Ministerial Seminar

on

Education for Rural People in Africa: Policy Lessons, Options and Priorities

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Education For Rural People in Ethiopia

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<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABE</td>
<td>Alternative Basic Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADLI</td>
<td>Agricultural Development-Led Industrialization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAHW</td>
<td>Community-Based Animal Health Worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSA</td>
<td>Central Statistics Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSTC</td>
<td>Community Skill Training Center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DFID</td>
<td>Department for International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DHS</td>
<td>Demographic and Health Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECE</td>
<td>Early Childhood Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education For All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELIP</td>
<td>English Language Improvement Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMIS</td>
<td>Education Management Information System</td>
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<tr>
<td>ERP</td>
<td>Education for Rural People</td>
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<tr>
<td>ESDP</td>
<td>Education Sector Development Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAL</td>
<td>Functional Adult Literacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agricultural Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FSS</td>
<td>Forum for Social Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTC</td>
<td>Farmer Training Center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GER</td>
<td>Gross Enrollment Rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPI</td>
<td>Gender Parity Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GTZ</td>
<td>German Technical Cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>Human Immuno-Deficiency Virus/Acquired Immunity Deficiency Syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICRC</td>
<td>International Committee of the Red Cross</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IIEP</td>
<td>International Institute of Educational Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IZZ/DVV</td>
<td>Institute for International Cooperation of the German Adult Education Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JICA</td>
<td>Japan International Cooperation Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KCAL</td>
<td>Kilo Calorie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAMP</td>
<td>Leadership and Management Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOARD</td>
<td>Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOFED</td>
<td>Ministry of Finance and Economic Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NER</td>
<td>Net Enrollment Rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-government Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NORAD</td>
<td>Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECBB</td>
<td>Oromia Education and Capacity Building Bureau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
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<tr>
<td>PRP</td>
<td>Population Reference Bureau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRSP</td>
<td>Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTA</td>
<td>Parent-Teacher Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTR</td>
<td>Pupil-Teacher Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIDA</td>
<td>Swedish International Development Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNNPR</td>
<td>Southern Nations Nationalities Peoples Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TESO</td>
<td>Teacher Education System Overhaul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTC</td>
<td>Teacher Training College</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVET</td>
<td>Technical Vocational-Education and Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children's Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAID</td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VET</td>
<td>Vocational Training Center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WB</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
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<tr>
<td>WFP</td>
<td>World Food Program</td>
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Executive Summary

This study was conducted as part of the IIEP/FAO collaborative programs to assess the prevailing situation and to design ways for improving the living conditions of the rural people. Its purpose was to explore the challenges of Education for rural people, assess the initiatives supporting ERP and the capacity of policy makers and managers that cater for it and explore mechanisms that improve collaboration among partners and stakeholders and enhance the contribution of education for rural development.

The method employed in the study was a descriptive survey. Available and relevant quantitative data were used. In addition interviews and focus group discussions were held with government officials, senior program heads of donor partners and NGOs.

Ethiopia is a country of over 73 million people of whom 84 percent live in rural areas. It is a country where agriculture accounts for about 54 percent of the GDP, employs about 80 percent of the population and provides for about 90 percent of the exports. However, famine and acute food security have been serious problems for a long time particularly in rural areas. More than 44 of the population leaves below poverty line, while the national prevalence of stunting is around 57 percent. Generally, poverty in Ethiopia is massive, chronic, exceedingly deep and severe.

In order to avert the situation the government has prepared a poverty reduction strategy based on its development policy. The PRSP identifies four building blocks: Agricultural Development Led Industrialization, Judiciary and Civil service Reform, Decentralization and Empowerment and Capacity Building.

A new Education and Training Policy was introduced in 1994 and it is being implemented through a series of Education sector development programs the third of which will commence as of September 2004/05. The main trust of ESDP is to improve quality, relevance, and equity and expand access with special emphasis on primary education in rural and underserved areas, as well as the promotion of education of girls. To this end the country is committed to realize universal primary education by 2015.

Vast strides have been made and encouraging trends are observable as compared to the past. However, with a net enrolment rate of only 57.4 percent universal primary education is a long way to go. Education is still not only undersized but is also not evenly distributed, putting at a disadvantage females and children from rural areas. With less qualified teachers and high student-teacher and student-section ratios, quality is not to the desired level and it is more so in the rural areas. Internal efficiency is also low mainly as a result of high dropout rates.

The government agencies and development partners are aware of the problems and the strategies and initiatives taken in support of ERP include expanding supply, improving quality and stimulating demand. The programs and types of Education targeting rural population are primary education, adult and non-formal education and TVET offered by the Ministry of Education, NGOs and Ministry of Agriculture and Rural
development respectively. Community participation in PTAs and School Management Committees has also helped to enhance ERP.

The challenges include increasing access and equity, improving efficiency and quality, building capacity in planning and managing the system and creation of viable coordination and coordination between partners and the government. The existence of a policy framework that supports rural development, the government political support and commitment to education, the decentralization policy, the flourishing private and non-government schools and the stress on the need of education by the internal fora provide prospect to ERP in Ethiopia.

The major issues of concern include bridging the gap between regional states and urban-rural population, devolving decentralization to school level, strengthening local initiatives, monitoring progress, strengthening institutional capacity, improving the scope of collaboration and coordination, creating enabling environment and strengthening the link between education and poverty.
1. Background of the Study

1.1. Introduction

Education is central for rural development. It is an instrument for reducing poverty, improving the living conditions of rural people and building a food-secure world. Education is a basic right in itself. In spite of this, children's access to education in rural areas is still much lower than in urban areas, adult illiteracy is much higher and the quality of education is poorer. Expanding access to quality education for rural people is thus of crucial importance in the realization of human rights and in achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

In this regard, FAO and UNESCO launched in 2002 a new flagship within the Education for All (EFA) initiative with a focus on Education for Rural People. The flagship is a call for collaborative action to increase the co-ordination of efforts targeting the educational needs of rural people with the following objectives:

- Overcoming the urban/rural gap in education,
- Increasing access to basic Education for Rural People,
- Improving the quality of basic Education for Rural People,
- Fostering the national capacity to plan and implement ERP as part of National Education for All and Rural Development Plans, and
- Building awareness on the importance of ERP as a crucial step to achieve all the Millennium Development Goals and particularly, eradicating extreme poverty and hunger, achieving universal primary education and promoting gender equity.

In Ethiopia, the hopes and aspirations to universalize primary education and rural development remains a matter of great concern at the dawn of the 21st century. Millions of children still unable to gain access to schooling, and large numbers from among those who have had the opportunity dropout before acquiring the basic skills. Moreover, large portions of the country’s population live in poverty cycle.

Therefore, it was found necessary to conduct a study entitled “Education for Rural People in Ethiopia” as part of the IIEP/FAO collaborative programs to assess the prevailing conditions and to design ways for improving the living condition of the rural people.

1.2. Objective of The Study

ERP contributes to Sustainable Development by supporting the development of national programs and strategies to promote education within the context of national strategies for poverty reduction and to increase the capacity to achieve the internationally agreed development goals related to education. In order to ensure that all children, boys and girls, rural and urban, have equal access to all levels of education relevant to national needs by the year 2015, a specific effort to reach rural people needs to be undertaken.
Besides it is essential to review the education action plans and programs to ensure that they are responsive to local rural conditions and needs. Thus, this study was designed to meet the following objectives.

1. To explore the challenges (constraints) of Education for Rural People
2. To assess the initiatives supporting Education for Rural People,
3. To assess the prospective/opportunity of Education for Rural People,
4. To explore mechanisms that improve collaboration among partners and stakeholders, and enhance the contribution of education for rural development,
5. To assess the capacity of policy makers and managers in planning and managing Education for Rural People.

