Saharan African countries are lagging behind other regions of the world (Semali, 2007; UNESCO, 2011; Lewin, 2007). The EFA Global Monitoring Report shows that this region comprises almost half of the world’s out-of-school children (UNESCO, 2011). Ethiopia, a Sub-Saharan African nation, is among the top five countries with the largest number of out-of-school children( UNESCO, 2011). Nevertheless, the country was recently praised for its impressive progress in enrolment having aligned its development strategies with the current emphasis on UPE (UNESCO, 2011; Ministry of Finance and Economic Development [MoFED], 2010). The Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) at primary level has risen from 32 per cent in 1990/91 to 96.4 per cent in 2010/11 (Ministry of Education [MoE], 2002, 2011).

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The government underlines the importance of partnerships at both local and national level to realize UPE. The Dakar Framework for Action also indicated that partnership is one of the ways to achieve the EFA goals (UNESCO, 2000). The education sector clearly indicates that for its mission of providing quality education for all to be met, active participation of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and the private sector is required (MoE, 2002, 2006) because of limited government ability to expand educational opportunities to all school-aged children. The incumbent government, which took power in 1991, introduced a decentralized education system in which communities have been given the responsibility of running primary schools in their localities. It states that community contributions and involvement in schooling are important means of financing education through mobilization of their own resources to construct additional classrooms and schools (MoE, 2002).

Since 1994 education and training policy, Ethiopia has shown significant improvement in Gross Enrollment Rate (GER), Net Enrollment Rate (NER) and Net Intake Rate (NIR) both at national and Regional levels. For instance the national Gross enrollment of primary school has risen from 91.3% in 2005/6 to 93.4% in 2008/9. Similarly, there has been a substantial increase in national NER of primary school during this stated period of time. However, the enrolment rates show wide disparity among regions. For example, in 2010/11, the Net Enrolment Rate (NER) at primary (1-8) level in Gambella region was 97.1 per cent whereas in Afar region it was 31.9 per cent, compared to the national NER of 89 per cent. The successive ESDPs, from ESDP I to IV, attribute the problem of regional disparity to the lack of capacity at regional and Woreda levels to execute education policies, initiatives and overcome challenges in their constituencies (MoE, 2005, 2006, 2010). As stated, 'inadequate planning and management capacity at the lower levels of the organizational structures (e.g. Woreda) is a critical problem in realizing EFA goals' (MoE, 2006:30). It is also indicated that this lack of capacity led to low budget utilization in some regions (MoE, 2010b). The lack of capacity at local level means that UPE appears to be at risk, because of the fact that it is the Woreda responsibility to realize it.

In general, education is not expanding in the pastoralist regions; on the other hand, the schools that have already erected are not being properly utilized. In this regard, the Christian Relief and Development Association in Ethiopia reported that most government formal schools are often empty or abandoned as the education system is not appropriate and pastoral oriented (CRDA in

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Car hil, 2005; MOE, 2011). These all clearly indicates that there remains a chasm between the educational development of nomadic pastoral community and the general population of the nation ( MOE, 2011).

Therefore, in this movement it seems that further research is needed to assess the challenges in attaining UPE; the case of out-of the school children, and determinants faced by the woreda to become effective in providing education for all children in Afar regional state particularly in Zone 1, Dubti woreda. This study has explored the major challenges of out-of-the school children in Zone 1, Dubti Woreda.

### **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

The Afar state education bureau is striving for efficiency and access of quality of education. To ensure this goal educational package is being implementing at a school level. The package comprises School improvement program, Teacher Development program, Civics and Ethical Education, access to ICT, Curriculum Development, and Administration.

However, access to primary education approach is not to the equilibrium of demand for and supply of education of the region. For instance, net enrolment rate for grade one through grade eight is 25.3% for boys, 23.2% for girls and 24.4% on average for both boys and girls.

The education and training policy of Ethiopian government stated that a special focus would be given to those who have been deprived of educational opportunities, and steps will be taken to raise the educational participation deprived regions. Based on the ETP of 1994, the Education Sector Development Program ( ESDP) was launched with an ultimate goal of increasing access to primary education, equity by expanding schools; improve efficiency by reducing dropouts rates and repetition rates. It was also targeted to increase the primary enrolment ratios in the two most underserved pastoralist regions of the country; namely, Afar and Somalia regional states. The Educational Annual Abstract of 2010/11, however indicated that 96.4% at the national level, where as the GER for Afar and Somalia pastoralist region is only 40.1% and 61.3% respectively.

This may shows that education is not expanding in the pastoralist regions; on the other hand, the schools that have already erected are not being properly utilized. In this regard, the Christian

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Relief Association in Ethiopia reported that most government formal schools are often empty or abandoned as the education system is not appropriate and pastoralist oriented ( CRDA in Car Hill, 2005; MoE, 2011). These all clearly indicates that there remains a chasm between the education development of nomadic pastoral community and the general population of the nation.

In the case of nomadic pastoral Afar children participation in education and many of the hindering factors needs to be researched. Moreover, my study focuses on to investigate deeply the presence or absence of the above listed problems and to propose solutions and to make further investigation of the challenges of out-of-school children in Zone 1, Dubti Woreda.

Generally the purpose of this study is to assess the challenges in attaining UPE; the case of out-of-school children in: zone 1, Dubti woreda out-of-school children. Thus this study will try to answer the following basic research questions.

1. What are the major challenges for pastoral Afar children not to be enrolled in education at a time when UPE is a flagship?
2. To what extent is the regional government concerned with the issue of out-of-school Afar children?
3. To what extent do failure of taking in to account consideration of culture and language realities of afar pastoral community affect too?

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

#### **1.3.1 General Objective**

The main Objective of this study was to explore the major challenges in attaining universal primary education in Afar Regional State and identify major factors that affect attaining universal primary education.

#### **1.3.2 Specific Objectives**

1. To explore the major challenges which account for children's lack of access to education.
2. To analyze the role of the regional government in dealing with the issue of out-of-school children in the region.
3. To investigate the impact of failing to take consideration in to account language and cultural realities of Afar people.

### **1.4 Significance of the Study**

The World Education Forum (Dakar, 2000) renewed the commitment to the declaration of EFA, and emphasis was placed on the low participation of minority groups like children of nomadic pastoral community. It is particularly important to understand the situation of pastoralist out-of-school children who have not been to school despite the policies and strategies that have been formulated.

The selected groups are pastoralist. Thus, providing education to nomadic communities becomes one of the most challenging and urgent issues currently facing educational policy makers and practioners in the education system of the African nations (Basiamang, 2006). Hence, this study brings new insights on the status of the group in the education system. Besides that it would also help to raise awareness and motivation level of other researcher for further studies.

#### **1.4 Delimitation of the study**

Though Afar National Regional State is administratively divided in to five zones, to make it manageable, the study was geographically delimited to Zone One Woreda, namely; Dubti. The study was also delimited technically in the assessment of the challenges of universal primary education; the case of out-of-school children with particular focus on factors considered significant in schooling decision; the awareness of parents on education importance, literacy,

relevancy of the curriculum , provision of education approach, child Labor, cost of schooling, family size and economic Circumstance.

### **1.5 Limitation of the study**

It is obvious that research work cannot be totally free from limitation. To this end, some of the limiting factors include time constraint, transparency of respondents in the group discussion and being on time. Even though the researcher planned to use tape recorder during the interview, respondents were not voluntary & he was forced to use writing on notes. Furthermore, Woreda education office and parent teacher associations were always busy.

### **1.7 Operational Definition**

**Gross Enrollment rate ( GER):** Gross enrollment rate means percentage of total enrollment in primary schools irrespective of age out of the corresponding primary school age population ( age 7-14).

**Net Enrollment rate (NER):** is the number of pupils in the official school age group expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group. ( UNESCO, 1998: 47).

**Nomad Pastoral people:** Nomadic pastoralists are people who live and derive most of their food source and income from raising domestic livestock, with no recognized place of residence, and move from place to place in search of pasture and water (Carhill,2005).

**Woreda;** A woreda is the second level of administrative divisions of Ethiopia which is equivalent to a district.

**Kebele;** The Woredas are composed of a number of kebele, the smallest unit of local government.

### **1.8 Organization of the study**

The research report divided in to five main chapters. The first chapter deal with the problem and its approach and it include background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives, and significances, delimitation of the study and organization of the study. Chapter two presents the review of related literatures. Chapter three deals with the research design, method, sources of data, sample and sampling techniques, instruments and procedures of data collection and method of data analysis and interpretation. Chapter four deals with the presentation, analysis and interpretation. Chapter five deal with summary, conclusion and recommendations of the study.

## Chapter Two

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### 2. The Context for UPE in Ethiopia Since 1990

The purpose of this chapter is to review and analyze the implication of the three perspectives of universal education in this study on challenges of attaining universal primary education. The theoretical perspectives to be analyzed are; Education policies & Strategies on UPE since 1990, Forms of social Exclusion, and The right-based approach for achieving primary universal education based on provision of Supply-side and Demand-side determination of education.

A theory is defined as a set of interrelated constructs or concepts, propositions that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables with the purpose of examining and predicting phenomena (Babbie, 2008). In this light, the discussion herein is centered on how social exclusion theory and right-based approach together constitute framework for analysis of the situation of out-of-school children in selected area in Ethiopia. Social exclusion theory is used to understand how exclusionary mechanism can led children to be excluded from school, whereas the right based approach helps to determine the role of government parents as well as children in ensuring the education of a child.

Ethiopia is one of the oldest nations in the world and the oldest independent country in Africa. Situated in the Horn of Africa, Ethiopia is the second most populous country in Sub-Saharan Africa after Nigeria. The population was estimated at about 73 million in 2007, with a projected annual growth rate of 2.6 per cent. About 85 per cent of the population currently lives in the rural areas. According to projections undertaken by the Central Statistics Authority (CSA), the total population is estimated to reach 81.3 million in 2009/10, with 16.5 million being children of primary school age (CSA, 2012).

#### 2.1 Nomad Pastoral People

Nomadic pastoralists are people who live and derive most of their food source and income from raising domestic livestock, with no recognized place of residence, and move from place to place in search of pasture and water (Carhill,2005). They are estimated around thirty six million in the world and the majority of them inhabited in seventeen African Countries (Ezeomah, 1998). As



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minority groups, they represented 6 percent of African population categorized under disadvantaged and hard to reach population in terms of social service provision (Carhill, 2005).

Most of the statistics and research findings available reveal that, among other educationally disadvantaged groups,

Nomadic pastoralists form the majority of the poorest and most vulnerable of African population, whose millions of children have been denied to access and record low participation rate in primary education. In spite of much African country's commitment to the universalizing of access to primary education and heightened interest in the provision of relevant education to nomadic pastoralists, these segments of population have serious limitations to equitable participation in education, because of diverse hindering factors (ADEA, 2003).

In Ethiopia, the pastoral nomads' people are found nearly all low lands on the periphery of the country. They are about 12 million in number covering about 65 percent of the total area of the nation. Documentary analysis in Ethiopia holds that parts of the nation inhabited by population groups, whose main economic activity is livestock husbandry, are economically, politically and socially marginal. At the same time, however, it is believed that the area occupied by pastoralists are said to be rich, endowed in natural resources yet to be exploited and to be put at the service of the pastoral communities and the country as a whole (Ayalew, 1998, Yacob, 1995).

### **2.2 Education Policies and Strategies on UPE Since 1990**

In 1991, the country witnessed a change in government when the communist Derg regime was overthrown by the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF). A new constitution was introduced in 1994 which created a federal system of governance (FDRE, 1994). Since its ascendancy to power, the incumbent government has undertaken a wide variety of reforms aimed at realigning the country's social, political and economic institutions to the global development discourses.

One of the reforms was the placement of MDGs and EFA goals within the national development policy framework. The government introduced the Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP) policy and program spanning the period 2005/06-2009/10. The ultimate goal of PASDEP is to ensure human development of the poor generally, and of women in particular. It was preceded by the Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program (SDPRP), a program to create human capacity, expand and build institutions.

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decentralize government, and mobilize the grassroots communities, including civil society. This was accompanied by massive public spending on pro-poor investments, and the launch of nationwide sector development programs to improve health care, education, and food security (MoFED, 2008).

The educational reform overhauled the previous regime's governance and structure of the system. The reforms were designed to reflect the ongoing global education agenda, mainly EFA. A new Education and Training Policy (ETP) was introduced four years after the Jomtien Conference, in 1994. The essence of the subsequent education strategies clearly reflects the commitment of the government to address the EFA goals, of which UPE is one. The Education and Training Policy (ETP) states that education is an important development strategy to eradicate poverty as well as an indispensable tool to produce human capital needed for the country's development. The vision is '...to see all school-age children get access to quality primary education by the year 2015 and realize the creation of trained and skilled human power at all levels who will be driving forces in the promotion of democracy and development in the country' (MoE, 2005:5). Neither the policy nor the constitution makes primary education compulsory. Rather, the constitution states that '...To the extent the country's resources permit, policies shall aim to provide all Ethiopians access to public health and education, clean water, housing, food and social security'(FDRE, 1994b. art. 90, § 1).

The education policy of 1994 acknowledged that, in terms of expansion of educational opportunities the country was lagging behind, even by African standards. In 1997, the government developed a sector wide approach, the ESDP as a part of the Twenty Year Education Sector Indicative Plan (1997-2016) which was translated into four consecutive ESDPs to reach the EFA goals as defined in the EFA Dakar Framework for Action in 2000. The main objective of the ESDPs is 'to improve quality, relevance, equity, and efficiency and to expand access with special emphasis on primary education in rural and underserved areas, as well as the promotion of education for girls in an attempt to achieve universal primary education by 2015' (MoE, 2005:6).

