**All children in school by 2015**

**Global Out of School Children Initiative**

# Study on Situation of Out of School Children (OOSC) in Ethiopia

**Ministry of Education and UNICEF – Ethiopia Country Office**

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## ACRONYMS

| | |
|---|---|
| 5DE | Five Dimensions of Exclusion |
| ABE | Alternative Basic Education |
| ANER | Adjusted net enrolment rate |
| CMF | Conceptual and Methodological Framework |
| EC | Ethiopian calendar |
| EDHS | Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey |
| EFA | Education for All |
| EMIS | Education Management Information System |
| ESAR | Eastern and Southern Africa Region |
| ESDP | Education Sector Development Program |
| GC | Gregorian Calendar |
| GEQIP | General Education Improvement Program |
| GER | Gross Enrolment Rate |
| GPI | Gender Parity Index |
| ISCED | International Standard Classification of Education |
| JRM | Joint Review Mission |
| M&E | Monitoring & Evaluation |
| MDGs | Millennium Development Goals |
| MOE | Ministry Of Education |
| MOFED | Ministry of Finance and Economic Development |
| NER | Net Enrolment Rate |
| OOSC | Out-of-school children |
| PASDEP | Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty |
| REB | Regional Education Bureau |
| SIP | School Improvement Program |
| SNNPR | Southern Nation Nationalities Peoples Region |
| TVET | Technical and Vocational Education and Training |
| UIS | UNESCO Institute for Statistics |
| UNDP | United Nations Development Programme |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization |
| UNICEF | United Nations Children's Fund |
| UNPD | United Nations Population Division |
| UPE | Universal Primary Education |
| USAID | United States Agency for International Development |

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# EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

## Country Context

Ethiopia's total land area is about 1.1 million square km., of which about two thirds is estimated to be potentially suitable for agricultural production. Out of the total land suitable for agriculture, the cultivated land is estimated to be 16.5 million hectares (22%). About 96% of the cultivated land area is under smallholder farming while the remaining is used for commercial farming (both state and privately owned). Per capita cultivated land holding averages only around 0.5 hectare. Currently, Ethiopia has a three-tiered federalist system of government, comprising the federal government; nine administrative regions and two chartered city administrations; and over 800 woredas and sub-cities. The government is made up of two tiers of parliament: the House of Peoples' Representatives and the House of Federations, where political leaders are elected every five years. The federal government is committed to decentralizing power which is aimed at providing each region with autonomy. This is accompanied by fiscal decentralization which devolves decision-making powers to lower tiers of government. Ethiopia's economic activities have shown encouraging results over the last fifteen years. The Government is committed to achieving economic stability and keeping inflation low. Average real GDP growth rates of over 10 percent were registered between 1996 and 2008/2009. This recent growth translated in an increase in average GDP per capita income, from US$ 102 in 2000/1 to US$ 220 in 2007/8.

## The Education Sector and Profiles of Excluded Children in Ethiopia

The economic and social development of Ethiopia has demanded profound improvements in the education sector. Accordingly, within the framework of the 1994 Education and Training Policy, three Education Sector Development Programs/ESDPs have been developed and implemented since 1997 and the fourth ESDP has been launched recently to guide the operation of the education system by focusing on the following priority programs: a) quality and internal efficiency: ensuring student completion and achievement; b) equity in access: reaching the marginalized and un-reached; c) adult education (with specific attention to Functional Adult Literacy; d) focus on sciences and TVET; and e) improving management capacities. Consequently, commendable results have been registered in expanding access to educational opportunities and improving quality, relevance, equity, and efficiency of the education system. Despite these achievements, there are still more than three million of out-of-school children that have never enrolled or that have dropped out of school.

The profiles of excluded children in the country were examined using the Five Dimensions of Exclusion model introduced by UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. According to this model, the five dimensions are defined as follows: Dimension 1: children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school; Dimension 2: children of primary school age who are not in primary or secondary school;

Dimension 3: children of lower-secondary school age who are not in primary or secondary school; Dimension 4: children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out; and Dimension 5: children who are in lower-secondary school but at risk of dropping out.

Regarding the profile of OOSC in Dimensions 2 and 3, there are 4,878,385 out of school children based on the administrative data using enrolment rates. Of these, 3,075,862 are in the primary age group and 1,802,523 are in the lower secondary age group as per the structure of the Ethiopian education system (primary 1-8; lower secondary grade 9-10). According to the International Standard of Education Classification, the number of out of school children in the primary age group (Grades 1 to 6) and in the lower-secondary age group (Grades 7 to 10) is 5,017,181 and 2,522,319 respectively as computed from the Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey (EDHS) 2011 data.