1.3. Methodology

The method employed in this study is descriptive survey. First all-available and relevant documents were reviewed and quantitative data were collected secondly. In order to collect qualitative data, relevant ministries and bureaus, development partners (donors and non-government organizations) were used as sources of information. The data gathering method was less structured, flexible and varied significantly. This included:

1. **Focus group discussion with Partners**: The focus group discussion helped to determine opinions, attitudes and knowledge held that regulate the behavior and efficacy of potential intervention strategies.

2. **Key informants interview**: This method was used to elicit necessary information from pertinent partners.

Accordingly four different interview schedules were used. These were, one category for MOE and OECBB officials, second category for MOARD officials the and third and fourth categories for officials/senior program heads of four Donor partners (World Bank, DFID, UNICEF, and IIZ/DVV) and one International NGO (Save the Children USA) respectively. In general, 8 organizations were selected and involved in the study. (For details of interview guides refer annex).

2. Country Context

2.1. Demographic and Economic Situation

Situated in the Horn of Africa between 3 and 15 degrees North latitude and 33 and 48 degrees East Longitude, Ethiopia is an ancient country with rich diversity of people and cultures. With a total area of 1.1 million square kilometers, it is a country with a great geographical diversity. The topographic features range from a peak of 4550 meters above sea level at Ras Dashen down to 110 meters below sea level at the Afar Depression. The climate varies with the topography. The temperature ranges from 10\(^0\) in the highlands to 47\(^0\)C in the Afar Depression (CSA, 2000).

Currently, Ethiopia has a federal system of government with the country divided into nine regional states and two city administrative councils. The nine regional states are
formed largely on the basis of language. The government is made up of two tiers of parliament, the House of the Council of Peoples Representatives and the House of the Federal States, with the regions, zones, woredas and kebeles within them having elected council members. Under the 1994 constitution, the regional authorities have wide range political and economic powers.

According to the CSA (2004) estimates the country’s population has reached 73.04 million, which makes it the second populous country in Africa. With an annual growth rate of 2.36 percent, the population grows fast and 43.9 percent are below 14 years of age (CIA, 2005). The proportion of male and female population is almost the same with 50.1 percent males and 49.9 percent females (CSA, 2004).

The country is home to about 80 ethnic groups that vary in population size from more than 18 million to less than 100 (CSA, 1998). The major groups include Oromo (40 percent); Amhara (30 percent); Tigray (12 percent); Sidama (9 percent) Shankella and Somali (6 percent each); and the Afar 4 percent (World Bank, 2004). The distribution of the population across the regions is in the following proportions: Addis Ababa (3.9 percent); Afar (1.9 percent); Amhara (25.6 percent); Benishangul-gumuz (0.8 percent); Dire Dawa (0.5 percent); Gambella (0.3 percent); Harari (0.3 percent); Oromiya (35.3 percent); Somali (5.8 percent); SNNPR19.8 percent) and Tigray5.8 percent (World Bank, 2004). The three major regions i.e. Amhara, Oromia and SNNPR consist of 80.7 percent of the country’s population. In terms of religion 51 percent of the population are Orthodox Christians, 33 percent are Muslims and 10 percent are Protestants. The remaining adheres to a diversity of other faiths (DHS, 2000).

According to CSA (2004), in Ethiopia "urban areas" refer to"…all capitals of regions, zones and woredas, and it also includes localities with urban kebeles whose inhabitants are primarily engaged in non-agricultural activities". All the rest areas are considered rural. Based on this definition the rural areas consist of 84 percent of the total population.

The majority of the rural population lives in the highland areas of the country and their main occupation is subsistence farming. Since people mostly live on the plot of land that they work on, there is a noticeable absence of real villages. As Jones (1925) observed eight decades ago, they are still "…rather clusters of small farm stead at distance from one another, usually surrounded by patches of enclosed land".

The lowlands of the country, which account for almost two-thirds of the national land area are home to more than eight million people who are pastoralists and move from place to place with their livestock in search of grass and water. These nomadic populations are composed of 29 nilothic and Cushitic ethnic groups spread over six regions and different directions of the country (Ayalew et.el, 2002). Table 1.1 presents the pastoral/ agro pastoral groups and their respective habitat in the country.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Geographical Location and Region</th>
<th>Ethnic group(s)</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 1.1 Pastoral Groups by their Geographical Location

5
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Languages</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>North East (Afar Region)</td>
<td>Afar, Somali, Argoba, Oromo</td>
<td>1,100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South (Oromia Region)</td>
<td>Oromo, Somali</td>
<td>2,577,522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South West (SNNP Region and Gambella Region)</td>
<td>Dasentch, Hamer, Mursi, Bodi, Bumie, Bena, Erbroe, Tsemay, Nuer, Anuak, Ari, Bali, Dimi, Nyangoton, Chai, Trima Ruli, Tishanr, Mugiji</td>
<td>550,287</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West (Benishangual-Gumuz Region)</td>
<td>Komo, Shinasha, Gumuz, Benishangul</td>
<td>37,523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>7,955,332</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Although the country's current territorial division is based on languages, Table 1.1 reveals that some nomadic groups are spread over many regions. The great majorities are, however, found in the Afar and Somali regions and Borena and Debub Omo zones of the Oromia and SNNP regions respectively.

The primary livelihood of the nomadic population is based on livestock herding. Out of 70 million livestock estimated to exist in Ethiopia, 28 percent of cattle; 66 percent of goats; 26 percent of sheep and 100 percent of camel are found in the nomadic areas (MoARD, 2004). Despite its high potential however the lowland is under developed.

On top of its own rural and urban population, Ethiopia is host to tens of thousands of refugees and also contains a sizeable number of internally displaced people. East Africa has witnessed long protracted civil wars as well as border conflicts for nearly have a century, which has resulted in producing refugees, as well as displaced people.

According to WFP (2005), there are 118,000 refugees in camps in Ethiopia. Most of these are from southern Sudan while the rest are Somalia and Eritrea. While these people have lived in exile for the past two decades, they are entirely dependent upon international food assistance. War with neighboring country Eritrea and internal conflict in some other parts of the country has resulted in internally displaced people. The war with Eritrea displaced 166,308 people in Tigray and 20,013 people in Afar region. Additionally, Tigray had to host 10,983 Ethiopians expelled from Eritrea. This brings the grand total of conflict-affected people in the two regions (expellees and displaced combined) to 197,304 (Ahrens, 1998). ICRC (2005) has also reported that 46,000 people (Nuer and Anuak) have been displaced in Gambella region because of clashes among different members of the communities there. The displaced people lack even the most basic items needed for survival unless supported with international aid.

With regard to the economic situation, Ethiopia is an agrarian country and agriculture accounts for 54 percent of the gross domestic product (GDP), employs about 80 percent of the population and provides for about 90 percent of the exports (CSA, 2000). The country is one of the poorest in the world and poverty is widespread and multifaceted.

Famine and acute food security have been serious problems that have brought death, disease and suffering to a large number of people in Ethiopia, in particular those
living in the rural areas. In any given year, under normal circumstances, anywhere up to six million people are unable to feed themselves except for a small part of the year (FSS, 2005) because they have very little in reserve. Droughts have occurred at the rate of one every three years during the past decades (WB 2004). During such times the lives of as many as a quarter of the population is put at risk.

Bad weather is the main reason, but it is more complex problem than just lack of rainfall. Other causes include external economic shocks (falling price of coffee) fast growing population and high population density all of which have exacerbated the food shortage problem.

The high population density means small agricultural plots. The small family plots tend to be overworked, overgrazed and prone to erosion. These coupled with millennia-old traditional farming practices means that the crop production per head is, at best, poor.

In addition 9 percent (WB, 2004:6) of the adult population is affected with HIV/Aids, causing a further handicap on food production. It is not just a case of some people being too sick to work; they often need extra care and attention from their family.