The government has implemented free primary education since 1994. The ETP implementation document stipulates that 'the policy, ETP, provides universal and free primary education so that the children of peasants and the poor may not be denied the opportunity for mere lack of money'

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(MoE, 2002:127). This measure has tremendously increased the enrolment rate in the country. The gross enrolment rate (GER) at primary level has risen from 32 per cent in 1990/91 to 96.4 per cent in 2010/11. The NER has also risen to 89.3 per cent in 2010/11.

The number of children in school has more than tripled from 3.8 million in 1995/96 to over 14 million in 2006/07. At the same time, gender parity has improved dramatically with a ratio of 0.93 in the lower primary cycle (grade 1-4) by the end of 2010/11, from 0.87 in 2004/05 (MoE, 2011). According to the annual EFA Global Monitoring Report, the country has made impressive improvements towards expanding access to education for all (UNESCO, 2011). Particularly, the country reduced the number of out-of-school children from 6.5 million in 1999 to 2.7 million in 2008 (UNESCO, 2011:41).

The massive mobilization to address the issue of access to education is undermining the quality of education in the country. The Joint Review Mission (JRM) of the ESDP III stressed that the efforts to improve quality education has so far been offset by the greater push given to increasing enrolment (MoE, 2006). The World Bank assessment of the country's education system in 2004 also indicated that the educational condition of the country is worsening in terms of the pedagogic conditions in the classroom as indicated in the pupil-teacher ratio, and the real spending per student on non-salary inputs had declined by about 20% during 1998-2003, as the result of massive enrollment increase (World Bank, 2004). For instance, the pupil per class ratio and pupil-teacher ratio at primary level in 2010/11 were 57 and 51 respectively which were higher than the target set by ESDP IV, namely 55 and 50 respectively. The drop out and repetition rates at primary level were 13.1 per cent and 8.9 per cent, respectively, in 2010/11 (MoE, 2011).

With the support of donors, massive expansion of schools has been undertaken in the country, particularly in rural areas. For instance, out of the 2,787 constructed primary schools during ESDP I & II during 1997-2005, more than 80 per cent were in rural areas (MoE, 2005). Over 120,000 new teachers have been recruited during the period (MoFED, 2008). Education's share of the national budget reached 22.8 per cent in 2007/08. Efforts have also been made to raise awareness, mainly in rural areas about the importance of education, and programmes were designed to enhance girls' participation by developing a five year female education strategy (MoE, 2005).

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primary schools is the responsibility of communities (MoE, 2002; FDRE, 1994; MoE, 2005). Studies have, however, documented that the main form of community participation in the education system in Ethiopia has been monetary contributions (Swift-Morgan, 2006; Oumer, 2009).

According to ESDP III, 'communities will participate in the construction and management of schools. The community will contribute labor, local materials and cash, based on its own capacity, for the construction of schools and Alternative Basic Education Centers (ABECs). The community contribution will also include raising money to cover part of non-salary expenditure of schools when required and when communities have the capacity to do it' (MoE, 2005). Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs) play an important role in mobilizing community participation. They are active in raising the awareness of the community on the benefits of education and in encouraging parents to send their children to school so as to increase access and reduce dropout (MoE, 2005).

Although the policy states that community contributions should be based on capacity and willingness, ESDP IV discusses that the high direct cost of education to parents is a main reason why poor children do not enter school. Particularly, the document states that... 'Where schools/woredas/regions decide to levy fees in a form of community contribution, they will need to ensure that arrangements are in place to ensure that no child is excluded from school because of inability to pay' (MoE, 2010). Reviewing the performance of ESDP III, ESDP IV, which was introduced in 2010/11, explicitly acknowledges that some communities are overburdened or overstressed by the contribution, which is termed 'community fatigue' (MoE, 2010). It points out that the absence of policy on the extent of community contributions is affecting the very notion of its introduction in the decentralization of the education system in the country. The ETP, however, indicates that community participation, or leaving primary education to the community, is considered as one strategy of addressing equity in educational services. It notes that if rich communities are able to construct and maintain schools, then the government would focus on poor areas, thereby ensuring higher equity among communities (MoE, 2002).

### 2.3.2 Governance of Education in Ethiopia

The constitution introduced a federal system of governance in 1994. The education system was decentralized meaning that the management and decision making was distributed to regions and implemented at each levels of governance (Figure 2.3). In terms of distribution of responsibilities at the different, the Ministry of Education (MoE) is responsible for establishing and administering tertiary institutions, developing the national education policy and supporting regional curriculum development efforts at all levels of education. Regional Education Bureaus (REB) are responsible for establishing and administering the second cycle of secondary education (Grades 11–12), and technical and vocational schools; the regional education policy and strategy; preparing the curriculum for primary schools and training primary school teachers.

Zones Education Bureaus (ZEB) serves as facilitators between the Regional Education Bureau and the Woreda Education Department. The bureau coordinates the purchase and distribution of educational materials; provides technical support to Woreda and also performs other functions allocated to them by the Regional Bureau of Education. Woreda Education Bureaus (WEB) are in charge of establishing and administering basic education services, including primary schools (Grades 1–10) and adult education; ensuring equity in access to education; enhancing community participation by supporting citizen participation in educational administration; and encouraging and supporting PTAs. The Kebele Education and Training Boards (KETB) are the smallest administrative unit in the devolution of power, and they are expected to work hand in hand with local primary schools and parents and the community at large (MoE, 2002). Hence, the WEB has the responsibility for UPE and for ensuring equity in access to education.

The decentralized system has seen mixed results so far. The government documents appraise it for creating community ownership of the education system at local level. Furthermore, it is stated that it has contributed to the increase in enrolment in regions with historically low enrolment (MoE, 2002). It also seems to have strengthened local governance, increased accountability, broaden the participation of communities, and improved school management and transparency (MoE, 2005). In reality, however, it has been claimed that the decentralized system has led to disparity among regions in the country (Ibid; MoE, 2010b).

### 2.4 Partnerships in Education

The Ethiopian Government also stressed the important role partnership is to play in realizing EFA and seeks the active involvement of other stakeholders (civil society and NGOs) in order to extend the quality and relevance of primary education to all school-aged children and expand standardized education and training programmes at all levels (MoE, 2005). The government explicitly states that NGOs are essential to realize UPE, particularly in terms of alternative basic education and non-formal education (MoE, 2002).

According to the decentralized structure, the Woreda have the highest power and responsibility in creating those partnerships as well as seeking collaboration to solve local problems. The education sector document clearly indicates that for its mission of providing quality education for all to be met, active participation of NGOs and the private sector is required.

However, in 2008, the government introduced a new proclamation in the country on regulating CSOs and NGOs. According to the government, this new proclamation was needed due to the growing numbers of CSOs and NGOs whose management structures have complicated the current monitoring process, while others claimed that it was intended to curb their capacity to raise funds (Center for International Human Rights, 2009). NGOs presumably had a major role in the 2005 election when the government had a devastating result, and even before 2005, Miller-Grandvaux, Welmond and Wolf (2002) findings indicate that government officials worried about the ‘...NGOs’ hidden political agendas and lack of clarity as to whose and what interests NGOs claim to represent.’ Nevertheless, according to the new law, local and international NGOs that receive more than 10 per cent of their funding from abroad may not work on the advancement of human rights, promotion of gender equality, the right of children and disabled persons, conflict resolution or the efficiency of the justice sector (FDRE, 2009).

As a result of the proclamation, the number of NGOs has significantly decreased from 3,800 to 1,850 according to the registration conducted by the Ministry of Justice (USAID, 2010). More is, then, expected from woredas in terms of creating ties and links with stakeholders to solve the local problems.

The following analysis of the educational situation of out-of-school children those who live in rural and urban area, is understood in the context of the outlined policies and strategies, and the

governance system for education. To assist in explaining this, a theoretical framework has been constructed to identify factors for the exclusion of children from education. This includes existing literature on the determinants of education across different countries.

### **2.5 Forms of Social Exclusion**

The concept of social exclusion has appeared in social policy discourse in an attempt to relate to poverty, inequality and injustice in Europe during the crises of welfare states in the 1980s (Kabeer, 2000; Rawal, 2008). While different scholars have used the theory to examine various social problems, Kabeer's (2000) analytical framework is particularly interesting for this study because of her depiction of the role of social interaction and institutions to create and sustain exclusion. According to Kabeer, social exclusion occurs 'when the various institutional mechanisms through which resources are allocated and values assigned operate in such a way to systematically deny particular groups of people the resources and recognition which would allow them to participate fully in the life of that society' (Ibid:186).

Beall and Piron (2005) refer to social exclusion as a condition or outcome, on the one hand, and a dynamic process on the other. As a condition or outcome, social exclusion is a state in which excluded individuals or groups are unable to participate fully in their society. This may be either because of their social identity (for example race, gender), or their social location (for example, remote areas). The multidimensional and dynamic process of social exclusion refers to the social relations and organizational barriers that block the attainment of livelihoods, human development and equal citizenship. Social exclusion may prevail at micro, meso and macro levels with multidimensional applicability. Individuals or groups or societies would be partly or totally excluded. Le Grand (2003) argues that social exclusion, voluntary or involuntary, compromises social solidarity and challenges the bid to ensure equal opportunity for all.

In this study, the theory is used particularly to examine the exclusion of children from education. As outlined in the above, the pastoralists are excluded in which they live due to institutional and structural factors. Exclusion often emanates from lack of flexibility of the education provision approach and compatibility with the given community of life. Cultural disadvantage, on the other hand, is a form of injustice manifested in the ways in which dominant social groups seek to impose dominant values, or routinely devalue and disparage certain groups (Kabeer, 2000).

Using the concept of social exclusion, therefore, enables researchers to simultaneously consider the economic, political and social dimensions of deprivation problems.

According to Kabeer (2000), institutions are central in creating and sustaining exclusion through rules of membership and access. States, markets, communities as well as the family have their own principles of membership and forms of access. This principle of membership underlines principles of exclusion and inclusion. Hence, this theory has a wider application of the concept of social exclusion. The issue of exclusion from education which, in this case is exclusion from schools and infrastructure, may require examining rules of school entry. It also encompasses the wider rules which disempowered the groups from accessing important services, including education. The rights-based approach, which is dealt below, helps to understand the role played by different stakeholders in education either in alleviating or sustaining the issue of exclusion from education.

Bennet's (2005) division of institutions into formal and informal ones is important. He underlines that we need not only to refer to the written rules and policies of institutions [formal], but also to behaviors, values and norms that are deeply embedded [informal]. Apart from the role of institutions in excluding particular groups, groups may prefer to exclude themselves because 'it allows them to define their own values and priorities (Kabeer, 2000). The denial of access to education may, then, emanate from the groups' preference to keep their children away from public institutions, including schools. It is, therefore, considered important to rigorously examine exclusionary processes and institutional make ups which are both implicit and explicit in nature.

### **2.6 The Rights-based Approach**

Under the rights-based approach to education, education is considered as a basic human right. This conception of education goes back to the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). It states, amongst others, that everyone has the right to education, and that education shall be free so that no child is left out of school (UN, 1948). This has become a springboard for international agreements, including the UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education of 1960, the International Convention on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights of 1966, and the Convention on the Rights of the Child of 1989. The approach has been reinforced



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in recent decades with the introduction of the international EFA goals (UNICEF/UNESCO, 2007).

The approach underlines the intrinsic importance of education as a right. It positions education as an empowerment right by which ‘...economically and socially marginalized adults and children can lift themselves out of poverty and obtain the means to participate fully in their communities’ (Beiter, 2006). In the same token, Freire (2000) underlined the empowerment role of education for excluded minorities in demanding their rights by raising awareness, or ‘conscientisation’.

The rights-based approach to education places the primary responsibility for ensuring good quality education on the state. Governments have obligations to develop legislation, policies and support services to remove barriers in the family and community that impede children’s access to school. They should take action to ensure the provision of education that is both inclusive and non-discriminatory and that is adapted to ensure the equal opportunity of every child to attend. This primarily includes ensuring the right to, in and through education. The denial of the right to education is a fundamental threat to the basic human rights which eventually exclude children from the right in and through education.

The contents of the right to education are structured into the 4-As: availability (establishment of schools and ensuring free and compulsory education for all), access (compulsory education free of charge), acceptability (guaranteed minimal standard of education) and adaptability (schools have to adapt to children) (Tomasevski, 2003). The realization of the right to education, according to the approach, requires addressing possible tensions because of differing objectives and responsibilities among governments, parents and children as they are the principal players (UNICEF/UNESCO, 2007). These differing objectives need to be reconciled in order to realize the right to education. They constitute a triangular relationship among the parties, as depicted in Figure 3.1.