Concerning the profiles of children in Dimensions 4 and 5, the drop-out rate varies, by grade level, students' sex, and region. As regards grade variation, it is very high in the first grade of primary education and tends to decline consistently in the next higher grades with some exceptions that are observed in grades 5 and 8. In terms of students' sex, in most cases the drop-out rate is slightly lower for boys than it is for girls. Concerning regional variation, the highest is observed in the Somali region.

**Purpose of the Study**

The major purpose of this study is to assess the situation of out-of-school children (OOSC) in Ethiopia and suggest strategies that would help introduce a more systematic approach to address the problems of children excluded from educational opportunities and guide concrete education sector reforms towards more equitable coverage of basic education in Ethiopia and thereby achieve the education MDGs and EFA goals. More specifically, this study intends: to examine the detailed profiles of out-of-school children in Ethiopia (Chapter 1), to scrutinise major barriers and bottlenecks to school participation (Chapter 2), to analyze existing policies and strategies designed to tackle key bottlenecks (Chapter 3), and to explore existing social protection programs and interventions that contribute towards mitigating problems of out-of-school children in the country (Chapter 4).

**Methodology**

The following methods and procedures were employed to attain the above-mentioned purposes of the study.

a) Review of available documents related to OOSC

Quite a number of documents were identified from relevant ministries as well as government and non-government organizations and reviewed thoroughly.

b) Review of quantitative/statistical information from secondary sources

The 2007 population and Housing Census of the Central Statistics Agency, the 2009/2010 Education Statistics Annual Abstract of EMIS/MoE and EDHS 2011 were used as major data sources and fourteen templates were filled in from these and other data sources.

c) Review of qualitative data from six sample regions (Somali, Gambella, Oromia, SNNPR, Amhara and Addis Ababa) through the use of interview protocols, focus group discussion/FGD guides, and case study checklist

The quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive summaries, disparity analyses, trend/time series analyses, and regression analysis. The qualitative data were categorized into themes and summarized at regional level and ultimately integrated to see the most prominent issues related to the 5DEs. Finally, tables, graphs and typologies were produced to highlight the major findings of the study.

**Limitations of the Study**

In undertaking this study, the country team has encountered some challenges. The paucity of administrative data on the profile of out-of-school children in terms of the five dimensions of exclusion (5DEs), coupled with inaccessibility of the household census of 2007 survey raw data, has curtailed the effort of the study team to make rigorous statistical analyses on important household characteristics and produce detailed disaggregated data/results related to children at risk. Due to this, the information and data from EDHS 2011 was obtained from UIS to construct the typology of out-of-school children.

Another limitation was the unavailability of enrolment data by ethnic group. This has been challenging as children from various ethnic background live dispersed in all regions. Ethiopia is a country of over 80 ethnic groups. The EMIS administrative data and other data sources do not capture enrolment by ethnic group. As a result it was not possible to analyze the disparity among the various groups.

Unavailability of data by single year of age in the DHS Report was another challenge. To overcome this, there was a need to use the enrolment data by age as computed by the EMIS based on the school age population obtained from the Central Statistics Agency for the same year.

The time specified for undertaking the country study was not compatible with the nature of the task. As it was an innovative approach, it was not easy even to conceptualize the five dimensions of exclusion, the typologies and formulae contained in the Conceptual and Methodological Framework/CMF developed for the purpose.

The aforementioned constraints might have their negative bearing on the quality of the study report.

**Summary of Findings and Conclusions**

**Profiles of Excluded Children**: The analysis of data on Dimension 1 revealed that only about 11% of pre-primary school-age children (6 years) attend education at pre-primary and primary schools. Regional variations were observed in terms of attendance and enrolment rates at this level of education.

Regarding the profile of OOSC in Dimensions 2 and 3, out of school children are estimated to be over 3 million in the primary age group and over a million under lower secondary in the Ethiopian education structure. The estimation is higher when attendance rate is considered since dropout of school children is observed throughout the year after enrolment data is captured.

The age of this population varied from 7 years for Grade 1 to 16 years for Grade 10. Besides, a relatively high percentage of children dropped out of primary schools. Moreover, as the age of the children increased, the dropout rate also increased. From this it was possible to identify the following three categories of dropouts:

a) children who dropped out in early grades and thus were unlikely to have acquired even the most basic mastery of reading, writing, numeracy and other skills;
b) children who dropped out after completing the primary cycle and who may not continue their education at secondary level; and
c) children who may leave school before or after completing lower-secondary education.