The per capita income is not exceeding 100 USD and as Table 1.2 shows 44.2 percent of the population live below poverty line. In urban areas the poverty rate increased from 33 percent in 1995 to 37 percent in 2000, while in rural areas it fell from 48 to 45 percent in the same period. Although the change is statistically insignificant it suggests some improvement in rural poverty. However rural poverty is still higher than urban poverty. A comparison between the regions indicates that poverty incidence is higher in Tigray, Afar, Benishangul-gumuz, SNNPR, and Gambella regions respectively. Rural poverty is also higher in these same regions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>1995/96</th>
<th>1999/00</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addis Ababa</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>33.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amhara</td>
<td>56.7</td>
<td>34.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benishangul-Gumuz</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dire Dawa</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambella</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harari</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oromia</td>
<td>34.6</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>56.5</td>
<td>45.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tigray</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>45.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Indicators other than the income-based measure of poverty also reflect that poverty is widespread in the country. FAO estimates that 49 percent of the population is under-nourished (FAO, 2000). Daily per capita food availability is about 1410 kilo calories (KCAL) for the undernourished, which implies a daily deficit of 340 KCAL per capita. The national prevalence of stunting is around 57 percent. The figure for rural areas is 58 percent and for urban centers it is 45 percent. Thus, long run child malnutrition is prevalent in both urban and rural areas but is more prevalent in the latter (MoFED, 2002:54).

The level of illiteracy prevalent in a country is another indicator of welfare. Although the history of education in Ethiopia dates as far as back as the introduction of Christianity itself in 330 A.D (Pankhurst, 1955), access was limited to a few people and the country has remained with a high illiteracy rate. As Table 1.3 shows, in 1999/00 the overall-adult literacy rate in the country was only 29.4 percent. The literacy rate is high for males (40 percent) than their female (19.5 percent) counterparts. The stark difference is however between rural and urban population. The urban literacy was 70.4 percent while in rural areas it was only 21.8 percent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>82.1</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>61.2</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70.4</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>29.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MOFED,(2002), Development and Poverty profile of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa; Mega Printing Enterprise p.56

Access to health services is very limited. Only 51 percent of the population has access to health service. The infant mortality rate stands at 117 per 1000. The maternal mortality ratio is 871 per 100,000, while the life expectancy at birth is 42 years for the total population, 41 for male and 43 for female (PRB, 2003).

Access to clean water is limited to 30 percent of the population (PRSP, 2001) only. With only 0.3 per cent of households having flush toilets (DHS, 2000), the availability and use of sanitation facilities are also at very low state in the country in general and rural areas in particular.

The state of infrastructure such as road, transport, communication, market etc is very low. The majority of the population is devoid of electricity, telephone and similar public utilities.

In order to avert the situation, the government has worked out a development strategy and economic policy, which it thought is consistent with long-term economic
The essential elements of the development policy and strategy include maintenance of stable-macroeconomic environment, enhancing agricultural growth and strengthening, agriculture-industry-export linkages, private sector development and public sector reform, economic infrastructure and human development, devolution of power to regional and local governments and capacity development for economic management (Mekonnen, 1999).

2.2. Policy of Poverty Reduction

Based on its development policy and strategy, the government has prepared a poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSP). The PRSP identifies four building blocks, which in combination are believed to result in poverty reduction. These are:

**Agricultural Development-Led Industrialization (ADLI)**

Basically, ADLI is a small holder led agricultural development strategy emphasizing market orientation and focusing investment on generic productivity enhancing technologies, expanded extension services and infrastructure development with a view to increasing domestic production of food and export commodities. It attempts to bring agriculture and industry into a single framework of development, where agricultural development is to be used as an important means for industrialization.

**Judiciary and Civil Service Reform**

The Judiciary and Civil service reform envisages a qualitative change in governance, transparency and accountability with the public sector with the ultimate purpose of enhancing the development of the private sector and also facilitating the development of social capital. The civil service reform consists of management and control, human resources management, service delivery, top management systems and ethics. The judicial reform aims at over hauling the regulative framework to make it congruent to the 1994 constitution and strengthen the judiciary.

**Decentralization And Empowerment**

The third building block in the poverty reduction strategy is “Decentralization and Empowerment”. This part of the strategy has two major areas of concern i.e. the implementation of district level fiscal decentralization and the institutionalized incorporation of women in the development process.

**Capacity Building**

Capacity building is developed as a strategy to support ADLI, judiciary and civil service reform and decentralization and empowerment. While it is intended to be undertaken in relation to smallholder agriculture, the private sector and the public sector including the judiciary, the main activities include:

- Training of farmers,
- Supporting micro-financing institutions,
- Strengthening public and private sector organizations involved in the development of agriculture
Developing tertiary education to increase the stock of trained manpower,
Establishing industrial training institutes,
Strengthening the financial sector,
Supporting the development of chamber of the commerce and industrial associations and
Improving the setting of product standardization

After the major building blocks examined here above, the PRSP provides a more focused attention to the social sector where it emphasizes the need for “the creation of healthy, literate, active labor force”. The PRSP states that “education and health are given priority in the national strategy to eradicate poverty”.

2.3. Overall Education and the Policy Environment

As a result of change of government in 1991 a new Education and training policy that encompasses the entire education and training sector was declared in April 1994. The major changes introduced by this policy are related to the structure of the system, curriculum and medium of instruction and decentralization.

The educational structure constitutes of basic, general, higher and specialized education on a formal and non-formal basis. The components are as follows (MOE, 1994:14):
- Kindergarten for children aged 4-6,
- Eight years of primary education divided into two cycles of basic education (grades 1-4) and general education (grades 5-8),
- General secondary education, grades 9-10
- Senior secondary education, grades 11-12
- A technical and vocational stream grades 11-12,
- Higher education of 1-2 years for diploma and 3-5 years for undergraduate study

National examinations are administered at the end of grades 8 and 10 to select those who will go to the general secondary and senior secondary schools respectively. Admission to higher education institution is based on entrance examination.

One of the areas in which the new Education and Training Policy brought about major changes was the curriculum. The curricular reform started in 1993/94 and was completed in the year 2000. The primary curriculum is based on similar syllabus while the textbooks are localized. The curriculum as well as the textbooks for the secondary schools (9-12) is nation wide.

The schools in the country are classified into two as government and non-government. The non-government schools can be categorized into six groups. Public, private, Orthodox Church, mission and community schools. All the non-government schools, except the community ones, are required to follow the same curriculum as that of the government schools.
The new education and training policy allows, among other things, diversity in the languages of instruction at the primary level. From more than 80 ethnic groups in the country, so far about 22 have started using their respective languages as a medium of instruction. In the rest, Amharic is still used as a medium of instruction. The language of instruction for the secondary (grades 9-12) and tertiary levels remains English.

As a means of implementing its policy the government of Ethiopia launched a series of Education sector Development programs (ESDP). The first ESDP(I) lasted from 1997-2001, while the second (ESDP-II) continued from 2002/03-2004/2005. The third is under preparation and will commence as of September 2005/06. Through its Education Sector Development Programs, the country takes a sector wide and integrated approach to the development of education rather than compartmentalizing its goals, strategies and plans for different sub-sectors of education (MOE, 2002:6).

The main trust of ESDP is to improve quality, relevance, and equity and expand access with special emphasis on primary education in rural and underserved areas, as well as the promotion of education for girls. To this end the country is committed to realize universal primary education by 2015.

3. Current Status of Educational Provision and Challenges

As shown above the government has not only committed itself to the expansion of education but has also offered it an important place in its PRSP. What has been achieved so far in this respect? The next sub-sections ponder over the issues of access, equity, quality and efficiency.

3.1. Access

Although modern education has been in existence in Ethiopia for more than a century, it is still under sized. Table 3.1 provides the number of schools and enrolment at all levels of the system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3.1 Number of Schools and enrolment by level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary (1-9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary 9-12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVET</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Enrollment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVET</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The number of primary schools, on the overage grew by about 3.5 % over the last five years. Enrollment has reached to a little more than 9.5 million with an annual growth rate of 10.2 percent. Although this seems a remarkable growth, gross enrolment ratio
stands at 68.4% while the net enrolment ratio was only 57.4 in 2003/04 (MOE, 2005). This means that more than 42% of the school age children (7-14) are still out of school.