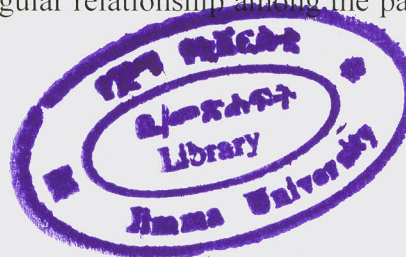


Figure 3.1` Conceptual framework

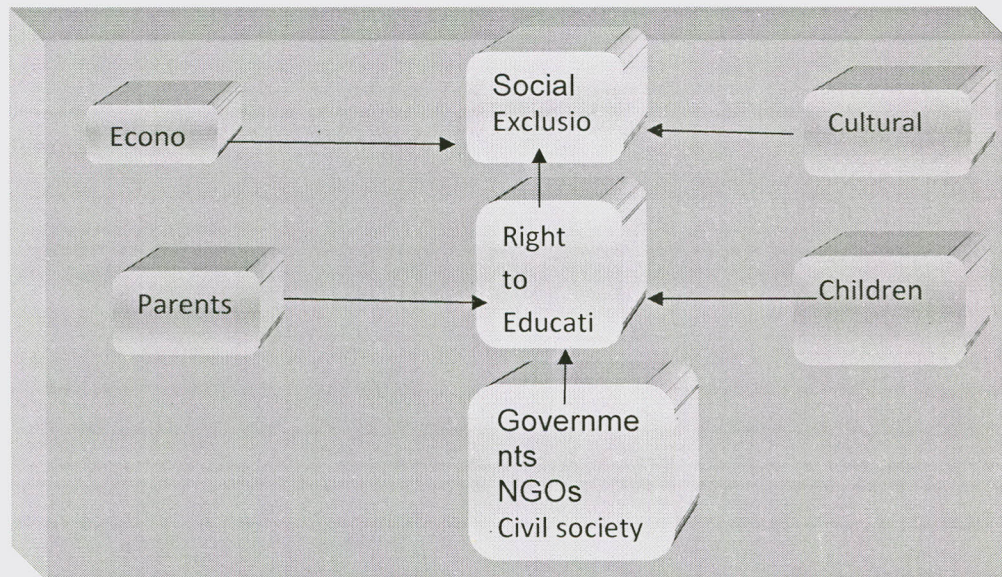


Figure 3.1 highlights how the two theories are combined to help analyze the situation on the ground. The bidirectional arrow between the right to education and social exclusion shows the two way influences that exist between them. Exclusion in society can be related to both economic and cultural disadvantage which may, in turn, exclude children from school.

Governments are responsible for providing education to the wider society, and institutionalizing administrative and legal frameworks to monitor the rights. They also have the responsibility to fulfill, respect and protect the right to education of a child. Policies both at national and local levels should be designed in a way to address the right to education a child. Hence, evaluating the progress of the right to education requires the examination of the already formulated policies and their implementation. This was the main rationale for scrutinizing important policies and strategies in the above.

Parents have a prior right to choose the kind of education that shall be given to their children. According to the UDHR (1948), parents may seek the reinforcement and promotion of their collective beliefs or individual values. The influence of their beliefs or values depends on the extent of their involvement in school matters and on their capacity to fully understand the importance of education for their children. Hence, community participation aimed at improving the level of education and awareness of parents is crucial for the realization of the right to

education. As right holders, the children's perceptions of acquiring the capacity to fulfill her/his aspirations also need to be considered.

Other actors, such as NGOs, teachers and the private sector, have significant contributions and responsibilities with respect to realizing the right to education. As Pogge (as cited in Robeyns, 2010) argues, their involvement is, however, contingent on whether human rights are considered as a legal or a moral right. If human rights are considered as a legal right, governments are politically responsible and can determine what NGOs and other stakeholders should do. Conversely, as a moral right, everyone should help realize this right since it is her/his moral obligation.

The rights-based approach has been criticized in a number of ways. First, the concept of universality with regard to education is, according to some scholars, superfluous and regarded as exclusively western (Panikkar, 1982). Pannikar argues that cross-cultural beliefs impede such concepts from being universally applicable across cultures. In the case of Africa, diverse cultural beliefs and social diversification would instead lead to varying applicability of the concept across and within countries (Greany, 2008). Second, the concept is often criticized as being rhetorical since there are still millions of children out of school despite its international acceptance across the world. Third, the understanding of human rights as legal rights would make governments exclusively accountable for their realization despite the fact that governments generally are the main protectors as well as the main violators of human rights (Tomasevski, 2003).

Notwithstanding the above critiques, the approach has been regarded as useful for considering how the right to education can be fulfilled and the different roles required by different actors to overcome exclusion from education. The more specific factors that contribute to exclusion from education are outlined in the following both in a general sense and as specifically related to Ethiopia.

### **2.7 Determinants of Education**

A huge number of empirical studies exists on factors that hamper the enrolment and attainment of children in education in different parts of the world. They highlight an ongoing debate on whether household (demand) or school (supply) factors are most important in determining

children's enrolment. This distinction is applied to the following review of relevant studies related to the developing world, particularly Sub-Saharan Africa.

### **2.7.1 Demand-Side Determinants**

The majority of empirical studies take households as their unit of analysis. They have been conducted in different socio-economic, cultural and political contexts and have identified an array of household factors. However, there is consensus that the majority of children who are not in school are from households that are excluded from participating in the mainstream economy or/and have been disadvantaged in other ways compared to the rest of the population (Sackey, 2007; Lewin, 2009; Kadzamira and Rose, 2003). Factors considered significant in schooling decisions are presented below.

#### **2.7.1.1 Parent's Education**

Parents' educational status seems to play an important role in determining children's schooling (Sathar and Lloyd, 1994; Parikh and Sadoulet, 2005; Ilon and Mook, 1991). Parents with particular levels of education or literacy acquisition seem to acknowledge the value of education for their children and are determined to keep their children in school. The importance of mothers' education is particularly important notably for the education of girls. Based on survey data from 2,500 rural households, Ilon and Mook (1991) indicated that mothers' education has a positive effect on children's school participation in lower income households in Peru. In Kenya, using a welfare monitoring survey, Deolalikar (1997) found that the effect of mother's education on primary school enrolment in the poorest quintile is two to three times larger than that of father's education. Similar studies conducted by Moe and Levison (1998), Rose and Al-Samarrai (2001), and Sathar and Lloyd (1994) underlined the substantial influence of mothers' education on sending children, particularly girls to school. In addition to parental education, Vijverberg and Plug (2003), using longitudinal survey data, indicated that children inherit interest and ability to be in school from their educated parents.

#### **2.7.1.2 Literacy**

Similarly, a certain literacy level at household and community level has been found to be significantly influential in schooling decisions of a child (Afzal et al., 2010; Handa, 2002;

Chudgar, 2009; Kadzamira and Rose, 2003). In most empirical studies, household literacy is a more important factor than all other household determinants, such as family size, gender and age of the head of the household, area of residence, household ownership, proportion of disabled children in the household and dependency ratio (Afzal et al., 2010). For instance, using Indian national rural household survey data, Chudgar (2009) described that an improvement in parental literacy increases the probability of school enrolment by 9-21 per cent depending on the regions from where the data came. In rural Mozambique, Handa (2002) also found that improving adult literacy has a larger impact on children's school participation than raising household income.

### **2.7.1.3 Economic Status**

There are also studies which emphasize the economic status of parents as the most decisive factor influencing parents' decisions on schooling. Poverty at the household level, which is partially expressed in terms of low income and low occupational status, highly alters parents' tendency towards sending a child to school. Using the household as the unit of analysis, studies show how the poor have been denied of access to education (Burney and Irfan, 1995; Awaleh, 2007; Björkman, 2005). Poverty at the national level also often leads to reduced government expenditure for education. This often leaves much of the burden to parents or communities in general, which is a problem for the poor. Using demographic and health survey data from 35 countries in Asia, Africa and Latin America, Filmer and Pritchett (1998) stated that, to a large extent, it is the poor who is excluded from school participation due to poverty and social disadvantage.

### **2.7.1.4 Costs of Schooling**

Among the manifestations of poverty at household level, as documented by many studies, are the inability to cover all the costs of schooling by parents, and extensive use of child labor. In an effort to achieve universal primary education and to help the poor send their children to school, education has become free in many countries. As a result, there has been a tremendous increase in enrolment, particularly for children from the poor households in countries, such as Kenya, Tanzania, Ethiopia and Malawi, to list just a few (World Bank, 2009). However, school fees only account for a small portion of what parents have to incur in order to send their children to school (Behrman and James, 1999). Additional marginal increments in costs often result in decisions

not to send a child to school because of the adverse relationship between the income of parents and children's schooling for the lowest quartile of the poor (Hamid, 1993; Handa, 2002; Vera and Jimenez, 2010; Björkmany, 2005; Asadullah, Chaudhury and Christiansen, 2006; Grimm, 2011; Behrman and James, 1999).

In calculating the cost of schooling, parents include clothing, shoes, and stationeries in addition to school fees. Studies done in Malawi (Kadzamira and Rose, 2003), Bangladesh (Awaleh, 2007), Kenya (Omwami, and Omwami, 2009), Mozambique (Handa 2002), Ghana (Lavy, 1996) and Ethiopia (Schaffner, 2004) documented that the cost that parents incur for their children's schooling is one of the major barriers. Furthermore, the opportunity cost of schooling put pressure on parents, particularly those who depend on child labor as a way to generate income.

### **2.7.1.5 Child Labor**

Studies have shown that there is a direct relationship between poverty and child labor (Arends-Kuenning and Amin, 2004; Awaleh, 2007). In order to highlight the extent of economic (low income) factors, a number of empirical studies have been conducted in an effort to examine the effectiveness of stimulation programmes, such as, stipends, to parents to send their children to school. Studies conducted in Bangladesh, (Arends-Kuenning and Amin, 2004; Wodon and Ravallion, 1999), using longitudinal data before and after introducing monetary incentives to rural households, revealed an increment in child enrolment. It also reduced the incidence of child agricultural labor in the rural areas studied. However, it was also noted that intrinsic incentives were important to bring all children to school and continue their studies. Handa (2002), using national household surveys in rural Mozambique, however, found that literacy campaigns that highlight the value of education are more significant than income interventions for parents' decisions to send their children to school.

Children are sometimes given the responsibility to generate income for their parents in times of income crisis or they are involved in non-income household chores at the expense of schooling. Using primary school data from Uganda, Björkmany (2005) found that income shocks in a household have negative and highly significant effects on children's enrolment in primary schools, particularly for girls. As Levison and Moe (1998) documented, household chores are the

main deterring factor for girls in rural Peru. Poverty adversely affects girls' schooling along with negative cultural beliefs (Filmer, 1999; Arif et al., 1999).

### **2.7.1.6 Family Size**

The interplay between family size and parents' investment in their children's education has been the focus of empirical studies which argue on the ground of a resource dilution effect (Guimbert et al., 2008; Gomes, 1984; King and Alderman, 1998; Maralani, 2008). Since family resources are limited, particularly in poor households, having many children in the family will exhaust parents' expenditures on their children's education. Hence, family size exhausts family resources, thereby adversely affecting the educational decisions parents make. It was also stated that in some studies large family size provides a chance for younger children to attend school while leaving older children to help their parents generate incomes.

## **2.8. Supply-Side Determinants**

Unlike research on household factors, research on supply-side determinants of schooling examines school processes and material inputs in their analysis of enrolment and attainment.

### **2.8.1 Availability of Schools**

Among supply side determinants, the availability of schools and distance to school are the foremost factors which determine the enrolment of children. A study using experimental design conducted by Burde and Linden (2009) in the Ghor province of Afghanistan highlighted that having a community-based school in a village increased the enrolment of children by 56 per cent, reflecting the fact that the majority, but not all, children would attend if schools are readily accessible. This amounted to an increase in enrolment of 47 percentage points after accounting for prior enrolment of children in schools outside the village.

When children have to walk less than one mile, there is 70 per cent enrolment; when children live two or more miles away, there is 30 per cent enrolment (Ibid:29).

In Ethiopia, after controlling for socioeconomic differences across households, Schaffner (2004) showed that each additional kilometer of distance from the nearest primary school reduces school registration rates by two to three percentage points, up to distances of 12 to 15 kilometers.

### 2.8.2. School Fees

Other supply side measures taken by governments in developing countries include eliminating school fees so that children from all groups can join. The World Bank (2009) shows that school fees feature importantly in family budgets, so that even small increases in fees can have large enrollment benefits. This sensitivity to fees means that compulsory attendance laws are not closely linked to levels of enrolment. However, in situations where costs of education are seriously reduced or eliminated, usually with substantial support from donors (Clemens, Radelet and Bhavnani, 2004), enrolment soars.

Quasi-experimental evidence from Colombia, following the introduction of a fee reduction program based on income in Bogotá in 2004, further shows a significant effect of cost-reduction, raising the probability of enrolment of the poorest children by three per cent (Barrera-Osorio, Linden and Urquiola, 2007). In Bangladesh, girls' school enrolment has grown from roughly half the level of boys' schooling to slightly surpassing the boys' level due to a Female Stipend Program (FSP) begun in the early 1990s that pays parents to keep their daughters in school (Arends-Kuenning and Amin, 2004).

### 2.8.3 School Facilities

Other supply side factors, such as teacher training, availability of books as well as class size, have also influenced access to education and quality of learning. Deolalikar (1997) describes the dilemma policy makers face in developing countries regarding school facilities and teacher-student ratio, since these could have opposite effects on poor households and non-poor households. Expanding school facilities would increase children's enrolment from the poorest quartile but has little impact on children in the top quartiles. Improving quality through the teacher-student ratio and textbooks would increase enrolment of the richest quartile which, on the other hand, negatively affects the poorest children.

This is because improvements in the teacher-pupil ratio often happens at the expense of other schooling inputs, such as bursaries and scholarships, that primarily help poor students to attend primary school. This view is supported by Buchmann and Hannum (2001) who argue that developing countries do not have the capacity to compromise between the two scenarios given their scarce resources, mainly budgetary that predominantly finance teacher salaries.