The percentages of those children whose ages were 7 and 8 and who joined the primary education as new entrants were found to be high as compared to those of the older children. It should be emphasized that leaving school without completing the full cycle of primary education is still problematic. The analyzed data further indicate that those children who live in rural areas are prone to be OOSC. All these situations may pose a serious problem for the education system.

The OOSC gender difference is higher at lower ages and almost at parity after age 13. The findings further indicated that, even though high gross and net enrollment rates were recorded at national level, over three million children of primary and lower secondary age were still out of school. It was also clearly observed from the findings that a sizeable portion of the school-age children were not attending school due to their engagement in productive and housekeeping activities. Besides, more girls than boys did housekeeping work and more boys than girls were engaged in economic activities. In general, child labour was found to be common both in rural and urban areas of the country, though the participation of rural children is higher than their urban counterparts.

Concerning the profiles of children at risk in Dimensions 4 and 5, the results disclosed that the dropout rate from primary and lower-secondary education varied from grade to grade, region to region, and according to students' sex. Moreover, dropout as well as repetition rates at primary and lower-secondary levels were found to vary by grade,

region, and sex. Furthermore, the transition rate from primary to lower-secondary education showed that 80% of both male and female students in the final grade of primary education were able to enter the first grade of lower-secondary education.

The disaggregated data by wealth and region further unveiled that those in the highest wealth quintile had better attendance and enrolment rates, especially at the lower-secondary level. This indicates the need to motivate or to give the necessary support like educational materials and uniform for poor students. In terms of region, the highest percent of OOSC was documented in Afar, Somali, Addis Ababa, Dire Dawa, and Harari, whereas the lowest was found in Tigray and Amhara. The trend analyses also revealed that enrolment rates had increased significantly in the past 15 years. The multivariate/regression analysis also disclosed that enrolment rates varied significantly by residence, age, sex, and region.

**Barriers and bottlenecks:** Education barriers and bottlenecks are directly or indirectly related to the demand for and supply of education. The demand for education can be affected by socio-cultural and/or economic barriers and bottlenecks. On the other hand, the supply of education is affected by the availability of finance to provide physical and human resources. The socio-cultural barriers are expressed in terms of violence against children/gender-based violence, harmful traditional practices, lack of awareness about the ultimate benefit of education, wrong attitude towards children with disabilities and female children. On the other hand, the economic demand side comprises poverty, the cost-benefit of education, being orphan, seasonal factors and migration.

As far as the supply side is concerned, basic services such as textbooks and learning materials, separate latrines for boys and girls, accessible services for children with disabilities, etc. were found to be among the major barriers. With regard to political governance and capacity, it is apparent that the Ethiopian Government has shown its commitment by expanding schools and increasing the annual budget for education. However, the weak partnership with NGOs and CSOs in addressing the problems of OOSC, the absence of comprehensive data on the profiles of OOSC, and the inequitable resource allocation are identified as bottlenecks.

**Education Policies and Strategies:** In Ethiopia primary education lasts 8 years and is split into Grades 1-4 (primary first cycle) and Grades 5-8 (primary second cycle). Secondary education is also divided into two cycles each with their own specific goals. Grades 9-10 (secondary first cycle) provides two years of general secondary education and upon completion students are streamed either into Grades 11-12 (secondary second cycle) as preparation for university, or into technical and vocational education and training (TVET), based on performance in the secondary education completion examination.

Within the framework of the 1994 Education and Training Policy (ETP), the Government of Ethiopia launched the first five year Education Sector Development Program (ESDP I) in 1997 as part of a twenty-year education sector plan. Since the inception of ESDP I

there has been a dramatic increase especially in primary school enrolment. The target set for ESDP I of raising primary enrolment from 3.7 million to 7 million was surpassed with enrolment reaching 8.1 million in 2000/01. This trend continued throughout the duration of ESDP II (2000/01- 2004/05), III (2005/06-2010/11) and IV (2010/11-2014/15) with primary school enrolment reaching around 15.8 million in 2009/10.

Review of the available policy documents and strategies shows that the issue of out-of-school children (OOSC) in terms of the five dimensions of exclusion (5DEs) is not emphasized in the Ethiopian education system. Although the recently launched Education Sector Development Program (ESDP IV: 2010/11-2014/15) includes a detailed discussion on improving equity and access in general education, it does not consider particularly those children who are in primary and lower-secondary schools that are at risk of dropping out from schools (Dimensions 4 and 5) as one of the challenges of the education system. This indicates that the issue of excluded children is not fully addressed in our education system. It was also observed that, though the country has had its own education and training policy since 1994, it lacks an education act/law which would serve to enforce education-related policies and standards; determine the authority, responsibility and accountability of stakeholders; and ensures the rights of children excluded from educational opportunities. Although Building Code No. 24/2009 has been put in place recently, the construction of schools does not still take into consideration the needs of children with disabilities. Despite the rapid expansion of the system, Ethiopia's education sector faces the following four key challenges: access to education opportunities continues to be an obstacle, especially for females and other most vulnerable children, poor students and pastoral or semi pastoral areas; inequities in the provision of quality education are widespread, as better resourced schools are generally located in urban areas and in the non-emerging regions; there are socio-cultural barriers to participation (especially for girls in rural areas); and there are financial constraints with households paying a large share of non-salary recurrent education expenditures.