The number of senior secondary schools has grown by 9.8% while enrolment for the same level grew by 16.9% The gross enrolment and net enrolment ratio for this level however are only 22.1% and 9.8% respectively. This implies that out of the school population at this level more than 90% are outside the school system.

TVET is the part of the system that gained great attention in the past five years. The number of schools and enrolment at this level has registered an average annual growth rate of 57%, and 83.2% respectively. Technical and vocational education and training was the most neglected area in the history of Ethiopian Education System. In view of this, the present achievement can be considered as massive expansion.

In addition to the above, the system includes 1244 kindergartens for children aged 4-6 years. The schools are limited to the major urban areas and the gross enrolment rate is only 2.2%. The providers are non-governmental organizations, communities, private institutions and faith-based organizations. The government has limited itself to curriculum development, training of teachers and provision of supervisory support.

Apart from the formal education discussed above, Alternative Basic Education and Adult and Non-Formal Education are also offered in the various parts of the country, particularly rural areas. Alternative basic education was envisaged as an additional means of realizing the goal of universalization of primary education by 2015. Accordingly, several alternative basic education centers have been established in the regions. Most of the regions however did not report, on the enrolment. In the three regions that reported a total of 390,435 children were enrolled in more than 3053 centers (MOE, 2005:7).

Adult and Non-formal Education is also offered in many parts of the country. In 2003/04 a total of 477,664 adults (15 years and above) were enrolled in this program (MOE, 2005:7) For a country of an adult literacy rate of only 41.5% (UNESCO, 2004:268), this might not be impressive. The policy framework and the good will however have been established.

3.2. Equity

Education in Ethiopia in general is under sized. To make matters worse, the available opportunities are not evenly distributed among the various sectors of the population. Three types of disparities, i.e., regional, rural-urban, and gender are observable.

**Regional Disparities**

Table 3.2 presents the primary and secondary gross enrolment rates by region and gender. It shows wide regional variations in participation rates.
### Table 3.2 Enrolment Rates by level, gender and region in 2003/04

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Primary (NER)</th>
<th></th>
<th>Secondary (GER)*</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addis</td>
<td>90.3</td>
<td>97.6</td>
<td>94.0</td>
<td>96.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amhara</td>
<td>54.6</td>
<td>53.1</td>
<td>53.9</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benishangul</td>
<td>86.3</td>
<td>65.2</td>
<td>76.0</td>
<td>39.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dire Dawa</td>
<td>67.6</td>
<td>52.8</td>
<td>60.4</td>
<td>56.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambella</td>
<td>89.6</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>46.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harari</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>72.9</td>
<td>82.5</td>
<td>88.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oromia</td>
<td>70.7</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>61.6</td>
<td>30.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNNPR</td>
<td>74.2</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>63.5</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tigray</td>
<td>63.6</td>
<td>68.7</td>
<td>66.1</td>
<td>37.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>62.9</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>57.4</td>
<td>29.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** MOE(2005), Educational Statistics Annual Abstract, Addis Ababa: MOE, EMIS P.5 and p 29

*Net enrollment rate by region was not available for the secondary level and hence the GER was used.

At the primary level, the net enrolment ratio varies from only 11.0 percent in Afar to 94.0 percent in Addis Ababa. The regions below the national average (57.4 percent) consist of Afar, Somali and the Amhara regions. Afar and Somali are pastoralist regions, which cannot be easily reached through the formal education system. The regions at the top include Addis Ababa, Gambella, Harari, and Benishangul-Gumuz. The high performance of Addis Ababa and Harari is explained by the fact that they are urban areas. In the conventional divisions, Gambella and Benishangul-Gumuz are categorized among the relatively deprived regions that one might find it a little surprising that the two are among the top in primary education provision.

Although the GER is used as indicator in this case, the pattern of disparities at the secondary level is similar to that of the primary. The leading regions are Addis Ababa (86.6%), Harari (72.5%) and Diredawa (47.2%), which are all urban areas. Somali and Afar, the two pastoralist regions, are with lowest enrolment rate. Generally, although one of the goals of the education and training policy is to address such imbalances, the goal still remains far from being achieved. Such variations, particularly under the current regionalization, which magnifies the ethnic, linguistic, cultural, and in some cases religious differences are likely to further exacerbate the thorny problems that the country has been facing for many years.

**Gender Disparities**

The other form of inequality in the educational system is the difference in the participation of girls and boys. As Table 3.2 indicates the NER for girls at the primary and the GER for the secondary are 51.8 percent and 15.9 percent respectively which are...
by far less than that of boys in both cases. Through out its existence, education in Ethiopia had favored boys. In recognition of this, the Ministry of Education has taken raising enrolment of girls as one of its major goals. Table 3.3 shows the result of this effort.

Table 3.3 Percentage of Female Students by Level 1999/00-2003/04

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>1999/00</th>
<th>2000/01</th>
<th>2001/02</th>
<th>2002/03</th>
<th>2003/04</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td>42.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The percentage of female enrolment is slowly but steadily increasing although it has not reached parity level. The GPI for the nation was 0.8. As Table 3.4 indicates the gender gap is also consistently decreasing at the primary level.

Table 3.4. Gender gap in the primary and Secondary Enrolment Ratio 1999/00-2003/04

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1999/00</th>
<th>2000/01</th>
<th>2001/02</th>
<th>2002/03</th>
<th>2003/04</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>Male NER</td>
<td>51.2</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>59.0</td>
<td>60.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female NER</td>
<td>36.6</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>45.2</td>
<td>47.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Gap</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary(9-10)</td>
<td>Male NER</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female NER</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender Gap</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


At the secondary level, as Tables 3 and 4 indicate the percentage of female enrolment is consistently declining and the NER gap is increasing. Both of these data imply that there are more boys than girls coming to school as a result of the expansion going on at this level. Intoto, although improvements are in evidence, the female section of the population is still under-represented in the educational system. Despite the fact that it was put high on the priority agenda of the policy as well as ESDP the disparity has persisted.

Rural-Urban Disparities

The Ethiopian population is primarily rural. The educational system was however for a long time urban biased. In order to change this, the expansion in primary education in the last decade was made with due emphasis on rural areas. As a result, out of the 2,787 newly constructed primary schools during ESD I & II more than 80 percent were provided in rural areas (MOE, 2004). Table 3.5 provides the break down of schools and enrolment into rural and urban areas.
Table 3.5. Percentage Distribution of Rural-urban Schools and Enrolment by level in 2003/04.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Schools</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>11047</td>
<td>2134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>533</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Enrolment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>6,578731</td>
<td>2963877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>30951</td>
<td>749685</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


As Table 3.5 shows, only 10.4 percent of the secondary schools are in rural areas. Since the organizational structure of such schools may require an urban setting, these disparities may be tolerable. But it should be noted that their locations make them less accessible to the rural children.

At the primary level, the rural area claims 83.8 percent of the schools and 68.9 percent of the enrolment. Progress seems to have been made at this level, but when one considers the size of the rural population of the country (85 percent), fair distribution has not yet been attained. The best indicator for the difference is the net enrolment rate. Unfortunately the latest available data is for 1999/00 academic year. Table 3.6. Presents the NER in rural and urban areas by sex for 1999/00 to show the general trend.

Table 3.6. Net Enrolment Rate in Rural and urban areas in 1999/00

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>74.1</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>35.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>74.8</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>31.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>74.5</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


A comparison of the NER in Urban and rural areas shows a wide gap in favor of urban areas. The NER of girls is higher than that of boys in urban areas. In the rural areas the NER of boys is greater. A study by World Bank (2004) revealed that whereas 90 percent of urban children enroll in Grade 1, only 45 percent of rural children do so.

3.3. Quality

Various indicators can be used to measure quality. Table 3.7 summarizes the quality indicators on primary education.