### 2.9 Other Factors

#### 2.8.1 Conflict and Fragile Situations

The status of a country highly determines its capability of providing schools and other social services. A country that fails to provide key services to its population, including education, would have a higher number of children left out of school (Mosselson et al., 2009; Chauvet and Collier, 2007). In a qualitative investigation, that attempted to understand children's perspectives and experiences of the barriers to accessing primary education in the Democratic Republic of Congo, it was found that conflict and violence are the main barriers to educational access for children. Parents would not send their children to school due to the growing volatility of the country and the failing education system as a result of incapacity of the government in power. Hence, the case of fragile states contributes both to supply- and demand-side barriers to accessing education. Conflict and insecurity limit the provision and expansion of infrastructure, including teacher training, ultimately crumbling the whole education system (Guimbert et al., 2008; Save the Children, 2010).

#### 2.9.2 Caste and Ethnicity

There are also studies which attribute the prevalence of certain groups excluded from education due to socially constructed marginalization (Castro-Leal et al., 1999; Fleisch, Shindler and Perry, 2010). In some countries, certain groups are systematically excluded from education, such as Peru's and Nepal's indigenous people (Stromquist, 2007; Stash and Hannum, 2001) and India's untouchables (Chudgar, 2009). Stash and Hannum (2001) using representative data from Nepal's fertility, family planning and health survey, highlight that, in the contemporary era, caste and ethnicity continue to determine children's educational opportunity through stratifying mechanisms. More importantly, there is no government initiative to address the issue despite the increasing adverse effects on children's destinies.

There are influencing factors at all levels. In some countries, such as India and Nepal, the issue of caste determines the fate of children across the whole country, whereas in Ethiopia, discrimination prevails at regional and community levels. Studies suggest that rapid enrolment increase does not necessarily mean narrowing educational disparities by caste in Nepal (Stash and Hannum, 2001:5). In China, despite sharp economic growth accompanied by rapid enrolment, ethnic differences in attainment and enrolment continued to prevail (Hannum, 2002). Bam Dev Sharda (1977, as cited in Stash and Hannum, 2001) in his study of caste and social

mobility in 11 villages in the Punjab, Haryana and Himachal Pradesh, India, found that the effects of caste on education are stronger than any other factor. Illiteracy levels were observed to be low among high castes and high among the lowest castes.

Examining data from schools, colleges, and other educational institutions in Uttar Pradesh, Haq (1992, as cited in Stash and Hannum, 2001:358) found that despite modernization, higher castes continue to dominate educational opportunities, including teaching and other positions in schools and universities. He concluded that educational inequality is a function of an overarching social inequality since education systems mirror inherent value structures that are opposed to equalization of opportunities. More importantly, he states how the system of modern education perpetuates caste dominance: From the apex of the organizational hierarchy to the bottom, caste dominance persists and manipulates the educational structure along caste lines in order to strengthen its traditional control.

### **2.10 Determinants of Education in Ethiopia**

Of the demand and supply factors mentioned in the general literature, the following seem to be particularly relevant to Ethiopia.

#### **2.10.1 Perception of Education**

Empirical studies show that low perceptions of the value of education substantially hinder the schooling of children in most rural parts of the country (Roschanski, 2007; Weir, 2010). According to the World Bank (2005:135), '[...]a plausible barrier to schooling of children may simply be the fact that parents themselves have not been to school and have no idea what schooling can do for their children'.

Several reports have indicated that the existence of low awareness and perceived low utility of education among the rural population is the main factor for under-enrolment, particularly in the rural areas of the country (Shibeshi, 2005; MoE, 2006). This might be because rural areas of the country have been out of reach for any kind of educational facilities or schools for many decades in the past. Even today, not all areas of the country have schools, in particular in remote and pastoral communities.

Gender discrimination is also evident in parental decisions on their children's schooling. In many parts of the country, there are wide gender disparities despite efforts to close the gender gap. There is a long-established low value regarding girls' education in many parts of the country. The diverse problems that parents face with regard to schooling are more pronounced with

respect to girls' education. Cultural beliefs that girls should be left at home and get married early and the commonly expected low future return on investing in their education are the main factors influencing parents (Schaffner, 2004; Fuller et al., 1991; Weir, 2010).

### **2.10.2 Cost of Schooling**

Poverty, in its multifaceted dimensions, is a prominent factor to explain parents' inability to send their children to school, particularly in the rural areas. Despite the rhetoric of free primary education, parents continue to incur indirect costs of schooling, and sometimes school fees (Perezniето and Jones, 2006; Schaffner, 2004; Tietjen, 1998). Using longitudinal household data from 2000 through 2005 to determine the progress of the MDGs in rural Ethiopia, Bluffstone et al. (2008) revealed that there was a periodic income shock (rise and fall) by one-third in a year. This meant that parents often could not afford schooling, leaving most of the MDGs less likely to be achieved within the time frame, particularly universal primary education. Similarly, Roschanski (2007) and Björkmany (2005) also documented that due to the subsistence economy, households are unable to absorb frequent economic shocks, such as harvest failure or loss of livestock.

### **2.10.3 Child Labor**

The prevalence of child labor is among the highest in the world (Admassie and Bedi, 2003). The extent of child labor participation in rural areas is very high due to the nature of the livelihood. Besides, it is attributed to the fact that parents, particularly in the rural areas, view their children in Ethiopia as an investment in terms of assuring the livelihoods of their families (CSA, 2001; Abebe and Kjørholt, 2009). According to Admassie and Bedi (2003), using rural household data from peasant associations, children have household and farm responsibilities as early as at the age of four years and on average contribute 29-30 hours of labour per week in the rural areas surveyed. This trend manifests in low school attendance.

Another study by Cockburn and Dositie (2007), using rural household survey data, concluded that the marginal productivity of children is almost one-third to one-half of that of adults, implying that children and adults are almost perfect substitutes. Studies, such as Schaffner (2004), Tietjen (1998), Admassie (2003), and Jones et al. (2006) illustrate the prevalence of child labor in rural households and the adverse interplay with children's enrolment. As Cockburn (2000:10) states 'Existing studies on schooling in rural Ethiopia suggest that the income

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opportunities provided by (opportunity cost of) child labor constitute a major, perhaps the principal, reason for low school enrolment’.

The gender issue of child labor is also evident, leaving girls with heavier workloads than boys. It varies across rural-urban divisions, with boys and girls having more work in rural areas. Girls are engaged in activities, such as cleaning up animal dung, fetching water from rivers and farm work. Boys, on the other hand, are involved in activities, such as plowing, herding, harvesting, threshing and carrying wood (Poluha, 2007; Alemayehu, 2007). Most of these activities are done at the expense of the children’s schooling.

Jones et al. (2005) attribute the prevalence of child labor, particularly on farm land, to the government’s recent development strategy, Agricultural Development Led to Industrialization (ADLI). They argue that the strategy implies a labor-intensive agricultural development strategy as the main development policy. This heavy dependence on the rural labor force for national development would lead to increasing demands for child labor on one hand, and the continued need to have a large number of offspring to meet household labor needs on the other (Ibid).

## CHAPTER- THREE

### Research Design and Methodology

**3.1.** This chapter presents the procedures that were used to conduct the study, focusing on research design, Research method, sample and sampling procedures, research instruments, and data collection and analysis.

#### **3.2. Research Design**

As described by Patton (2002:253), the research design depends on the purpose of the study, the audience of the study, the funds available, the political context and the interest/ability/biases of the researcher. Though often not straightforward, the research approach along with its philosophical assumptions would guide the selection of the research design (Bryman, 2008; Vulliamy, 1990).

To conduct this study, a case study research design was used. It was appropriate for exposing details of the participants' views through using multiple methods in order to construct a richer, more nuanced picture of their reality. According to Tellis (1997) 'Case studies are multi-perspective analyses. This means that the researcher considers not just the voice and perspective of the actors, but also of the relevant groups of actors and the interaction between them. This aspect is a salient point in the characteristic that case studies possess. They give a voice to the powerless and voiceless'.

Yin (2009) indicates that a case study is used when there is a need to understand a real-life phenomenon in depth, including important contextual conditions of the phenomenon. In other words, the case study method allows for retaining the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events and to study how people act and interact within their natural setting. For that reason, case studies often favors qualitative methods because they are considered particularly beneficial for the generation of intensive, detailed examinations of a case (Bryman, 2008; Yin 2009). Various types of case studies have been identified, including exploratory, explanatory and descriptive. The boundaries between each type are not straightforward, since they have significant areas of overlap. This study lies within the explanatory and exploratory typologies,

seeking not only to describe and explain what causes children not to be in school, but also to explore the wider processes (social as well as economic situation.) influencing the case.

### **3.3 Research Method**

There are two major approaches in social science research, quantitative and qualitative, although some scholars argue that the distinction between the two is questionable (Brock-Utne, 1996). The mixed methods approach is now often used by combining both qualitative and quantitative methods (Bryman, 2008). Each approach has its own set of philosophical assumptions and principles which assist researchers in approaching and dealing with the world under investigation (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 2003).

The quantitative approach has its roots in positivism which broadly advocates for the use of natural science methods, such as experiment and survey to study the social world (Bryman, 2008). The positivist orientation considers the social world as a discrete object, independent of the researcher. Its ontological position holds that the social world external to the individual's cognition is a real world made up of hard and tangible structures. Hence, numerical measures and variables can be used to study human behaviour (Burrell and Morgan, 1985). Research based on the quantitative approach starts with a hypothesis and data are gathered to test the hypothesis. The aim is to develop generalizations to a wider population from a limited sample using a deductive approach.

The qualitative approach is embedded in interpretive social science. Unlike positivists, the interpretive perspective contends that the social world is mainly relativistic and can only be understood from the point of view of individuals who are directly involved in the activities which are to be studied (Burrell and Morgan, 1985). Hence, ontologically, interpretivism is dominated by the constructionist dimension which holds that social entities should be considered as social constructions built from the perceptions and actions of social actors. For the interpretive social researcher, the only reality is that constructed by the individuals involved in the research. In other words, social life exists as people experience it and give meaning to it (Marshall and Rossman, 1999; Barton, 2006; Creswell, 1994). The methods used would largely be designed to use participants' own words and experience to elucidate the phenomena under study (Bryman, 2008; Patton, 2002). Unlike in quantitative research, categories emerge from the informants or participants' context-bound information as qualitative research progresses.

The qualitative researcher is interested in understanding how people make sense of their lives, experiences and the structure of the world. Instead of keeping at a distance from the reality and the informants, he/she heavily relies on the voices and interpretations of the informants, and keeps a minimum distance from those researched (Creswell, 1994). The researcher is, hence, the primary instrument for data collection and analysis. For this reason, the qualitative investigator admits his/her values and biases, as well as the authenticity of the information gathered from the field. He/she is also expected to faithfully report the realities.

This study employs qualitative research in an attempt to explore why children are excluded from education and the role of different stakeholders and institutions in creating and sustaining this.

### **3.4 Rationale for Choosing the Qualitative**

The characteristics of qualitative research show that it is appropriate for studies like this one. The focus of the study is related to the different backgrounds of the two groups, a rural versus urban group and how these contribute to excluding children from education. Stromquist (2001) argues that in order to capture the dynamics of social exclusion and discrimination that children continue to face in the education system, qualitative research is urgently needed among scholars.

Qualitative methods allow the researcher to capture the complexity of social phenomena as expressed in daily life and with meanings the participants themselves attribute to these phenomena (Marshal and Rossman, 1999; Barton, 2006; Creswell, 1994). One cannot understand human actions without understanding the meaning that participants attribute to actions – their thoughts, feelings, beliefs and views. This would, for instance, help to understand the views of different stakeholders, including children, regarding the provision of education and the mechanisms for their exclusion from education.

Creswell (2003) describes the need to have more open-ended questioning, one characteristic of qualitative methods, in order to investigate the phenomena in depth as the researcher listens carefully to what people say or do in their life setting. This creates an environment where the researcher interacts with the participants, thereby having first hand information and an opportunity to observe the settings personally. ‘Because thoughts, beliefs, and assumptive worlds are involved, the researcher needs to understand the deeper perspectives that can be captured through face-to-face interactions’ (Ibid).

### **3.5 Source of Data**

The relevant data for the study was generated from both primary and secondary sources. The primary data obtained from Regional education office expert, Woreda education office expert, Nomad pastoral children family in rural and urban, Pastoral children and PTA members. The respondent were chosen as primary source of data because of the fact that they are directly involved in the school system and are hoped to have better exposure, experience and firsthand information regarding the issue under the study.

As the secondary data in this study, the important policy documents were analyzed to understand the polices, strategies and directive of the government regarding UPE. Specifically, the federal and regional government policies and strategies, such as the education policy, the consecutive Education Sector Development Programm I, II and III (ESDP), the new proclamation of Charities and Societies as well as the Annual Education Abstracts of the Ministry of Education (MoE) were consulted.

### **3.6 The study area and Population**

The district of Dubti (Zone 1) is located in the Middle Awash Valley and is one of the main areas in the region where irrigated agriculture has been developed since the 1960s. Over time, the district has become the political and economic centre of the region, with urban centers and an increasing number of non-Afar people working in farmlands or in town. Due to constrained access to this vital dry season grazing land and increased competition over natural resources, Afar pastoralists in this district tend to have more diversified activities, like petty trade and handicraft. In fact, there is currently a wide range of economic activity and settlement patterns among the Afar of Dubti: pastoralist, agro-pastoralist, agriculture, wage employment in town, urban and urban-rural business, etc. Though the provision of education is well developed in comparison with other districts, still there are challenges that needs to be addressed.