The ESDP IV (2010) document states that, notwithstanding the significant progress in access and the improvements in some equity indicators (e.g., gender parity index in primary education), participation levels at primary education remain much lower in some of the emerging regions and among pastoralist and semi-pastoralist groups. Overall, more than three million primary school-age children are out of school in the country. The rural population in general faces serious accessibility constraints at secondary level. Alternative Basic Education (ABE) has developed rapidly and helped in increasing enrolment rate but problems of low quality and of transition between ABE centers and the formal school system still prevail.

**Social Protection systems:** Though there are policies and program initiatives that are implemented to help people not to fall into and to escape from poverty, Ethiopia has not yet developed comprehensive and integrated social protection systems with robust implementation strategies and plans of action. Fragmented efforts that the government has made so far through different pro-poor interventions, including legal and policy reforms

have not reduced vulnerability and poverty to the expected level. According to the 2008 UNDP report, 39% of the people are unable to meet basic nutritional and non-food needs. Official documents also reveal that the head count, poverty gap and poverty severity indices in 2004/2005 for rural areas were lower than the levels five years ago by 13, 31, and 41 percent, respectively. Despite the efforts made through different reforms and initiatives to improve the livelihood of all citizens including children, several national strategies and programs and implementation modalities have not mainstreamed the responsibilities of the relevant institutions operating at different levels. This has jeopardized the implementation of policies and programs and resulted in insignificant improvements of people's livelihood.

The leading agency in the area of social protection is assumed to be the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs at the federal level and similar departments of the regional bureaus of the same sector. But there is no appropriate structure down to the grassroots where social protection programs are actually implemented. On the other hand, some of the policies developed to address social protection issues of the vulnerable section of the society are found to be outdated and need to be revised in order to incorporate emerging issues related to globalization. Furthermore, as a result of the ineffective coordination mechanism, the Developmental Social Welfare Policy has become outdated showing no tangible change in multi-sectoral ways of approaching issues related to social protection. Though the country has taken remarkable steps in enacting laws and issuing relevant policies that have bearings on the plights of all citizens, there are still gaps with regard to consolidating child law and child protection policies. Experience has also shown that the Ethiopian social protection strategies mainly focus on protection interventions rather than preventive programs which aim at creating conditions that would enable the targets to cope with the incidence before they fall into shock and vulnerability.

**Recommendations**

Policies and strategies for supporting out-of-school children in Ethiopia and closing the remaining net enrolment gaps will require making hard decisions by policy makers, particularly given the current context of inequity and inefficiencies. Addressing the five dimensions of out-of-school children (OOSC) will also require a much stronger policy framework for bridging the resource divide, which has primarily focussed on supply side policies without adequate attention to the demand side barriers and bottlenecks to OOSC. New approaches to addressing the 5DEs will also require short-term and longer-term policies which attempt to address the structural inequities which characterise 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.

Experience in the world shows that the challenge becomes harder in the last 10-15% of out of school children. This is the most marginalized group with multiple disparities who remain out of reach and who face considerable disadvantage in overcoming the two main hurdles-entering schools and progressing through the cycle. To this effect, the following courses of action are recommended by the country study team:

- A concerted nation-wide effort should be made to identify those children who have dropped out and those who are at risk of dropping out and search for the means to help these children continue their education.
- Due attention should be given to providing children with textbooks and other learning materials; fulfilling basic facilities such as drinking water and separate latrines; and making schools suitable for children with disabilities.
- The current increasing enrolment trend must be maintained by encouraging two targets of the population. Firstly, those children at the primary age group should be able to attend formal education continuously. Secondly, those children above the age of 14 need to be enrolled in school as much as possible by age 17. Side by side, strategies ought to be designed to decrease dropout and repetition rates. Moreover, appropriate strategies must be designed to address the needs of the pastoralist/semi-pastoralist communities in general and vulnerable children in particular.
- Pre-primary education need to be expanded both in the formal and non-formal school readiness programmes as it has a contribution to decreasing dropouts and improving learning achievements in primary. It will also minimize the late entry into the first grade of primary school, which is a major barrier to achieving universal primary education, as children who start school late are more likely to drop out before they complete the cycle.
- Alternative modes of delivery of education need to be initiated in order to address the education of late entrants
- A series of discussions should be held with the community regarding the benefits of education and the rights of children. The issue of OOSC should also be advocated in such discussions.
- Back to school campaign need to be intensified in a sustainable and systematic way so that who dropped out of school re-enter and continue their education. Committees that will work on returning OOSC to school should be established in all schools and these committees should be supported.
- Solutions for addressing the problems of those children who are already out of school will need to be integrated with the issue of addressing the needs of children at risk of dropping out of primary and lower-secondary schooling over the next four years.
- In order to remove gender-based violence and bring about behavioral change in schools and communities at large, advocacy work should be done consistently. Moreover, sensitization and other behavioral change communication training