Table 3.7: Quality Indicators 2003/04

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Urban</th>
<th>Rural</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
### Percentage of Qualified Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; cycle primary (1-4)</th>
<th>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; cycle primary (5-8)</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Qualified Teachers</td>
<td>97.3%</td>
<td>47.9%</td>
<td>46.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>96.5</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>96.5</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Student Section ratio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>69.8</td>
<td>78.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>75.9</td>
<td>75.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>74</td>
<td>78.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Pupil -Teacher ratio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>52.8</td>
<td>48.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>72.4</td>
<td>46.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>65.2</td>
<td>48.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Student/Textbook ratio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.5*</td>
<td>1.5*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Data is for 2000/01


The qualification required of a first cycle primary teacher is a certificate from a teacher-training institute, while those in the second cycle of primary school are required to have a minimum of a college diploma. The minimum required qualification at the secondary level is at least a first degree. The vast majority (96.5 percent) of the teachers at the first cycle of primary schools meet the required qualifications and no significant difference is observable between rural and urban schools. At the second cycle of primary and secondary levels, however only 32.1 percent and 44.5 percent of the teachers respectively have the requisite qualifications for the levels at which they teach. Thus, most of the teachers from grade 5 on wards seem to have been entrusted with responsibilities beyond the limits of their knowledge. Besides, the teachers in urban schools are better qualified than their rural counter parts.

The standards set for student section ratio for both primary and secondary is 60 (MOE, 2005) students per section. However in 2003/04 the ratio were 74 and 79 for primary and secondary schools respectively which shows that the classrooms are highly crowded. Whereas the usual pattern is for rural classrooms to contain fewer students, in Ethiopia they are more crowded than in urban areas. Besides, 42.9% of the primary and 63.3% of the secondary schools work on double shift system, which means foreshortened school hours for the students.

The pupil teacher ratio at the secondary level rests at 48. Primary PTR has however been steadily increasing and reached 65 in 2003/04 from 56 in 1999/00. The teachers are thus highly tasked. Again unlike in many other countries, the PTR at the primary level is higher in rural schools. The combination of high PTR and section size will result in heavier teaching load for teachers in rural areas who are definitely less experienced.
The student-text book ratio at the primary level was at 2.5 while at the secondary it was 1.5. Thus, the number of books available falls short of the total number of students. As a result, in many schools, students are required to share books with other students in different proportions.

Other school facilities have also an impact on access, quality, efficiency and equity. According to MOE (2005:20), 54.5 percent of the primary schools lack water facilities and 20.6 percent have no latrines. Of all the schools only 3.1 percent have clinics serving students. 65.8 percent of the schools have no libraries while 33 percent are not provided with pedagogical centers. The availability of facilities is not impressive. The aggregate nature of the data did not permit separate treatment, but it is obvious that in such impoverished provision the most deprived would be rural schools

3.4. Internal Efficiency

Repetition and dropout were perennial problems in Ethiopian primary schools. The repetition rate is however consistently decreasing (see Fig 1). The repetition rate in 1999/00 was 8.2 percent and this has gone down to only 4.0 percent in 2003/04. This indicates that more and more schools are following the automatic promotion policy.

![Fig 1. Primary School (1-8) Repetition Rate](image)


On the other hand, the dropout rates did not show any improvement. In fact as Fig. 2 reveals, the dropout rate has slightly increased from 17.1 percent in 2002/03 to 19.2 percent in 2002/03. In 2002/03 the dropout rates for boys was 19.8 percent while that of girls was 18.5 percent. The dropouts are also higher in the lower grades. In 2002/03, 31.4 percent of the pupils enrolled in grade one have left school before reaching grade two. The average duration of stay in the education system for dropouts is 3.1 years for boys and 3.2 years for girls, which hints that girls stay more in the primary schools than boys do (MOE, 2005).

![Fig 2: Primary School drop out Rate (1-8)](image)
Table 3.8 shows the survival rate to grade five for boys as well as girls. The total survival rate has declined from 41.4 percent in 1998/99 to 38.8 percent in 2002/03. In 2002/03 the survival rate was 37.7 percent for male and 40.3 percent for female. Hence, once enrolled girls stay in school more than boys.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>1998/89</th>
<th>1999/00</th>
<th>2000/01</th>
<th>2001/02</th>
<th>2002/03</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>41.8</td>
<td>37.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>44.3</td>
<td>45.4</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>40.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>43.8</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>38.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The total survival rate to grade five for 2002/03 was 38.8%. This reveals, that, although primary education is of eight years duration, more than 60% of the pupils do not proceed to the second cycle of the primary. The aggregate nature of the data did not enable separate analysis for rural and urban areas. However, with the well known hardship in rural areas, high need for child labor, distance of schools and various cultural factors that militate against school attendance, it is clear that most of the dropouts are children from rural areas.

To generalize, although the government has tried to improve the situation, the educational system in Ethiopia is still faced with problems of prodigious proportions. Low participation rate of school aged children particularly in the pastoralist and rural areas, regional, gender and rural-urban disparities, high dropout rates and declining quality of education are among the major problems. In view of EFA goals and the poverty reduction strategy provision of adequate pre-primary education and adult education cannot be considered luxury items. Thus expanding access to primary education (including early childhood and adult education); improving equity by
narrowing enrolment gaps between the different sectors of the population; increasing efficiency and improving quality of education are challenges facing the system.

4. Initiatives Supporting Education for rural people

The previous section has examined the current status of educational provision in Ethiopia. This section assesses the support initiatives based on information obtained through the interviews. The discussion focuses on providers and aid modalities, strategies and initiatives, programs, community participation and coordination and collaboration among partners.

4.1. Education Providers and Aid Modalities

The Education and Training Policy (MOE, 1994) encompasses general and specific objectives and the overall strategy for both formal and non-formal education. It covers all levels from kindergarten to higher education and special education. It however makes no distinction between rural and urban education and there is no distinct policy for the provision of education in rural areas.

The country’s education is guided by a series of ESD programs. The major focus is on increasing access and coverage of primary education, reducing gender gap and improving quality. Based on this, the major (in most cases the sole) provider of formal education particularly in the rural areas is the government. Its endeavor is however supported with substantial foreign assistance.

Prior to 1997 donor agencies operated independently of each other. Each stated its own terms and conditions for assistance, without any coordination among them. Besides, they followed the project approach. With the inception of the ESDP in 1997 however this has drastically changed.

In 1997 the Ethiopian government formed a partnership with 15 development agencies, including the World Bank, to prepare education sector development program and benefit from international experience and technical assistance. It is estimated that the Ethiopian government is nowadays responsible for financing 73 percent of the Education sector development program with an estimated cost of US$1.8 billion while donors are responsible for the remaining 27 percent. The partnership included: UNESCO, UNDP, UNICEF, DFID-UK, Irish Aid, SIDA, USAID, JICA, Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Finland, Italian cooperation, GTZ, NORAD, the European Commission, the African Development Bank, and the World Bank. The World Bank is the largest single donor to education.

From the above listed donors, the World Bank, DFID and UNICEF officials were interviewed and asked to expound on their support. The World Bank and DFID support Poverty Reduction Strategy and capacity building via direct budget support. Their initiatives include education and training for rural development especially as a poverty reduction factor. The discussion made with DFID revealed that, it is also concerned with teacher development programs (TESO). It has, with other bilateral countries, and created a pooled fund to support pre-service teacher education and in-service education like the
English language improvement (ELIP), and school leadership and management (LAMP) programs. Further, it was noted that the World Bank also assists the government in the area of policy development.

UNICEF assists regions in the improvement of primary education, complementary alternative basic education, and non-formal education. UNICEF further works with other partners (Save the Children, UNESCO and JICA), in the area of girls’ education. It also supports the professional development of teachers and school clusters, HIV/AIDS and life skill education, pastoralists and marginalized communities education, and community empowerment.