There are several reasons for selecting this particular Woreda for the study. First, it is the area manageable in terms of finance and transportation. Second, I worked in the area with the Afar Pastoralist Development Associassion as the Education Disk manager. This triggered me to study these particular groups.



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The region, Afar, one of the region which remain behind quite low in NER comparing with other regions, which is 31.9 per cent NER for the year 2010/11 (MoE, 2011). According to the Woreda educational expert, the region still has the lowest achievement compared to the other regions. Woreda seems to show decrease in the number of students.

Year	Primary School Coverage and Enrolment	
	Number of primary schools	Number of students
2010	22	6847
2011	23	6655
2012	21	4653
2013	20	4922
2014	20	4922

Source: unofficial statistics collected in the Woreda education office

The Dubti Woreda had decrease in the number of students during 2011-2014, with a decline in 2011/14 by almost 10 per cent. The number of primary schools decreased from 23 in 2011, 21 in 2012, to 20 in 2013/14.

### 3.7 Sample Size and Sample Technique

In qualitative research, participants are carefully selected on the basis of how information rich they are. Unlike quantitative research, attempts are not made to arrive at statistical generalization about the whole population. Rather, and particularly when using case study design, the goal is to expand and generalize theories (analytical generalization) and not to enumerate frequencies (Yin, 1994:21). Often, the number of informants is kept low so that in-depth understanding about the phenomena under study can be carried out rigorously. In doing so, qualitative researchers should be vigilant when sampling participants because of the fact that the credibility and trustworthiness of the findings highly depend on the quality of the samples and sampling techniques. As Patton (2002:245) states, the validity, meaningfulness and insights generated from qualitative inquiry have more to do with the information richness of the cases selected and the observational/analytical capabilities of the researcher, than with sample size.

In line with the qualitative approach of this study, I adopted the purposive sampling technique. The assumption behind that to make the number of informants low so that in-depth

understanding about the phenomena under the study can be carried out rigorously and to get rich and more nuanced information. Ten families who have out-of-school children were selected from rural and urban group in the Dubti Woreda by collaborating with KETB and PTA. Since there were more than one out-of-school child in a family, parents, exceptionally, gave the names of all of their school-aged children who had not been to school. From that list, a simple random sample of six children, three boys and three girls from each group, was taken.

The other key informants were two Parent-Teacher Associations (PTA) consisting of seven people: namely two teachers, three parent representatives, one head of KETB and one school director. In addition, the education government officials at Woreda and regional were included such are; one educational expert from Woreda and two from regional educational expert. These informants are important particularly in setting policies which affect both groups, and in fighting the challenges of out-of-school children. For instance, PTAs have the responsibility for raising awareness of the community on the benefits of education and for encouraging parents to send their children to school. They are expected to work hand-in-hand with the community to solve educational problems. Government educational experts at each level are also important for designing strategies and policies and for implementing them.

### **3.8 Data Gathering Tools**

In order to gather the required data from the study respondents, four data collection tools were used namely, focus group discussion, semi-structured interview, document analysis and observation. Given below is a description for each of these instruments.

#### **3.8.1 Focus Group Discussion**

A focus group discussion is a group discussion in which several participants, ranging from six to twelve, discuss a fairly tightly defined question. The focus is on the interaction within the group and the joint construction of meanings (Bryman, 2008:474-475).

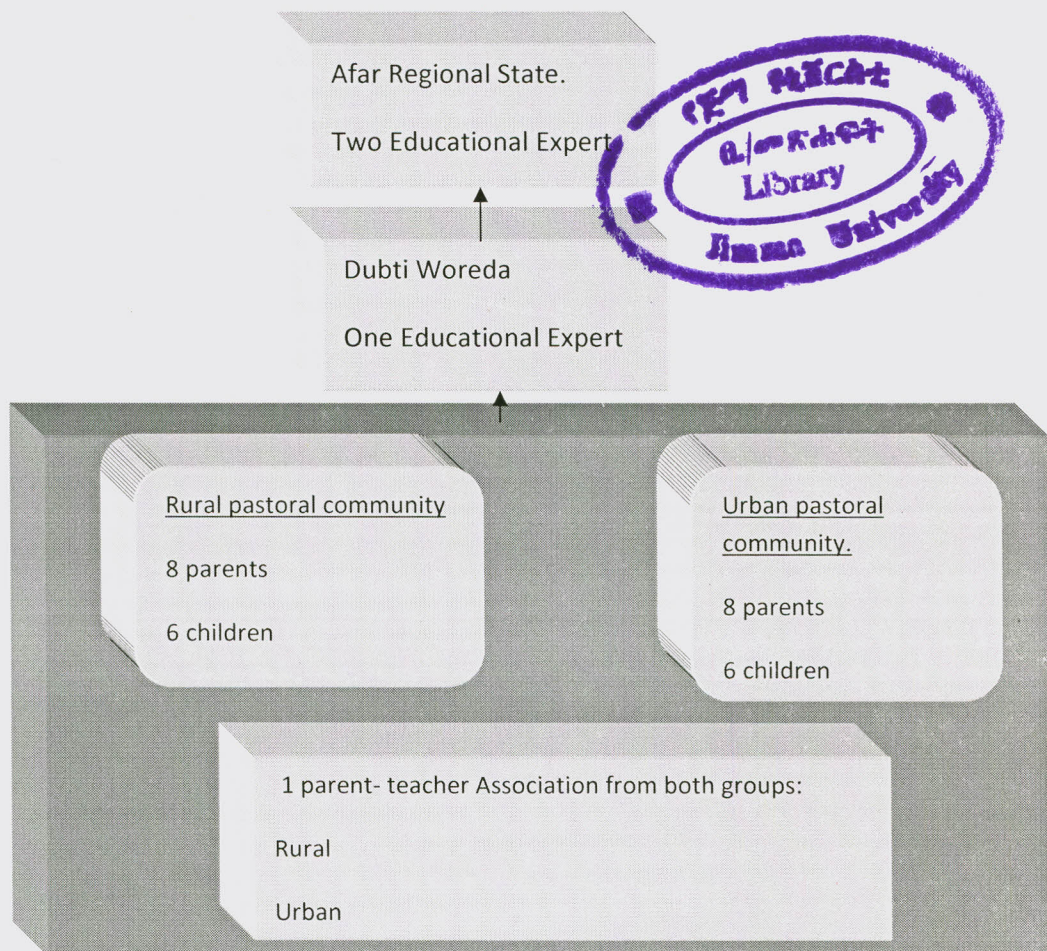
Focus group discussions were conducted with two categories of informants: the parents of out-of-school children from the urban/rural groups, children from the urban/rural and two Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) from rural/urban, (see Figure 4.1). The discussion was guided by pre-prepared open questions (see Appendix 1, 2, 3, 4). The intention was to allow individuals from the two groups to present their views on the issues raised during the discussion, and ‘...discuss a certain issue as member of a group’, rather than simply as an individual (Bryman,

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2008:473). The group discussion created a sense of companionship and interaction. The representatives from the rural group appeared to be particularly enthusiastic and emotional when speaking about their situation in the area. A focus group discussion was also designed for children within an age range of 10-15 years. Both genders were included in order to get their independent thoughts and perceptions. The sessions took up to two hours. All discussions were noted in a notebook.

### 3.8.2. Semi-structured Interviews

Interviews serve to get an insight into issues that cannot be observed directly, such as people's experience, knowledge, feeling, attitude, perspectives and activities that happened at some point of time, how people organize and define their activities or the world, through questioning them (Patton, 2002). According to Bryman (2008:436), semi-structured interview 'is probably the most widely employed method in qualitative research'.



Figure; 4.1: The Number and Categories of Interviewees

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The semi-structured interviews were prepared to get perspectives from government officials on the situation on the ground for the two groups in particular and the trend of UPE in general. The interviews were conducted bottom up, starting with woreda officials and continuing to successive levels up to the regional level. At woreda and regional levels, one government official responsible for overseeing the development of universal primary education was interviewed. At regional level, two government officials, one responsible for overseeing NGO participation in the region and the other responsible for ensuring UPE in the region, were included. Since there were no NGOs operating in the area, no interviews could be conducted with them. The interviews were guided by pre-prepared questions for each of the group of interviewees (see Appendix 5, 6, 7).

### **3.8.3 Document Analysis**

Documents refer to already available sources of data that are not produced at the request of the researcher (Bryman, 2008). Such documents are important in case studies, ‘to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources’ (Yin, 2003:87).

In this study, important policy documents were analyzed to understand the policies, strategies and directives of the government regarding UPE. Specifically, the federal and regional government policies and strategies, such as the education policy, the consecutive Education Sector Development Programme I, II and III (ESDP), the new proclamation of Charities and Societies as well as the Annual Education Abstracts of the Ministry of Education (MoE) were consulted. The document analysis formed part of Chapter 2.

### **3.8.4. Observation**

Observation and informal conversations are also used as methods of data collection. According to Bryman (2008), the major type of observation used in qualitative research is unstructured participant observation. The participant observer immerses him- or herself into a social setting, observing people’s behavior, listening to their conversation and asking questions (Bryman, 2008:402). During the field work, personal observation was used when visiting the community of Afar pastoral, particularly how children were involved in animal herding.

Informal conversations took place when informants offered additional information, normally after the formal discussion or interview sessions. This information sometimes contradicted what they had said in the formal sessions. It has been included in the study because the information

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was considered to be correct and valid. It happened particularly because some parents were afraid of speaking freely in the presence of the officials.

The data generated from the interactions with a group is often deeper and richer than when applying other methods, such as individual interviews, due to the fact that it involves debates and discussions with different people who have different opinions and views (Bryman, 2008; Marshall and Rossman, 2006). However, it may sometimes be difficult to manage if the group is too large. In this study, each group was to consist of ten people because I wanted to include both parents. Hence, I set up four discussion sessions: two with each of the two groups. At the end, only sixteen parents participated since three mothers and one father did not come.

### **3.9 Data collection procedure**

Before starting the research on the ground, a research clearance was obtained from regional and Woreda offices to get access to the target population. Since schools and PTAs had no statistics on out-of-school children, Kebele officials organized and gathered parents who had children that were not in school. Parents, at first, did not want to be singled out and participate in the study since the issue of out-of-school children is a sensitive one in the area. Even when informed about the very purpose of the study, most parents were not convinced by its authenticity and many opted not to participate.

The selection process was done by collaborating with the KETB and PTA, and asking whether parents were willing to participate in the study as well as describing the place and time of the interview session. Parents were also asked if they would allow their children to take part in the study. When realizing that the study was unrelated to politics, some of them expressed their willingness to participate. As most parents work in the field, focus group discussions were conducted in the afternoon and on weekends. The purpose of the research was reiterated before the start of the focus group interviews and explanations were given related to the questions that would be asked. The discussion was conducted in the local Afar language. There was no use of translation.

Managing a group discussion in an environment where people are not used to sharing and discussing often proves to be difficult (Patton, 2002). In the concrete case, the discussion was often at first dominated by a few people, particularly male parents, and I had to encourage everyone to speak freely and contribute to the issues raised. Because parents knew each other

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and had the same status in the community, all participants gradually became involved in the discussion.

As Patton (2002) describes, probes are an important instrument in qualitative research. They are primarily follow-up questions used to encourage the informant(s) to tell more and to clarify a specific point. These proved to be crucial. There were occasions when parents said, for example, 'The primary reason we have kept our children away from school is the way of our life and economic reasons, such as school cost. My curiosity was immediately aroused and when asking 'Would you send your children to school if you received financial aid from the government or another institution?' Then, more details would follow and one parent said 'There would still be gaps that financial aid could not fill, for instance, we have livestock. Who would herd if we had to send all of our children to school? We have livestock's where children are supposed to take part.'

Regarding interviews with children, I had to assume the role of a 'funny guy' in order to encourage them to speak freely. As with their parents, I informed them about the purpose and the general kinds of questions, and solicited their views on schooling, why they failed to go to school from their own perspective, and how they felt about it. Two focus group discussions were held for the two groups, comprising six children, of whom three were girls. After the data collection, I did preliminary analysis of the data I had gathered so far from the key informants, parents and their children and from my personal observations.

The next groups of informants were PTAs and educational experts at Woreda and regional level. Focus group discussion was used with the PTA, and semi-structured interviews with the officials. With regard to interviews at Woreda and regional levels, officials were very cooperative and the interviews were conducted in their offices.

### **3.10 Data Analysis Procedure**

Data analysis 'consists of examining, categorizing, tabulating, testing otherwise recombining both qualitative and quantitative evidence to address the initial proposition of the study' (Yin, 2003:109). Data analysis started with transcribing and translating interview records followed by coding, and then by categorizing. The data were categorized into different but interrelated factors. The data analysis was corroborated with the document analysis and has been interpreted within the theoretical framework and literature reviewed in Chapter 2.

In order to classify and simplify the qualitative data gathered from the different informants, a coding scheme was developed. Hence, each quote in Chapter 4 is followed by a code referring to the origin of the quote. For instance, quotes from rural pastoral parents are coded [FGDRP-18/09/2010], referring to the focus group interview with rural parents followed by the date. Other keys are: interview, INT; Rural group, RU; children, CHI; Woreda and regional educational experts, WEX and REX.