should be given to teachers, students and community members on laws, rules and regulations issued by the government in relation to violence against children.

- Teachers should be trained on how to handle children with disabilities and the society should be sensitized to avoid stigma and discrimination in this regard.
- Partnership with national and international NGOs and CSOs should be strengthened in order to address the problems related to OOSC.
- Tracking the dimensions of exclusion requires new systems of capturing OOSC data, along with better tracking systems of those who are likely to drop out. Hence, EMIS data collection formats should be upgraded to capture data on the profile of OOSC, the marginalized and the disadvantaged to facilitate monitoring on their access and integration in mainstream schools and progress.
- There should be stronger relationships between the Ministry of Education, the Central Statistics Agency, the Ministry of Health, and other relevant institutions to ensure that vital data on the OOSC profile is collected through the census, the demographic health survey, and poverty-related studies. This collaboration will also help to coordinate work and refine indicators on OOSC in the country.
- Political, religious and community leaders should work closely with the respective government officers in order to reduce the number of OOSC.
- Better strategic approaches and much closer collaborations among the Ministry of Education and similar ministries in other African countries with high rates of OOSC are needed to learn from their best practices and address the problems of OOSC in the country.
- There is a need to put in place comprehensive and integrated social protection systems with adequate implementation strategies, plans of actions, and budgets so as to fully address vulnerability and poverty.
- A national orphan support program with an adequate budget should be put in place so as to address the problem of this section of the society.
- Re-activating socio-cultural values that promote support in times of crisis and shock would play a crucial role in building resilience to emergencies. This type of community support mechanisms have to be brought on board in a new approach.
- Abolishing primary school fees has helped reduce costs, but has not removed the cost barrier to enrolment for the poorest. Non-fee costs, such as school uniforms and supplies, can be substantial, particularly for poor households, and require additional solutions. In this regard, it may be essential to initiate and strengthen social protection policies to help households send children to school. This includes targeted scholarships to offset education costs; conditional and unconditional cash transfers by way of providing cash grants to poor households that meet criteria such as school attendance ; or unconditionally for certain population groups.

# INTRODUCTION

## Country Context

### Geographic Context

Ethiopia's total land area is about 1.1 million square km., of which about two thirds is estimated to be potentially suitable for agricultural production. Out of the total land suitable for agriculture, the cultivated land is estimated to be 16.5 million hectares (22%). About 96% of the cultivated land area is under smallholder farming while the remaining is used for commercial farming (both state and privately owned). Per capita cultivated land holding averages only around 0.5 hectares.

### Political and Socio-economic Development Context

Currently, Ethiopia has a three-tiered ethnic-based federalist system of government, comprising the federal government; nine administrative regions and two chartered city administrations; and over 800 *woredas* and sub-cities. The government is made up of two tiers of parliament: the House of Peoples' Representatives and the House of Federations where political leaders are elected every five years. The federal government is committed to decentralization that provides each region with autonomy accompanied by fiscal decentralization which devolves decision-making powers to lower tiers of the government.

Ethiopia's economic activities have shown encouraging results over the last fifteen years. The Government is committed to achieving economic stability and keeping inflation low. Average real GDP growth rates of over 10 percent were registered between 1996 and 2008/2009. This recent growth translated in an increase in GDP per capita income, from US$ 102 in 2000/1 to US$ 220 in 2007/8. The proportion of people below the poverty line at national level measured by the poverty head count index declined from 44.2% in 1992 to 38.7% in 2004/05. Much of the decline in national poverty is attributed to improvements in rural areas. The significant decrease in rural poverty is attributed to the wide-ranging and multi-faceted pro-poor programs that have been implemented in rural areas such as extension programs to support commercialization of smallholder agriculture, the Food Security Program, and the recent Productive Safety Net Program, among others. However, there has been a relative increase in income inequality in urban Ethiopia as measured by the increase in the Gini Coefficient from 0.38 in 1992 to 0.44 in 2004/05. The agricultural sector is the major driver of the economy and is a source of income for the majority of the population. The sector contributes about 50% to the total GDP, generates about 90% of the export earnings, and supplies about 70% of the country’s raw material requirement for large and medium-sized industries that are agro-based.