Save the Children USA supports primary education and non-formal and adult basic education in selected regions. It was disclosed in the discussion that this NGO expands, renovates and improves facilities of community-based schools and establishes centers for non-formal and adult basic education for children, youths and adults. The programs are basic adult education with HIV/AIDS components. It trains paraprofessionals and has also localized the curriculum for non-formal education and community empowerment.

Generally, while the government remains the main provide of formal education it gets substantial assistance from donors. The country, international agencies and the donor community have agreed on the importance of reducing poverty and its attendant problems. There is also consensus that poverty alleviation calls for multi-sectoral and multi-disciplinary approach one of which is the education sector.

With regard to early childhood education, the ESDP admits that it plays a positive role on the learning potential of the children. It however limits the government’s role to policy development and standard setting. The government exercises only four activities in this respect i.e. developing curriculum, providing supervision, setting standards for facilities and issuing licenses for the institutions. Establishing such institutions is left to the private sector, NGOs and the community. The parents will have to support the children though payment of tuition fees and provision of educational materials. Obviously, this cannot be education for all-particularly rural children.

The ESDP has also provided some space to adult and non-formal education. It visualizes three sub-components: the program for out of school children with 7-14 years of age, literacy program for those youth and adults whose ages are above 15 and offering, basic skill training to youth and adults in the community skill training centers. It also emphasizes that non-formal education can be a shortcut and cost effective alternative way of providing basic education. In practice however, no government budget is allocated and the task of providing such programs is left to the regional education bureaus to carry out with the participation and contribution from communities and NGOs.

Hundreds of local, church based and international NGOs operate in the different parts of the country and provide adult and non-formal basic education. The activities are however uncoordinated and lack proper documentation to enable detailed assessment.

4.2. Strategies and Initiatives Supporting ERP
Government agencies and development partners have indicated the existence of various practices that have helped the improvement of access and quality of education for rural people. The strategies and initiatives brought to light in the discussions made with the government agencies and development partners are organized under the following three core areas:

4.2.1. Expanding Supply: Building more schools is an obvious requirement in order to extend access to children who are currently out of school. It was however realized that it is difficult to attain universalization of primary education by 2015 under a highly standardized construction system. In a situation where there is low access and inequity in enrolments, and in the absence of significant improvements in efficiency and escalating costs of school construction, alternative strategies and models that help to increase access to education are required. The following approaches were reported to have been used by the regions:

a) Low cost schools: This involves low cost designs and the use of local construction materials in some areas. It also includes one class school (one teacher school) in non-accessible villages.

b) Boarding and mobile schools: These are being attempted in the pastoralist areas because mobility of the people, sparse population and harsh environmental conditions make it difficult to provide access to children in these areas only through systems that are designed for sedentary people. Curriculum and teacher training packages are adopted to suit the situation.

c) Multi grade school system: This has been initiated for sparsely populated and scattered villages, and is currently in pilot stage in Oromia and Amhara regions.

d) Alternative basic education center (ABE): While this caters for out of school children youths and adults; regional governments and NGOs have started implementing this complementary package.

e) Adult and non-formal education for youths and adults.

f) School expansion and renovation by local communities, government and NGOs.

g) Community based school construction by community and NGOs.

h) Expanding private provision of education: Private sector, non-government organizations schools can provide choices for schooling and help to increase access and quality.

i) Increasing the availability of schools in rural areas. It was reported that about 85-90 percent of primary schools are constructed in rural areas.

4.2.2. Improving Quality: This involves the intervention of many variables including the following.

a) Provision of textbooks,

b) Teacher development programs (in-service training, in-staff training, school cluster resource centers),

c) Distance education for teacher training usually implemented through correspondence courses supported by residential courses,

d) Mother tongue instruction for primary education and equivalent trainings,
e) Student centered teaching methods (problem solving and active learning approach),
f) Stakeholders participation and reinforced management function and leadership,
g) Provision of educational technology such as radio and TV supported education,
h) HIV/AIDS and life skill education.

4.2.3. Stimulated Demand
The measures taken in this respect include:
a) Promotion of education of girls: reducing opportunity costs by means of providing labor saving technologies such as developing water points and grinding mill initiatives by UNICEF; making school site closer to communities and providing separate latrine for girls, recruiting more female teachers, involving mothers (females) in school committees,
b) Ensuring school affordability: Abolition of school fees up to the end of general education (1-10 grades), provision of textbooks freely, assisting poor children with educational materials and other facilities as UNICEF did. Food security for education has been also exercised in some drought prone areas where hunger impedes learning and is a factor contributing to dropouts in rural areas. Providing nutritious food at schools (school feeding program) was sought as a solution to encourage children from poor families in rural areas to continue schooling. The program is also intended for improving and promoting hygiene by use of toilets and de-worming and the like as supported by WFP and USAID.
c) Making schools attractive: This is usually practiced by involving parents in school committees (PTA, Board) and improving school environments.

4.3. Programs and Types of Education Targeting Rural Population

4.3.1. Early Childhood Education (ECE): This sub-sector caters for children aged 4-6 years. The GER for this level was found to be 2.2 percent only, which shows no significant improvements have been made in this direction. It seems the sub-sector is left for NGO, communities and private organizations and rural children are totally excluded.

4.3.2. Primary Education: Expansion of primary education in rural areas is one of the major sub-sectors that is given high priority and support. The Education and Training policy provides for a decentralized curriculum and there are rooms to localize and adopt the curriculum to regional and local needs. However there seems little attempt made to differentiate the urban and rural curriculum components. Almost the same curriculum is used in both cases.

4.3.3. Adult and non-formal education: It was reported that the large regions have considered and started implementing this sub-sector as alternative root to expand access in rural areas. Some NGOs and donors support alternative basic education (ABE), functional adult literacy (FAL) and literacy programs. ABE centers serve both children of 7-14, age and adults who are 15 year and above. Similarly, the adult and non-formal
education programs serve children of age 7-14 years old and youths and adults of age 15 and above.

It was reported that both NGOs and regions conducting ABE for out of school children use curriculum that suits the needs of the community and which is equivalent to the curriculum for formal basic education (grades 1-4). As per the discussion with education officials, it was noted that the larger regions have shown dramatic improvements in access and internal efficiency because of ABE programs. The ABE centers use paraprofessionals (facilitators) that are recruited from the locality based on their knowledge of the culture and their interest in teaching. Teachers’ of ABE centers receive continuous professional development. The number of children in the classes is also maintained low to enhance the teaching learning process. Further, the close supervision made by the community contributes to the access, efficiency and quality goals in such centers.

IIZ/DVV is one of the few organizations supporting adult and non-formal education (ANFE). IIZ/DVV concentrates on community based non-formal livelihood skill training for adults and youths, (especially for dropouts below grade 10) and rural girls and women to help generate income by means of self-employment or employment contributing to the reduction of poverty. This poverty reduction and capacity building through livelihood skill training model is referred to as EXPRO. The other packages are strengthening CSTC (community skill training centers) or VET (vocational training centers) to offer flexible skill training which emphasizes livelihood needs, on market needs or on training needs or a combination of these. Facilitators of the program are locally recruited and trained people. Moreover, the organization supports Jima TTC, the only institution that runs the training programs of adult educators. The graduates work in the woreda education offices and in the CSTCs

4.3.4. Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET): The government undertook an extensive effort in restructuring and expansion of TVETs since 2001/02. TVETs are designated to provide trainings in about 28 different trades at the level of 10+1, 10+2 and 10+3 for those students who have completed general secondary education (grade 10). The data pertaining to this sub-sector shows that there were 158 private and government TVETs in the country that have enrolled 87,258 trainees (47.51% females) in the year 2003/04.