### **3.11 Validity and Reliability**

Validity and reliability are concepts that are generally associated with quantitative research. In qualitative research, they relate to concepts, such as trustworthiness, authenticity and dependability (Bryman, 2008; Patton, 2002; Creswell, 1994; Brock-Utne, 1996). Accordingly, validity would refer to trustworthiness, providing a fair and balanced account of the experience of the participants (Bryman, 2008). As described by Patton (2000), validity in qualitative research depends on a variety of factors, ranging from how information rich the selected cases are to the capability of qualitative researchers.

Being familiar to the area of study, Dubti Woreda, enhanced the chance of trust and openness and that people would sense that I was not going to do them any harm. Rather, I encountered much praise and admiration for the fact that I wanted to understand their particular situation. As Toma (2000, as cited in Marshal and Rossman, 2006) argued ‘closeness to the people and phenomenon through intense interactions provide subjective understanding that can greatly increase the quality of qualitative data.’ Detailed descriptions from the researcher’s immersion and authentic experiences in the social world of the informants yield quality and validity to the study. In this field research, the involvement of the researcher helped to gather quality data from informants.

In order to avoid possible bias, triangulation was used in terms of methods, type and number of participants, and nature of the documents consulted. Triangulation has often been used as a way of treating validity in qualitative research (Brock-Utne, 1996; Patton, 2002). As described by Tellis (1997), case studies are designed to bring out details from the viewpoint of the participants by using multiple sources of data. On the other hand, Patton (2002) describes how one can attain triangulation in qualitative research by combining both interviews and observations, mixing different types of purposeful samples, or using competing theoretical perspectives. It is often said that studies that use only one method are more vulnerable to errors which could potentially lead

to questioning of their findings, as opposed to studies that use multiple methods (Patton, 2002). The latter could provide information from multiple sources which could be used to cross-check validity. In this study, focus group and semi-structured interviews with multiple informants have been used to ensure validity through triangulation, and document analysis and personal observations have been used to corroborate the interview findings.

Reliability, on the other hand, refers to the reliability of the findings in another setting (Bryman, 2008; Creswell, 1994) underlining the internal and external consistency of the study. Sometimes, the context-bound nature of qualitative research appears to challenge the applicability of the concept (Ibid; Brock-Utne, 1996). However, reliability in field research like this one depends on the researcher's insight, awareness, suspicions and questions (Neuman, 2000). Specifically, it has to do with the subjectivity and context of both the researcher and the interviewees. This hampers the full applicability of the concept, for instance the behavior or response of the members would not be the same across contexts.

The other aspect of reliability regards the extent to which the findings can be generalized. It is not the intent of qualitative research to provide statistical generalization across the population, but rather to provide a unique interpretation of the phenomena and, as described by Yin (1994), to arrive at analytic generalization. However, as described by Freeman and Pankhurst (2003) and others, such as Dea (2007), the degree of situation between the two groups in this study and the situation of pastoralist in the region is presumably the same. Therefore, since the context is likely to be the same elsewhere in the region, there is a probability that the findings can be generalized.

### **3.12 Ethical Considerations**

Dealing with sensitive topics presents a number of ethical issues for the researcher to resolve prior to commencing a study. Signed evidence of informed consent was not necessary in this study. The approval by the WEB and the KETB was sufficient. However, oral consent was essential, and participants were instructed on their right to withdraw or decline to answer a question prior to data collection. Some parents declined to participate in the study.

Anonymity was guaranteed and confidentiality adhered to particularly with respect to sensitive issues. While the real names of parents and children are not given, the education officials allowed me to use the title of their positions but not their real names.



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The fact that I am familiar to the area where the study was conducted meant that I had to take precautions to avoid possible biases. Particularly, even though I am not from the region, I have sympathy for them since I strongly support principles of fairness and equality of opportunity. I was accepted by the pastoralist group due to the fact that I went there to study their problem.

This could potentially have overtaken my role as a researcher and the ethics I am supposed to follow. However, I counter balanced this by using the same methodology and raising the same issues with both groups to understand the reality on the ground (Bryman, 2008). After finishing the data collection from the PTA, parents and children, the preliminary findings of the study was discussed with the Woreda educational expert. I was then asked to provide all the findings to the Woreda education bureau after the completion of the study. The results of the research appear in the following chapter.

## Chapter Four

### 1. PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

This chapter analyses the reasons behind the exclusion of Afar pastoralist of children from education in Dubti Woreda based on the data collected through interviews and personal observations. It also examines the views of the government officials in light of the policy analysis considerations in Chapter 2 on the importance of UPE.

#### 4.1 Exclusion of Children from Primary Education

##### 4.2.1 Factors for Afar pastoralist Children's Exclusion from Education

Look, sending our children to school conflicts with our functional-mobility Patterns which is in dry-land areas are key to enhance animal production. [FGDRP – 4/4/2014].

This is what one of the Afar pastoralist parent said during the discussion. He has six children at home who help him. To understand the reason for the difficulty expressed, Luck of settlement and flexible mode of education provision, lack of relevance, parent education and lack of relevancy are outlined below based on my personal observation and discussions.

##### 4.2.2 Luck of flexible mode of education provision

The pastoralist way of life is herd management and livestock raising. They do this by moving from place to place. The mobility patterns in this are key to enhancing animal production.

As one parent said in the discussion;

Our way of life is livestock herding and pasturing. So we spend most of our time at pasturing and looking after our animals. [FGDRP-4/4/2014]

The vulnerability of pastoralist area to repeated drought challenges their livelihood; even seasons in the year have a significance influence. For instance, at a time of winter there is water problem, they move with their animals seeking water and grass to feed their animals. And they spend more than four months depending on the situation.

There is hardly any evidence that educational systems have the capacity to address this trade-off satisfactorily in contexts where the school-based system represents the only educational option.

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Restraining or splitting the households into(less) mobile and completely settled units has both short-and long-term negative economic impacts. It appeared that there is little room for interaction school-based system and pastoralist way of life, for there is nothing that brings them together. For instance had the education provision approach been flexible which suits with their lifestyle, it would have gone together. During the discussion with PTA, the kebele leader said:

Had the education provision approach been flexible and address our needs, issue of out-of school children would have been resolved. But in this manner it is difficult to make all children enroll in the school. Because, if we splinted children from their family in order to enroll them in the school, the family will lose its business activity which is key for survival. ' How can they will accept sending their children to school? [FGDRPTA- 4/4/2014]

The discussion got heated when a question was raised about the importance of education and what universal education means. It seems they give more value for their animals rather than education. Even they knew the importance of education, their living circumstances will not let them to be participated. In the discussion with pastoral parents, they described that due to their herd management and livestock mobility practice for decades becomes for them a bottle-neck problem to go with the system. One of them continued:

If our government able to address our problem and creates conducive environment by settling us, we would have sent our Children. [FGDPTA -8/4/2014]

The implication is that nomads who are not settled, using a school-based education service has serious consequences on herd management and livestock mobility patterns. So the people who strive to get food and water, to survive and the income they generate is not enough to cover school fees and other costs, since it just enough to cover the daily living costs. As parents pointed out:

All family members are involved in livestock pasturing in order to maximize the production and generate income. The work is physically demanding and labor intensive. We have to sale some of our vital cattle's to buy foods and other necessities at a high price. We After shopping, we often have no money to save. So we do not have money to send our children to school.[FGDRPTA- 8/4/2014]

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As Woreda expert indicated:

Initially, asking to send their children to school for the people who mobile from place to place looking for water and pasture for their livestock is not the right way in my opinion, and I don't think they will give you attention. [INTWEE- 8/4/2014]

### 4.2.3 Lack of Relevance

It seemed nomadic pastoralist communities are facing peculiar difficulties in accessing and continuing with education programmes due to lack of relevance. In order to guarantee nomadic children a formal education in the same subject areas and language as the other school children in the country has to be matched with a concern for relevance. access to conventional education. The Failure of the curricula designed for pastoralists to take into account their socio-economic, language and cultural realities, their capacity to support the educational system financially and materially, lets them not to participate in education as well as to drop-out.

Describing the current situation, this very Kebele leader pointed to the prevailing challenges in providing primary education in the absence of settlement program for our people. He continued:

The area, we pastoralist live vulnerable to repeated drought and food shortage which in turns forces us to mobile from place to place seeking water and food. So, how can we able to enroll all children in the school while there is no feeding program for them. [FGDRPTA-4/5/2014]

The PTA and KETB, whose main responsibility is to mobilize the whole community in awareness-raising, are not able in the absence of settled community. As one PTA member stated:

It is impossible to that we have to go and do extensive works to mobilize the Community where there is no feeding and settlement program. [FGDRPTA-4/4/2014]

At the same time, the government has explicitly stressed the rights of the region to make relevant curriculum for their own people. As indicated in the interview with Woreda education expert:

The question of relevance is highly problematic here due to absence sufficient skilled human power which able to design the curriculum from the perspectives of pastoral daily reality and pre-existing knowledge. Even we could not able to deliver first cycle by Afar language as medium of instruction. [INWEX- 8/4/2014]

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Though the policy indicates that, on the ground, yet not complete enough to be put into practice. Regarding on this issue, Woreda educational expert added:

The education office at regional level should give considerable attention to the curricular relevance. Because an appropriate and accessible curriculum plays a major role retaining learners; and it is important also in relation to securing for all children the right to quality education. [INTWEX- 8/4/2014]

The implication is that failure of making the curricular relevance for nomadic children still will have difficulty in taking advantage of education, even when it is available.

### 4.2.4 Parent Education

Here there is no awareness and training on the importance education, and most parents are illiterate. So it is impossible to ask these parents to send their children to school while parents do not know what is the importance of education importance. [FGDPTA-3/5/2014]

This is one of the kebele leader said in the group discussion. Parent education plays an important role in keeping and enrolling their children. Most of pastoral Afar parents are not educated and they give less value for education.

I have been teaching in Afar for several years. It seems to me the challenge for lack of Afar pastoral children participation in education is the absence of Parents education in Woreda level next to living circumstance situation. [ FGDRPTA-4/4/2014).

The above was indicated by one of the primary school teacher. Children will have more interest for education when they have educated parents. Hence, the status of parent's education has an impact on their children futurity. As kebele leader indicated:

In my opinion, I will not judge on parents if they prefer keeping their children with them. Because they have to support each other in order to survive together on this arid-land since there is no other alternative way which is conducive for them. Striving. [FGDRPTA- 22/4/2014]

This implies that educating nomad pastoral Afar parents and children in the absence of conducive environment is a big challenge. Hence, it is appropriate to see the living circumstances

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and economic situation of nomad pastoral Afar people before speaking about education generally.

This led to the question whether the parents would send their children to school if the regional government provides shelter, food, water, health, cloth, and all necessary school materials?

According to one parent:

Of course we will let some of our children to school. But sending all children will led us to helpless parents. They support us by doing a lot of work and at the same time being far away from your children is difficult as a parent. [FGDRPTA- 22/4/2014].

Despite the above claim, parents involve their children in the animal production partly to survive and generate as much income as possible to make ends meet.

### 4.2.4 Child labor

Animal rearing and herding requires extensive labor, starting from herding, grazing, fetching, water and protecting from wild animals like (Fox, lion), and enemy. So our children are our backbone. They do the work with us. [ FGDRP-4/4/2014 ]

I help my family by bringing firewood's, and looking after our cattle's  
While my sister brings water and prepare food. [FGDRCH-2/5/2014]

The above was indicated by both Afar pastoral parents and children. Children at an early stage get used to how their parents make practice in rearing and herding animals. As many livestock as possible are needed for a family to cope with the challenge of socio-economic problem; the whole family, including children take part. As one child stated;

My parents want me to acquire the skill of animal herd management and how to raise as many as possible; they told me that this is how I will survive and who I am. Of course that is what I see now. It is good also because we got milk, meat and butter, and money some times as well as value in our community. That is how me and my family can survive. [ FGDRCH-4/4/2014]

The rationale behind for parents to teach the skill of animal herd management and rearing to their children to some degree emanated from fear that there are no alternative options to survive in this

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dry-land. The only way to cope in this arid-land, having the skill of animal rearing and herding. Their fate is restricted to what has been passed on from generation to generation. Parents do not trust that the existing system have the capacity to address their problem satisfactorily.

According to one woman in the group:

The reason for our children participation in the activity is that due to their survival dependency on animal production and it is their future. How they will cope if they do not take this seriously at an early age. It is their livelihood; they have to be good at it. [FGDRP-4/5/2014].

After adapting the skills and practice, children start raising small herds at the age of seven, apart from collecting firewood. In some way, they develop a sense of responsibility, management and independence at the age of fourteen or fifteen years. Hence, children play an important role at animal raising and herding for the family while acquiring skills for their future livelihoods. Schooling has, therefore, never been matched with their lifestyle perspective which raises the issue of the relevance of education.

### **4.2.7 Disparities in the provision of educational services**

Disparities in the education provision are one of the barrier which hinder the participation of children in education. In the parent group discussion, it was explained as on factor not to send their children especially girls. One of PTA member indicated:

In Dubti Woreda Keble, we do not have enough access for first and second cycle primary education (1-8 grade) except in few kebeles first cycle primary education. And we have ABE which is not well and fully provide by human resources and materials. This ABE centers are far about 5 km from the area of households.

Regarding full primary education (1-8 grades) can be accessed in the center of Woreda, Dubti which is over 10 km far.” [FGDRPTA- 22/4/2014]

This show us that not only lack of first cycle and second cycle primary education, even they are not having access ABE which is well and fully equipped near to them.