The government strategy to invest heavily in infrastructure and social services as a way of jump-starting a strong private-sector-led growth had created a rapid expansion in domestic demand and contributed to the overall GDP growth in the last several years. Analyzing employment by sector, Ethiopian rural areas are dominated by employment in agriculture, which is nonetheless following

a declining trend, shifting from 96.6 per cent in 1994 to 88.1 per cent in 1999. Employment in services shows an increasing pattern, especially in wholesale and retail trade, and hotels and restaurants. The manufacturing sub-sector has also been growing. The decline in work in agriculture has been compensated by an increase of women's employment in the above-mentioned sectors.

**The Education Sector and Main Players/Stakeholders**

As indicated in the ESDP IV, the economic and social development of Ethiopia's population has demanded profound improvements in the education sector. Accordingly, ESDP IV was developed to guide the operation of the education system by focusing on priority programs which help realize these improvements. The core priorities in the education system in the coming years are grouped under the following five main themes: a) quality and internal efficiency: ensuring student completion and achievement; b) equity in access: reaching the marginalized and un-reached; c) adult education (with specific attention to Functional Adult Literacy); d) focus on sciences and TVET; and e) improving management capacities.

With the introduction of the federal structure, power has been devolved to lower levels of the government. At present the provision of education is the concurrent responsibility of the federal, regional and local governments. The responsibilities for the three levels are clearly delineated. The Ministry of Education, as the executing agency at the federal level, plays a more policy-oriented role and acts as a change agent in leading the education sector towards the realisation of EFA and MDGs. The regions and *woredas* are charged with more of operational responsibilities. The management and financing of primary and secondary education is the responsibility of the regions and *woredas* based on the national policy and standards developed and approved by the Ministry of Education. In addition to the aforementioned government organs, a number of external financing agencies play an active role by supporting the Ethiopian educational system. The role of these financing agencies is not limited to providing funds; they also participate in joint reviews and other supervision missions and are represented in the ESDP central and regional steering committees. In addition, donors take part in the joint review missions (JRM) and annual review meetings (ARM).

Parents/Community members are also among the key players/stakeholders who play their part through the PTAs established in schools. The PTAs serve as the main sources of support for schools in availing lacking facilities. They also plan the growth of the school in collaboration with the school leadership, raise awareness of parents to advance education in general and that of girls in particular, and create conducive school environments to make schools child-friendly. On top of this, PTAs monitor teachers' and students' attendance, and solve disciplinary problems that may arise from students or teachers. Moreover, teachers and students play a significant role towards the effectiveness of the education system. As the main actors in the teaching learning process, teachers are required to prepare lesson plans and deliver the lessons using an active learning approach, to follow up the performance of each student through continuous assessment

methods, to maintain a friendly relationship with students, to show exemplary personality demeanour, to council students, and to confer with parents to solve student problems. Students, on their part, contribute their share for the smooth operation of the teaching learning process.

**General Introduction to the Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DEs) in the Country**

This study follows the Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DEs) model introduced in the Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) of the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children (UNICEF and UIS, 2011). The model presents five target groups of children for the data and policy analysis that span three levels of education: pre-primary, primary and lower-secondary; and two different population groups: children who are out of school and those who are in school but at risk of dropping out. The definition of each of the five dimensions is presented below.

**The Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DEs) are:**

**Dimension 1:** children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school;

**Dimension 2:** children of primary school age who are not in primary or secondary school;

**Dimension 3:** children of lower-secondary school age who are not in primary or secondary school;

**Dimension 4:** children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out; and

**Dimension 5:** children who are in lower-secondary school but at risk of dropping out.

According to the above definitions, children of primary or lower-secondary school age are considered as being "in school" if they participate in primary or secondary school. On the other hand, children of primary school age or older who are in pre-primary education are considered to be out of school according to the CMF standard definition. This study looks at the school attendance status of primary school-age children by both including and excluding pre-primary education.

Dimensions 4 and 5 focus on children who are at risk of dropping out. They are grouped by the level of education they attend, regardless of their age: i.e., primary (Dimension 4) or lower-secondary (Dimension 5). There are many potential indicators for being at risk. This study looks into the following factors and indicators to understand the profiles of children who have already dropped out or are considered to have greater chances of dropping out: late entry, grade for age, grade repetition, and school dropout.