According to the data from MOARD, there are 25 government owned agricultural TVET schools that train middle level agricultural manpower. While the trainees are admitted after completion of general secondary (grade 10) the study areas include plant science, animal science, natural resources (environment), cooperatives and animal health. Upon their graduation they are placed in rural areas as development agents and closely work with the farmers. MOARD also offers junior training programs at farmer training centers (FTC) for practitioners who are primary school dropouts and adults with equivalent educational level. The FTCs train farmers for 3 months (300 hours, 2 days per week) on practical skills. In addition, recognizing the gaps in animal health delivery particularly in the pastoralist and remote areas, MOARD has introduced veterinary-supervised community-based animal health care delivery system. For this purpose, it has developed
curriculum and prepared guidelines for the training of community-based animal health workers (CAHWs). The community selects candidates for training as CAHWs and the training is conducted by a government-accredited trainer (MOARD, 2004).

4.4. Community Participation to Improve ERP

In principle there is a need for a strong link between schools and the local community as well as other stakeholders because of the importance of community support for schools with a partnership model in school management and the thinking that schools are social institutions established to serve school children and the local community. In this regard, there seems a good experience and notable and encouraging results were reported. It was mentioned that community participation in PTA and, school management committees have helped to improve enrolments and school maintenance. The involvement of community groups in the efforts to improve access and quality has helped to increase the flow of resources to schools and also to augment the demand for education. It was further indicated that there is need for strengthening the roles of NGOs, private sectors and community so as to increase access and realize the goal of universal primary education.

During the discussion it was stated that there is a high demand for primary and secondary education by the community. As a result of community mobilization, large number of schools have been constructed and renovated. Besides, the community employs many paraprofessional teachers and guards for the schools.

However, it has to be noted that the nature of community support will depend on factors such as the extent to which the community is empowered and mobilized, the ability of each school to responded to community interests and needs, public perception that school leadership is actively seeking to improve and the establishment of mechanisms that give community organizations a voice in school affairs. Some donors have indicated their fear that in some areas where poverty is chronic, the community may lack the capacity to fill the gaps in the education sector.

5. Challenges Prospects and Issues of Concern for ERP

5.1. Challenges

Low level of education is one of the most powerful determinants of poverty and unequal access to educational opportunity correlates with income inequality. Thus, without educational investment to sustained economic growth, rural development and progress in poverty reduction is difficult. Increasing access and raising the proportion of children who complete primary education, eliminating disparities and increasing the percentage of literate adult population are challenging goals. It is challenging to find
specific modalities to address the demand, supply and process issues in education under the framework of poverty reduction. The main challenges and problems that hamper the efforts to improve access and quality of EPR filtered from the discussion are presented as follows.

5.1.1. Access and Equity Issues
a) Early childhood education programs would have a payoff for primary education, by boosting student attainments and learning. In this direction, almost all children in the age of 4-6 years do not have access to pre-primary education or ECE. Similarly, non-formal and adult education for out of school children, youths and adults is expected to improve family income generation, children’s educational attainment, family health, and local resources management, empowerment for economic development and social participation and overall rural transformation. However, more than 60 percent of the adults are illiterate and more than 40 percent of school age children are out of school. The majority of them belong to drought prone areas, nomadic and semi-nomadic areas, un-served (remote) rural areas, rural girls, widely scattered subsistence farming and remote areas, ethnic minorities, working children, children and adults with disabilities, and rural and urban poor.

b) The Gross Enrolments Ratio (GER) at all levels in the system (primary, secondary and tertiary) is increasing with high rates. However, some regions like Afar and Somali, basically nomadic, rural and remote areas are much below the national averages. Similarly, gender and regional disparities are still high. Factors creating barriers to gender issues include lack of infrastructure (distance), a safe means of getting to school, inappropriate school calendar, poverty and unconducive school environments.

The socio-economic and cultural factors such as, lack of awareness and common understanding in the process of policy development among stakeholders, and perceived low usefulness of education are the challenges to improve access and equity in rural areas. Moreover, the living conditions in rural areas represent a key challenge for educational progress.

5.1.2. Efficiency and Quality Issues
Along with expansion of the educational system, indicators of inefficiency and poor quality are evolving. The dropout rates are unacceptably high. The survival rate to grade 5 is low even by sub-Saharan African standards. The pupil-teacher ratio, pupil-section ratios are not only very high but they are also higher in rural than urban areas. Although, the larger share of public expenditure goes to primary education, about 85 percent of the recurrent budgets are salary costs. Practically, schools are running out of operational budgets. On top of these, improving access and quality demands additional expenditure, which challenges the system. Quality is therefore at stake.

5.1.3. Capacity in Planning and Managing the System of Education
As a result of decentralization, the system of management has been restructured and most of the authority and responsibility has devolved to woreda (district) level. This requires expanded capacities; in terms of human as well as material and financial
resources and time. On top of these, the expansion of educational services requires more skilled education managers and planners. Local offices are un-staffed, or staffed by unqualified (technically incompetent) and inexperienced individuals who are unable to manage the education system, to formulate and enhance the development tasks as well as to exercise adequate control over resources. Further more, the problem is exacerbated by high turnover of personnel from key positions due to various reasons.

Financial provision also does not match with the authority and responsibility. Financial constraints adversely affect the ability of the education system to improve access and quality and to operate effectively. Financial shortcomings result from narrow resource base and high dependence of the education system on government revenues. The local communities are often limited in power and ability to mobilize resources and considerable proportion of educational subsides goes not to the neediest and poor family children but also to children’s of better income families.

Therefore, inadequate financial resources, lack of capacity by managers and planners to identify priorities through diagnosis of issues affecting educational supply, demand and processes of the rural people are policy challenges facing the system. In order to support the development needs, the education system itself requires a range of capacities that need to be deliberately nurtured. Thus, without capacity building, particularly at the decentralized entities and community levels, the sustainability of development and educational initiatives will be put at risk.

5.1.4. Coordination and Collaboration Between Partners and Government

Lack of common understanding among partners at system level and implementation level, lack of holistic and harmonizing plans at local levels for several sectors, absence of clear directives (at policy level) which indicate the how and what of coordination and collaborations, lack of policy that can capture all stakeholders are challenges to efforts made towards improving access and quality of ERP and rural development.

The analysis of educational supply, demand and processes related to poverty alleviation and the pursuit of sustainable rural development indicates that there is a serious problem that requires urgent attention. Thus, the international community, civil society and development organizations who have keen interest in supporting education systems of the country can and should work with national and regional authorities who have committed to change, and begin the process of improving the lives of large numbers of rural people.

The most important coordination and collaboration needed are between the activities of the MOE and MOARD. Most of the expansion in primary education is in the rural areas and most of the primary school leavers will remain in the rural areas as farmers and/or livestock herders. The educational activities of MOARD are aimed at increasing the productivity of the same. Cooperation and collaboration between the two Ministries will not only reduce duplication of effort but will also enable an integrated approach where infrastructure development, agricultural extension programs, veterinary service, formal education, adult education and vocational training will be implemented as a package in the rural communities to improve their livelihood.
5.2. Prospects for ERP

The situation in the country also provides some prospects for ERP. Among these are:

1. **Global Situation**: International fora on education have rightly stressed the need of education for development and affirmed that countries should work to towards MDGs.

2. **Private Provision of Education**: Private and non-government schools are flourishing particularly in urban areas. This will provide an opportunity for the government to focus on and expand educational access for rural and poor income areas.

3. **Political Support**: Education is given high priority and there is willingness and commitment from the government to achieve EFA goals.

4. **PRSP**: The existence of a policy framework that supports rural development will help to promote ERP. However, there is a need to support PRSP with action plans at the grassroots levels.

5. **Decentralization Policy**: Decentralization empowers users in making decisions that affect them, improves management efficiency, enables to generate revenues and helps to better respond to local variations. This policy has been going on in the country for over a decade now and it has created a better environment for ERP.

5.3. **Issues of Concern and Feasible Actions for ERP**

It is common knowledge now that progress in of education is powerfully linked to poverty reduction. However, not every type of education will have such a correlation. A good education system needs to be built on access, quality and delivering issues. This may require strategic thinking, using resources efficiently, explicitly addressing the needs of the disadvantaged and enhancing access/quality continuum. Therefore, feasible actions should be identified by analysing the priority issues affecting the education system and its outcomes. In this regard the following are the major issues of concern:

1) **Alternative strategies**: In order to attain the MDGs, the gap across the regional states, particularly the nomadic areas and the rural-urban disparities have to be narrowed. This calls for alternative approaches for the provision of primary education with great flexibility that takes into account climatic conditions, settlement patterns and population density.