Some of our children when they got access for first cycle primary education in the Kebele they live and if they want to continue their second cycle primary education after completing the first cycle, they face economic and distance problem to continue Education in another kebeles needs a place where to eat and live So they choose to drop-out. [ FGDPTA-22/4/2014]

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It was mentioned by the school principal. One can understand distance to second cycle primary education and specially secondary school, is a crucial deterrent for children to continue their education. As the principal continues:

Lack of local secondary school accounts for numerous dropouts, and places significant burden on those families who send their children to towns for further education.  
[FGDPTA-4/4/2014 ]

### **4.3 Factors for Pastoral Afar Children's Exclusion from Education In urban.**

Lack of settlement and flexible mode of education provision, Lack of relevance, Parent education, child labor and Disparities in the provision education seem to strongly determine the exclusion of rural pastoral Afar children's from education, the urban pastoral parent also had children who were excluded from education. The factors explaining their exclusion are discussed next.

#### **4.3.1 Economic circumstances**

Though some pastoral Afar parents able to settle in urban where they can get access basic needs, their economic suffer couldn't make to send some of their children to school.

I work for water department bureau as a driver and my salary is 1650br, and have got four childe whom three of them are girl while one is boy. I send one boy and one girl while keeping others in home. It is really difficult for us to make a living out of this. Though my religion orders me to fulfill their rights, It is difficult covering their school fees.”[FGDUPA-22/4/2014]

Issue of his living circumstance and income he earn were what informants raised as the most important to prevent them from sending their children to school. This seems to be because of low income resources and burden of cultural duty which forces him to support his relatives those who does not have income resources apart from his family. One parent explained that sharing shelter and feeding relatives those who have not any income to live, is our cultural duty. So the burden of supporting his relatives who could not able to led their life lies on him. According to these circumstances, he and his wife decided to send only the two children to school. He continued:



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Despite I am not educated person, I become to understand how much education is important in life, and it would be good if all of my children had gone to school. Unfortunately, I do not have the capacity to send all of my children at the same time. [FGDUPA- 22/4/2014]

This is what was repeatedly said by parents regarding their children's education. All confirmed that they send at least one child to school, leaving others at home. One PTA member stressed that the urban pastoral Afar know that education is good for their children, but the income they make and feeding and sharing relatives as cultural duty lets them to send some of their children. He continued:

We have a culture of sharing and supporting between families and relatives. If one person has a job, he have a cultural duty to feed and share what he has got with other relatives who do not have an income. Therefore, I am feeding an average of 10 people including my family. Imagine then, it is in fact unthinkable to sustain life day-by-day, let alone having all children in school. [FGUPTA-5/5/2014 ]

It has been a challenge for PTAs to carry out their role in the community. Both KETB and PTAs are accountable, amongst others, for bringing the children to school and preventing those already in school from dropping out. Parent representatives of the PTAs underlined that, while they do home-to-home awareness raising and follow up in the community, there is one question constantly posed by parents 'how come that we are expected to send all our children to school?' [FGDUPTA-5/5/2014] This appears to be related to the low income condition of parents coupled with the cost of schooling despite the policy of free primary education.

### 4.3.2 School Costs

It seems there is a misunderstood of the concept at understanding on providing free primary education at Woreda and regional level. In the focus discussion with PTAs, a school director said:

Even though the word free primary education has an ambiguity, it does not mean the parents expected not to pay. They have to pay registration fee which is used to maintain our school running while government pay salary for teachers. [FGDUPTA-5/5/2014]

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He went on saying, I understand that some pastoral parents are facing problem to sustain day-to-day life due to their cultural system mean supporting the one who have income to the one who does not have as well as the income resources forces them to choose among their children in order to send them to school though it is not their wishes. However, we have to remember even teaching some of our children and keeping our school running is our duty, and we do not have to give up till things become good. One parent said supporting the idea:

We are sending two or three of our children to school based on the family income resources; we are doing this with so much stress. I work as a field worker in NGO which the whole family depends and it is not enough to make a living, let alone cover school fees for my children. That is why we decided to keep the other four children at home.

[FGDUPA-22/4/2014]

A contentious issue was raised during the focus group discussion with the PTAs regarding how to interpret free primary education and decentralization when the responsibility for managing or maintaining primary schools is left to the community. The contribution is imposed on parents as a registration fee in an *ad hoc* manner. But the school director in the PTA wondered where to get the money in order to keep the school running if they do not enforce the fees. In the focus group discussion with the PTA, the director of the school said:

The government left primary education to community, to maintain its running and support financially. So it is our duty to keep this school running, to buy stationery, such as chalk, blackboard, chair and paper. The government left this to the community...

[Everyone showed their agreement with the argument by nodding].

[FGDUPTA-5/5/2014]

The decision on the amount of fees is taken by the KETB and the PTA after scrutinizing the planned work and running costs and expenses of the school for a given fiscal year. A family with many school-aged children would be more affected than those with fewer children since the fee is often imposed on a per head basis. There is no exemption for poor families. As pointed out by the kebele official, if they were to make an exemption for the poorest, everyone would start complaining. Instead, as he said, everyone is equal in terms of paying the fees.

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### 4.3.3 Family Size

I have got 11 children from my two wife. My income generates from government job which is 1500br, and I able to enroll three children in primary education while keeping others in home due to the size of my family and my income resources. [FGDUPA-5/5/2014].

This is one of the urban pastoral parents raised that the issue of family size lets them to send some of their children while keeping others in home to help family. One of PTA member added:

Since family resources are limited, particularly in poor households, having many Children in the family will exhaust parents' expenditures on their children's education. [FGDPTA -5/5/2014]

Hence, family size exhausts family resources, thereby adversely affecting the educational decisions parents make. It was also stated that in some studies large family size provides a chance for younger children to attend school while leaving older children to help their parents.

### 4.3.4 Lack of Relevance

The issue of using Amharic language as a medium of instruction in teaching and learning process as an one of the cause for their children to hate the class, to be discouraged and eventually to drop-out, Claimed by parent. He continued:

My son cannot speak or hear Amharic language, but the lesson is taught in Amharic. This results on him to repeat in the first class, and to hate the class and teachers. [FGDURPA- 4/4/2014]

The issue of mother tongue was raised in the group discussion with the urban pastoral parents as a reason for their children to be out-of-school by dropping-out. It was supported by the regional education expert, saying:

Linguistic mismatch between home and school may lead a child inadequate psychologically disturbed and dislike his school and teacher." [FGDREX- 4/4/2014]

Ethiopia's constitution as well as the education policy asserts language choose for education, particularly mother tongue for the primary school level. However, we have a shortage of man

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power to deliver at least the first cycle primary education in Afar language, claimed by regional education expert.

Conversely, one can deduce that failing to take in to consideration socio-economic, mother tongue, and cultural realities of one community in educational system makes learning and communication difficult which results in less performance and participation.

The general issue of out-of-school children was discussed with the educational officials in light of the existing policies and strategies for UPE in the country.

### 4.4 The Role of the Government

Despite it was obvious that there are out-of-school children both in rural pastoral and semi-pastoral urban area, regional educational experts defended the current government's policies and strategies. The main achievement identified by some government officials is the big leap forward in terms of enrolment in the country. As stated by one of the regional educational expert:

The main positive achievement we are proud of is the surge in enrolment and the diminishing gender gap. Because, if we compare between the Derg regime and now, we can see a lot of change in having school access. This is due to the priority given to expand access to primary education with special emphasis on rural and underserved areas, and on awareness raising campaigns.  
[INTREX- 7/5/2014 ]

Describing the government's position with regard to providing universal primary education, the regional educational expert added that:

providing quality education for all is the regional government's top priority. Our region one of the region that needs to work hard extensively in providing quality education for all our people due to backwardness. We have understood the importance of education for our population. So our plan and strategy are carefully designed to achieve that.  
[INTREX- 14/5/2014]

However, the educational experts at the Woreda level during informal discussion indicated that he doubted the feasibility of goal. As indicated by the Woreda educational expert:

Of course there are some progress at providing access of ABE and primary education in some kebele's. But this does not mean we will let all pastoral children to be enrolled in education by 2015. Because that needs coordination and support among different stakeholders since pastoral people needs are not only having access for education rather

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water, nutrition, health centers and so on. So, more emphasis should be given to settlement and feeding program by sustaining and maintaining in order to achieve our goal. [INTWEX- 14/5/2014]

Yet, an educational expert at the regional level claimed:

The region has done a lot in areas which had no schools before are now having primary schools under the government policy of focusing on underserved and remote areas which is a way of addressing the issue of equity to some extent. [FGIREX- 14/5/2014]

### 4.5. The Challenges of Providing UPE

Despite the encouraging figures, there is also skepticism among regional officials with regard to ensuring that every child's right to education is respected. A number of problems have affected the current goal of providing quality primary education for all. As one of an educational expert at the regional level stated:

There are many challenges facing us such are; management problem, human resources development problem, and quality and relevance problem. Our education strategies are in distress. We have to provide education for all without any rural/urban tradeoffs which is currently challenging the education system. [INTREX- 14/5/2014]

In a region where there are no reliable figures of out-of-school children, it would be difficult to know the number of children who are left out of school and whether that number is decreasing. As the regional education expert indicated: Even the data we collect regarding enrolled student from Woreda or kebele in order to provide regional coverage of primary education for federal education bureau is not reliable. Because we simply collect the data of all children in a given kebele or Woreda regardless they are enrolled students or not for the sake of to provide statics for federal government and to be considered that the region is doing a lot. He continued saying:

It is impossible to achieve universal primary education by 2015 in Afar region due to different factors. There are things that we have to solve and arrange. We may say we will achieve for the sake of politics but the reality is opposite. [INTWEX- 05/5/2014]

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In the following discussion we will try to see the underlying factors for the contrasting view of educational expert.

### **4.6 Perspectives of Government Officials**

#### Community Participation

One of the main strategies for the government to achieve UPE is community participation. According to Woreda educational expert:

In the rural pastoral area, the participation of community is not that much. Because here the pastoralists are busy in their life struggling due to their Socio-economic situation. Apart that, they give more value for their cattle's and less value for education. That's why the enrollment of children even to ABE centers are not as we want.  
[INTWEX- 15/5/2014]

Despite the community participation is crucial at developing educational sector, the parents described that their living situation obstacles sending their children to school. Apart that, school fees and coverage for school materials are another bottleneck problem for pastoral people. As the KETB official admitted during the focus group interview with the PTA:

We understand that the pastoral people who live in rural area faces a lot of burden than those who live in urban area. This is because of the compatibility of the education provision approach with way of pastoralist life, and also it may cause them not to give consideration in sending their children to school. The Woreda receives block grants so that the government can ensure that the school has minimum resources to carry out the teaching process. Sometimes this may just cover the teachers' salary. [FGDPTA-04/4/2014]

#### School Construction

It was indicated that the government has embarked on constructing new schools in different parts of the country and on training primary school teachers. In order to increase enrolment, the number of primary schools has increased in rural areas which never had before comparing with previous regime. In order to provide access to education for those children living in remote and pastoralist areas of the country, attempts are being made to provide boarding and mobile schools. The emphasis of 'constructing schools', as described by one Woreda expert, is not the sufficient to solve the problem of pastorals as well as to bring out-of-school children to school in the country. As he stated:

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You know constructing schools should not be the first thing to solve the pastorals problems rather it should be providing basic needs in order to settle them at specific area. Then we can be able to provide education and enroll all pastoral children. Look now for instance, we construct schools in some kebel's but we have not succeeded in preventing children from being out of school. So the problem is not having physical access, and we have to focus on the bottleneck problems. [FGIWEX- 14/ 4/2014]

This statement is supported by my own observations. As described by parents, the problem was not lack of physical access to education, but the socio-economic problem in the area and the lifestyle of pastoral people which does not go in line with the education system. The federal and regional educational experts pointed to political solutions which contradicted what Woreda officials and communities described. In order to overcome the economic problems of pastorals, for instance, it was reported that there had been settlement, boarding and safety net programmes which were to solve the economy of the pastorals' families. There is also a family planning programme nationally aiming at curbing the family size. According to the regional educational expert:

We are not saying that constructing schools is the first thing to overcome all our problems. Of course there should be movements in every sector, agriculture, health, etc...and we expect all the sectors to coordinate to solve the problem, but we fall short of satisfying all at once.

We, as a government, try to do our best; Woreda are also expected to do their best. That is the only way forward. [INTREX- 22/5/2014]

### Coordination

The implementation of decentralized administrative and education system at wereda level and coordination between Kebel's, PTA and community at large has been considered as a way of solving local problems that arise from communities. The issue of out-of-school children is one of their focus areas. As indicated by the Regional educational expert:

Planning, making strategies and looking for NGO who will sponsor those out- of -school children in the area, are the Woreda education bureau responsibility. Our responsibility to facilitate them. [INTREX- 22/5/2014]

While the federal structure leaves the responsibility to the Woreda and region, experts at the regional level, in turn, pointed out that the region has been considered as backward region for many years, and that it has a range of problems which the regional government wants to

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prioritize, such as of pastoralists, communities in remote parts of the region as well as improving the level of awareness in the region.

How the different actors and factors interacted as an exclusionary mechanism is explained in the above in light of the conceptual understanding and determinants of education identified in Chapter 4.



## Chapter Five

### 5. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION.

#### 5.1. Summary of Major Findings

##### 5.1.1. Summary

The major purpose of this study was to assess the challenges of out-of-school children in Dubti Woreda. The study also tried to answer the following basic research questions.