Concerning the profiles of children at risk in Dimensions 4 and 5, the dropout rate from primary and lower secondary education varies from grade to grade, region to region, and in terms of gender. Besides, the survival rate of female students is relatively better than that of male students though the overall survival rate to the last grade of primary education is below the average level. Moreover, dropout rate as well as repetition rate at primary and lower secondary levels differ by grade, region, and students' sex. As regards the transition rate from primary to lower-secondary

education, 80% of both male and female students in the final grade of primary education were able to enter the first grade of lower-secondary education.

**Purpose of the Study**

The major purpose of this study is to assess the situation of out-of-school children (OOSC) in Ethiopia and suggest strategies that would help introduce a more systematic approach to address the problems of children excluded from educational opportunities and guide concrete education sector reforms towards more equitable coverage of basic education in Ethiopia so that the country can achieve the education MDGs and EFA goals. More specifically, this study intends: to examine the detailed profiles of out-of-school children in Ethiopia (Chapter 1), to scrutinise major barriers and bottlenecks to school participation (Chapter 2), to analyze existing policies and strategies to tackle key bottlenecks (Chapter 3), and to explore existing social protection programs and interventions that contribute towards mitigating problems of out-of-school children in the country (Chapter 4).

**Methodology**

The following methods and procedures were employed to attain the above-mentioned purposes of the study.

a) Review of available documents related to OOSC

Quite a number of documents were identified from relevant ministries as well as government and non-government organizations and reviewed thoroughly.

b) Review of quantitative/statistical information from secondary sources

The 2007 household survey of the Central Statistics Authority and the 2009/2010 education statistics annual abstract of EMIS/MoE were used as major data sources, and fourteen templates were filled in from these and other data sources.

c) Review of qualitative data from six sample regions (Somali, Gambella, Oromia, SNNPR, Amhara and Addis Ababa) through the use of interview protocols, focus group discussion (FGD) guides, and case study checklists.

The quantitative data were analyzed using descriptive summaries, disparity analyses, trend/time series analyses, and regression analysis. The qualitative data were categorized into themes and summarized at regional levels and ultimately integrated to see the most prominent issues related to the 5DEs. Finally, tables, graphs and typologies were produced to highlight the major findings of the study.

**Limitations of the Study**

In undertaking this study, the country team has encountered some challenges. The paucity of administrative data on the profile of out-of-school children in terms of the five dimensions of

exclusion (5DEs), coupled with inaccessibility of the household census of 2007 survey raw data, has curtailed the effort of the study team to make rigorous statistical analyses on important household characteristics and produce detailed disaggregated data/results related to children at risk. Due to this, the information and data from EDHS 2011 was obtained from UIS to construct the typology of out-of-school children.

Another limitation was the unavailability of enrolment data by ethnic group from the EMIS administrative data nor from other data sources. Thus, it was not possible to do an analysis of out of school children by ethnic background.

Unavailability of data by single year of age in the DHS Report was another challenge. To overcome this, there was a need to use the enrolment data by age as computed by the EMIS based on the school age population projected and obtained from the Central Statistics Agency for the same year.

The time specified for undertaking the country study was not compatible with the nature of the task. As it was an innovative approach, it was not easy even to conceptualize the five dimensions of exclusion, the typologies and formulae contained in the Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) developed for the purpose.

# CHAPTER 1: PROFILES OF EXCLUDED CHILDREN

This chapter presents profiles of excluded children in Ethiopia based on the Conceptual and Methodological Framework developed by UIS and UNICEF. It is organized into six sections. The first section focuses on overview and analysis of data sources while the second deals with profiles of excluded children in Dimension 1. Sections three and four discuss profiles of OOSC in Dimensions 2 and 3 as well as OOSC involvement in child labour. The chapter then proceeds to the discussion of profiles of children at risk in Dimensions 4 and 5 and culminates by highlighting the analytical summary.

## 1.1 Overview and Analysis of Data Sources

The research team has identified different data sources from relevant ministries as well as government and non-government organizations. The two major data sources for the study are the Education Statistics Annual Abstract of EMIS/Ministry of Education and the population and housing census (household survey) of the Central Statistics Agency. While the EMIS data serve to generate the enrolment rate and other indicators, the household data serve to generate the attendance rate in the estimation of D2 and D3. These two major data sources and two additional sources (the Child Labour Survey and the Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey) were used in Chapter One to show the profiles of excluded children. In the Ethiopian context, Grades 1 to 8 are classified as primary while Grades 9 and 10 are classified as lower-secondary. In the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), Grades 1 to 6 are classified as primary while Grades 7 to 10 are classified as lower-secondary.