2) **Bringing Decentralization nearer to schools**: The ongoing decentralization should reach schools and local communities so that they will be empowered and perform better to meet local needs. Devolving the decision-making authority and delegating responsibility and accountability to the local level and thereby promoting school-based management would help to ensure sustainability (financial, systemic, institutional, dynamic) of the system.

3) **Strengthening Local Initiatives**: There is evidence that more and more villages are demanding for a school that is within walking distance. This progress is the result of both decentralization efforts in recent years and local initiatives involving many actors, including NGOs and donors. Such endeavors should be supported and strengthened.
4) Monitoring Progress: Education for rural people is gaining more attention. In order to ensure success, the plan and the implementation need to be closely monitored and evaluated for adjustments. For this purpose, it is imperative that educational data collected at all levels should indicate rural performance separately.

5) Strengthening Institutional Capacity: Building capacity at all levels of the system becomes a priority because sustainability cannot be achieved without it. Local development needs holistic and realistic planning. Therefore, building capacity in planning and managing education for rural development is essential.

6) Improving the Scope of Collaboration and Coordination: Involving new stakeholders and closely working with the existing ones is a prerequisite for developing education program relevant to rural area. This can be realized by designing a policy that captures all stakeholders and development partners. Cooperation between MOE and MOARD is of particular importance.

7) Creating enabling environment: Supporting the teaching learning process with commensurate level of inputs (personnel, material, facilities finance), strengthening working relationships of school communities, and involving parents as partners in school governance will help not only in improving quality but also in combating dropout and related problems.

8) Adapting curriculum: The curriculum pursued hitherto is the same for both rural and urban areas. Adapting the curriculum to the needs of rural children, thus, stands high. This might consider strengthening the link between education and poverty.
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Annex A: *Interview Guide*

MoE, OCBEB

1) What policies and plans are in place, which specifically address the unique character of the rural sector that perpetuates poverty?

2) What policy frameworks (initiatives) supporting ERP are in place that can be used by your organization and lower administrative units in the following areas of concern?
   a) Expanding Supply (How to increase access, proposed models)
   b) Improving Quality (low-cost, effective strategies)
   c) Stimulate Demand (relieve household constraints)

3) What kind of education is provided targeting rural population? (Pre-primary, Basic education, primary education, basic non-formal for out of school children, non-formal and adult literacy education, secondary education, TVET, higher education)

4) What programs are in place to improve rural education?
   (Curriculum, teachers training, administration, relationship between the School and the community)

5) What specific education policy and strategy are designed for rural population?
   (Drought prone areas, nomadic and semi-nomadic areas, un-served (remote) rural areas, rural girls, widely scattered subsistence farming and remote areas, ethnic minorities, working children, children and adults with disabilities, illiterate adults)

6) What is your opinion regarding the capacity of policy-makers and managers in planning and managing to enhance access and quality of ERP?

7) Is rural primary education a priority in terms of budget allocation within the education budget? How?

8) How do the education and agriculture sector work together? How can partnerships and stakeholders’ participations be strengthened to enhance access and quality of ERP?

9) What are the prospects for the progress of ERP with regard to:
   a) Coordination and collaboration among partners, stakeholders and government
   b) Institutional capacity in sustainable manner
   c) Policy and legal frameworks and others

10) What are the major problems facing or likely to occur in the course of improving access and quality of ERP?
11) Any comments regarding how to improve access and quality of education for rural people in relation to rural development and poverty reduction.

NGOs

1. Name of the Organization: ------------------------ Type: ------------

2. Vision/Mission:  -------------------------------------------------------------
   -----------------------------------------------------------------------------

3. Kind of education provided for people (targets of education activities): -----
   --------------------------------------------------------------------------------

4. Program area focused: --------------------------------------------------------
   -----------------------------------------------------------------------------

5. Operational area: ---------------------------------------------------------------

6. Number of sites/schools/centers: -----------------------------------------------

7. Target population: ---------------------------------------------------------------

8. Enrollment ----------------------------------------------------------------------

9. What programs and strategies practiced (innovation) for ERP can be scaled up?
   a. To improve access and equity
   b. To improve relevance and quality
   c. To improve educational efficiency and productivity
   d. To integrate school and community
10. How can NGOs better work and be involved in the education sector in relation to rural development and poverty reduction?

12) What mechanisms are required to promote community participation in education of rural areas?

12. What are the prospects for the progress of ERP with regard to?
   a) Coordination and collaboration among partners, stakeholders and government
   b) Institutional capacity in sustainable manner
   c) Policy and legal frameworks and others

13. What are the major challenges (impediments) to ERP?


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MOARD

1. What kind of education does the MOARDA provide to rural people? (TVET, skill training for adults, higher agricultural education,)

2. Are there collaboration and coordination efforts with education sector to provide ERP? In which programs?
3. How can the education and agriculture sector work together (improve inter-sect oral co-operation) to enhance the contribution of education for rural people?

4. How can education be linked to rural development and poverty reduction?

5. What are the prospects for the progress of ERP with regard to:
   a) Coordination and collaboration among partners, stakeholders and government
   b) Institutional capacity in sustainable manner
   c) Policy and legal frameworks and others

6. What are the major challenges (impediments) to ERP?

7. Any comments regarding how to improve access and quality of education for rural people in relation to rural development and poverty reduction.

Donors

1. Name of the Organization: ------------------------- Type: ---------------

2. Sub-sector (kind of education or targets of education activities) Supported:
   ________________________________________________________________

3. Program area Supported: -----------------------------------------

4. What are the practices regarding collaboration and coordination among stakeholders, partners and government to enhance the contribution of education for rural people?

5. Education for rural development envisages a broad educational approach to meet effectively and equitably the basic learning needs of rural children, out-of-school youth and adults, in the perspective of reducing rural poverty. Donor agencies recently opted for sector wide approach (SWAP) in fund allocation. How this can be implemented from rural development perspective?

6. How are resources and other capacities for educational plans and management in relation to the rural development and poverty reduction secured?

7. How can donor community's better support and be involved in education for the rural people?
8. What are the prospects for the progress of ERP with regard to:
   a) Coordination and collaboration among partners, stakeholders and government
   b) Institutional capacity in sustainable manner
   c) Policy and legal frameworks and others

9. What are the major challenges (impediments) to ERP?

10. Any comments regarding how to improve access and quality of education for rural people in relation to rural development and poverty reduction.

Annex B: List of People Met

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Institution Represented</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ato Dereje Terefe</td>
<td>V/Minster for General Education</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Mr. Gary Theisen</td>
<td>Senior Education Specialist</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ato Getahun Gebru</td>
<td>Senior Program Operations Officer</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ato Alemayehu Minas</td>
<td>Education Section Head</td>
<td>DFID</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Ato Tamirat Difabachew</td>
<td>Extension and TVET Program Department Head</td>
<td>Ministry of Agriculture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>W/o Amakelech Gidey</td>
<td>Education Project Officer</td>
<td>UNICEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ato Dereje Asfaw</td>
<td>Education Wing (Bureau), Head</td>
<td>Oromia Education and Capacity Building Bureau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ato Teshome Lema</td>
<td>Educational Planning and Program Department, Head</td>
<td>Oromia Education and Capacity Building Bureau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Ato Mengistu Edo</td>
<td>Education Advisor</td>
<td>Save the Children USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Ato Oumer Mohammed</td>
<td>Education Officer</td>
<td>Save the Children USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Dr. Bernd Sandhaas</td>
<td>IIZ/DVV German Adult Education Association, East Africa Region, Director</td>
<td>IIZ/DVV German Adult Education Association, East Africa Region Office</td>
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