1. What are the major challenges for pastoral Afar children not to be enrolled in education at a time when UPE is a flagship?
2. To what extent is the regional government concerned with the issue of out-of-school Afar children?
3. To what extent do failure of taking in to account consideration of culture and language realities of afar pastoral community?

To answer these questions a case study design was employed. To this effect the study was conducted in zone one, Dubti woreda. A total of 45 respondents included through purposive sampling and simple random technique from urban and rural. Furthermore, sixteen families who have out-of-school children, two PTA, one Woreda and two regional educational experts, and through simple random technique six children was selected.

The data gathered from focus group discussion through open-ended questionnaire from the out-of-school children parents, children and PTA was translated and then categorized in to different but interrelated factors. In order to classify and simplify the qualitative data gathered from different informants, a coding scheme was used. The data obtained from semi-structure interview and documents also has been analyzed qualitatively using narrations. After all the research came up with the following major findings.

### **5.2 Major Findings.**

The findings of the study are discussed in the following in light of the theoretical framework and the literature review on the determinants of education. It also analyses the formulated education policies and strategies in the context of the reality in the study area. In the case of rural pastoral Afar who live in the remote area, the cause for children's exclusion from education appear to be related both to supply and Demand side determinants:

#### **1. Luck of flexible education provision**

In the case of the rural groups who live in a remote area, the cause for the children's exclusion from education appear to be related school-based mode of education provision which is contradicted with their way of life.

The provision of education which is based mainly on constructing school is manifested in the exclusion of Afar pastoralist community from education participation in remote area since provision of education based on schooling is mainly for the community who settled in a specific area. For nomad pastoral Afar whose direct business is animal production in dry land condition, participating in the school-based provision of education system in turn will results negative impact on their household enterprise. Because in the pastoralist way of life, children's play a big role in their daily life activity which is herding management and livestock mobility. According to this, splitting the household into less mobile will affect their enterprise. As one parent stated that we(the family) mobile from place to place with our livestock in order to get pasture and water. So sending the children to the school building which is situated at one place in order to gain advantage from education will affect our animal production. This implies that ultimately, school based education conflicts with household functional-mobility pattern which, in dry land areas are key to enhancing animal.

#### **2 Relevance**

Afar pastoralist community face peculiar difficulties in accessing and continuing with education programmes whose designs only suits for non-pastoralists communities. The failure of ensuring that an appropriate curriculum which is relevant to pastoralists' needs and values are just some of the reasons why educational participation and achievement is much lower in pastoral Afar

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area. According to one parent, mismatch of home language and school language makes our children to hate the school and teachers, and to repeat the class and to drop out. An appropriate and accessible curriculum plays a major role in retaining learners; and it is important also in relation to securing for all children the right to quality education

### **3. Parent Education**

Parent education plays an important role in keeping and enrolling their children. Most of pastoral Afar parents are not educated and they give less value for education. As stated by (Sathar and Lloyd, 1994; Parikh and Sadoulet, 2005; Ilon and Mook, 1991), Parents' educational status seems to play an important role in determining children's schooling.

As we know pastoralists economy depends on their animal production. Some pastoral family have more than 200 camels, 100 cows and 150 goats. This family had known the importance of education, they would have sold some animals in order to teach their children. Unfortunately, being not educated makes them not to participate though there is no flexible mode of education provision.

### **4. Child Labor**

The prevalence of child labor is among the highest in the world (Admassie and Bedi, 2003). Children at an early stage get used to how their parents make practice in rearing and herding animals. As many livestock as possible are needed for a family to cope with the challenge of socio-economic problem; the whole family, including children take part. Because there is no alternative way to survive in this harsh environment.

### **5. Disparities in the provision of educational services**

Though there is education provision to some extent in the area, disparities in the education provision are one of the barrier which hinder the participation of children in education. Few kebels have the access for primary education while others do not. This results in the exclusion of pastoral Afar children from education.

Lack of flexible mode of education provision, Lack of relevance, Parent education, child labor and Disparities in the provision education seem to strongly determine the exclusion of rural pastoral Afar children's from education, the urban pastoral parent also had children who were excluded from education. The factors explaining their exclusion are discussed next.

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### **1 Economic circumstance**

Using the household as the unit of analysis, studies show how the poor have been denied of access to education (Burney and Irfan, 1995; Awaleh, 2007; Björkmany, 2005). The economic status of parents as the most decisive factor influencing parents' decisions on schooling. Those who have low income and low occupational status, highly alters parents' tendency towards sending a child to school. So for urban pastoral Afar Economic circumstance is one of the barrier not to send all children to school.

### **2 School cost**

Though the government introduced free primary education, the inability to cover all the costs of schooling by parents because of the adverse relationship between the income of parents and children's schooling for the lowest income household.

### **3 Family size**

The interplay between family size and parents investment in their children's education has been the focus of empirical studies which argue on the ground of a resource dilution effect ( Guimbert et al., 2008: Gomes, 1984: King and Alderman, 1998: Maralani, 2008). Accordingly, family size exhausts family resources, thereby adversely affecting the educational decision parents make.

### **4 Luck of relevance**

The issue of relevance is one of the most crucial bottle-neck factor in the region. Failing to take in to consideration socio-economic, mother tongue, and cultural realities of one community in educational system makes learning and communication difficult which results in less performance and participation.

### **5.3 Policy implementation Gap**

First, the policy of free primary education which is designed primarily to help poor households in schooling appears to have been unsuccessfully implemented through community participation which is part of the decentralization policy aiming at creating ownership and decision making at the local level. The responsibility for school maintenance and construction at the local level appears to limit pastoral parents' ability to ensure their children's education. The burden of school fees and other costs of schooling become barrier from participation in education despite the stated policy of free primary education.

The second case of policy implementation gap is with regard to decentralization which was thought to bring efficiency and good governance because of the devolution of power to the

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lowest tiers of government, woredas and kebele, thereby solving local problems. However, decentralization rather shows the decoupling of local problems from the perceived solutions. This relates to the settlement of pastoral community, flexible mode of education provision, coordination among and between different levels of governance and generally to introduce flexible policy to address the challenging problems that are specific to pastoral Afar community.

### **5.3.1 Local Capacity**

WEO experts and key personnel at the REBs were not found to be well versed about the how to provide education for the pastoralist community align with their way of life and creating conducive environment for them. The capacities needed to successfully plan, implement, monitor and evaluate provision education was weakened by insufficient human skills and low level technical implementers. The education policy which states that NGOs, civil society organizations, donors and international organizations will be welcomed to undertake such activities as school feeding and financial and material support for children with vulnerability and other disadvantages. The gap left by the absence of NGOs.

The government have high expectations that the community itself can take care of the problems and look after out-of-school children. However, as indicated in the study, the fact on the ground is that pastoral Afar community have their own problems. Given their way of life as a pastoral, lack of conducive environment, it is unclear how this reliance on community 'self-help plans' would work.

### **5.4 Conclusion**

The provision of education system which is based on constructing schools to improve access is manifested in the exclusion of pastoralist from educational benefit. The pastoralist Afar children still have great difficulty in taking advantage of Education, even when it is available, due to the limitations imposed by formal and sedentary school-based system, lack social services( feeding programs, settlement programs, water resources ), variety education modalities, literacy, child labor, lack of relevance the curriculum. The widespread and serious shortage of infrastructures in the school-based system (particularly in remote pastoral areas) makes it easier to boost primary enrolment figures by building more schools, than to develop new methods of targeting those groups for whom the school system does not work or is inaccessible. The implication shows the policy only focus on the supply side of education rather than demand side.

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Pastoralists' resistance is not, in fact, to the idea of formal education; nor is there necessarily any incompatibility between pastoralist and education. On the contrary, the practical challenges faced in providing education to nomads appear to be rooted in the tendency to provide formal education in a solely school-based system.

### **5.5 Recommendation.**

Policies and strategies for supporting out-of-school children in the region and closing the remaining net enrolment gaps will require making coordination's between non-governmental and governmental sectors by establishing joint action team, particularly given the current context of inequity and inefficiencies. Addressing the out-of-school children will also require a much stronger policy framework for bridging the resource divide, which has primarily focused on the expansion of schools policies without adequate attention to the demand side barriers and bottlenecks to out-of-school children. New approaches to addressing the factors will also require short-term and longer-term policies which attempt to address the structural inequities which characterize the out-of school children's profile.

Hence, the Ministry of Education and Regional Education Bureaus , in collaboration with other stakeholders, should make a concerted effort and take appropriate actions in order to solve the barriers and bottlenecks related to out-of-school children and enable the education system attain UPE by 2015. To this effect, the following courses of action are recommended by the researcher:

#### **1. Address the Demand-side constraints related to exclusion.**

The Woreda education office and other stakeholders like; Pastoralist Sector Development Program, Afar Pastoralist Development Association, Capacity building office and Regional education office by cooperating should take appropriate actions in order solve literacy, child labor, family size and economic circumstances through giving different type of training, awareness campaign, workshop and by providing various type of support and affirmative action.

#### **2. Addressing the Supply-side determinants related to exclusion.**

The Woreda education office and Regional education office should device and design the provision of education strategy which is relevant to pastoralist needs and value through providing flexible mode of education like. Distance learning approach, mobile school,

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boarding school and Hostels, and should design the relevant curriculum which take into account linguistic, economic and cultural reality of the community.

### 3. **Addressing policy implementation gap.**

The Woreda education office should implement free primary education policy by easing the responsibility for school maintenance and construction which limit parents' ability to ensure their children's education.

### 4. **Addressing capacity building of Woreda.**

The Woreda education office should improve the capacity building of its staff members and teachers through providing distance learning, and giving various types of training and workshops. This can be done by cooperating with different non-organizations which works with on the education sectors.

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## Appendixes

### Appendix 1

#### Focus Group Discussion Guide with Parents from Urban Group

##### Themes:

- ✓ Views on educating a child
- Factors for not sending children to school
- Criteria for deciding who should go and who should not
- Child labour
- What should be done

1. What is your view on education of your child? How many of your children are not going to school?
2. Why (is) are your children not in school? What problems are you facing?
3. Who are out-of-school children in your home? Why?
4. How do you decide which (child) children to send to school and which to keep at home? What criteria do you use?
5. How do you limit the number of children who are going and not?
6. What do children do if they are not going to school? What do they do with their time?
7. What help do you get from the government with regard to enrolling your children?
8. What do you think should be done in order to send all your children to school?
9. When are you planning to send your children to school?
10. Do you think you can send all your children to school in one or two years' time? On what does that depend?

Appendix 2

Themes:

- ✓ Views on educating a child
- Factors for not sending children to school
- Criteria for deciding who should go and who should not go
- Child labor
- What should be done

Focus Group Discussion Guide with Parents from Rural

1. What is your view on education? How do you say about educating a child?
2. Why are your children not in school? What problems are you facing?
3. What do children do if they are not going to school? What do they do with their time?
4. Are you planning to send your children to school soon? On what does that depend?
5. What would have to change or be done for your children to be in school?
6. How do you describe the role of government in mobilizing you to send your children to school? What about other areas such as health?
7. What help do you receive from the PTA for keeping your children at home? What do you say?

### Appendix 3

#### Themes:

- ✓ Characteristics of out-of-school children
- Challenges and prospects
- The education profile of the social groups
- Plan of action

#### Focus Group Discussion Guide with PTA

1. Who are out-of-school children in this area?
2. What do you think are their problems? What can be done?
3. What are you doing to bring children to school? What are the challenges so far?
4. Who are the most excluded children from the school? Why?
5. What is the problem of rural pastoral in the area?
6. How are you approaching the groups in your awareness-raising campaign in the community?  
What response do you get from the parents?
7. How do you explain the presence of out-of-school children in the area, in relation to UPE?

### Appendix 4

#### Themes:

- Views and perceptions on education
- Reasons for being out-of-school
- Preference

#### Focus Group Discussion with Children

1. Why have not you been to school? Why did your parents decide to keep you at home? Do you agree with their decision?
2. What do you do with your time?
3. How do you think about schooling/ what does education mean to you?
4. When do you think your parents will send you to school? Why?
5. Which one do you value: helping your parents or going to school? Why?

Appendix 5

Interview guide for Woreda Educational Expert

1. What is the coverage of UPE in this Woreda?
2. How far is the government committed to achieving UPE? What is the woreda's role in achieving UPE?
3. How do you describe the level of participation in education in rural areas?
4. What are the challenges for UPE in the woreda currently?
5. Who are out-of-school children in the woreda? Why?
6. What policies are targeted to reduce the number of out-of-school children? What problems are encountered so far?
7. How do you see the extent of participation of children from rural group and urban groups? What explanation could be given for the difference, if any?
8. What role does the government play in closing the gap?
9. What is the chance of achieving UPE by 2015?
10. Do you have anything you want to add to what we have discussed?

Appendix 6

Interview guide for Regional Education Expert

1. What is the coverage of UPE in the region?
2. How far is the regional government committed to achieving UPE? What role does it play in achieving UPE?
3. How do you describe the level of participation in primary education in the region? Where is participation relatively low? Why?
4. What challenges are you currently facing with respect to UPE in the region? What are the prospects?
5. Who are out-of-school children? Why?
6. What is the extent of the problems of out-of-school children and its implication for achieving UPE?
8. What strategy exist regarding rural pastoral area? What do you think their problems are? What about the urban pastoral group?
9. What is the opportunity of achieving UPE in the region by 2015?
10. Do you have anything you want to add to what we have discussed?



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