The classification of education as per the Ethiopian Education and Training Policy was also considered in the analysis for comparison and any policy decision at country level.

As clearly stated in the CMF, no single data source can provide a complete profile of OOSC. Comprehensive analysis requires the use of multiple sources of data because they provide information on different issues measured at different points in time and because each data source has limitations that must be considered during analysis.

In this regard, two major data sources, i.e. administrative data obtained from the Education Statistics Annual Abstracts from EMIS/Ministry of Education and Household Surveys from Central Statistics Agency were used. At this juncture, it seems appropriate to explain the advantages and limitations of the two data sources in order to clarify sources of discrepancies that may be observed in the Report and thereby clear out the doubt in users of this report about consistency of data.

As outlined in the CMF, both sources of data have their own advantages and limitations. In terms of school participation, administrative data typically refer to enrolment at the beginning of the school year and do not provide information on regular attendance. By definition, enrolment records also provide no information on out-of-school children, the number of whom must be estimated indirectly using data on enrolment and the relevant school-age population. it does not also provide insight into the individual or household characteristics of students.

This information gap in understanding the characteristics of children and their households is filled with findings from Household surveys. Moreover, analysis by sex, ethnicity, and area of residence, household wealth quintile, child labour status, the parents' level of education and other factors are possible with data collected by surveys or censuses. More importantly, the survey data covers children who are not enrolled in school unlike the administrative data.

It is true that surveys are not without limitations. It is often not possible to link results to information about the education system. The surveys are generally not carried out every year, unlike the collection of annual administrative data. The sample population typically does not include the homeless (including street children) and mobile populations.

Administrative data and household surveys measure education participation in different ways. Administrative sources focus on reporting of enrolment at the beginning of the school year. By contrast, household surveys estimate educational participation with data on school attendance at some point during the school year, based on information provided by a parent or guardian. A child is considered to have been in school even if he or she attended only for one day in the reference school year. Furthermore, the collection of enrolment and attendance data does not always occur at the same time. Household surveys are often not coordinated with the academic calendar and the timing of a survey can affect estimates of participation rates and age reporting.

EMIS's annual enrolment calculations, in Ethiopia, are based on the school age population projected by the Central Statistics Agency for that year. UIS calculations of enrolment rates combine national enrolment statistics with population estimates by the UN Population Division (UNPD), which relies on projections from national census data. In some cases, UNPD population estimates may not be compatible with national population estimates and enrolment statistics, which may lead to discrepancies in the calculation of enrolment rates and other key education indicators.

In summary, both administrative records and household surveys provide important perspectives regarding the profiles of OOSC. The overview and analysis of these data sources is presented hereunder.

**Education Statistics Annual Abstract (2009-2010 G.C.)**

This abstract depicts the provision of the relevant information on education and training offered across the country (from preprimary to higher education) and the consequent achievements made

so far. The document fundamentally portrays the summaries of student enrollment; teacher profile; distribution of schools, colleges, and universities; student-section and student-teacher ratios; dropout and repetition rates; and the gender gaps at all levels.

Moreover, the statistical document briefly spells out the 2009-2010 education and training data disaggregated by sex, age, region, location (urban/rural), level of education, grade, and type of school (public, private, NGO). The document also contains both descriptive and analytical summaries of population, enrolment, teacher profile, schools and sections, facilities, learning materials, exam results of Grades 10 and 12, and budgets. It is expected that the abstract enables users to easily identify the regional, urban/rural, and gender disparities pertaining to the country. Besides, the document helps policy makers to set future goals and make the required interventions in terms of education and training by identifying feasible measures to be taken and allocating the much needed resources to further expand access and improve quality in the system. Among the major advantages of the administrative data are that the data are available for every year and that the terminology is easily understood by experts and other users.

It is worth mentioning that Ethiopia has a well-established system to collect EMIS data each year. The system has also introduced data verification mechanism at different stages. The administrative data is used by government in different development plans and annual plans for targeting and monitoring. The Ministry of Education gets the projected population size by single age for each year from the Central Statistics Agency to calculate enrolment and other rates. It is noted that there is usually a discrepancy between the national and UNPD's projection.

Nevertheless, the EMIS statistical document fails to properly deal with the profiles of out-of-school children in the country. Other limitations include the possibility of reporting inflated enrolments by schools; and inexistence of dropout rates by single age; disaggregated data by social and ethnic groups as well as by religious affiliation. Moreover, the administrative data does not capture data on vulnerable children: orphans, children of poor families; migrants; working children; children affected by HIV/AIDS, children affected by conflict and internally displaced persons (IDPs) or children, etc.

**The 2007 Population and Housing Census**

Starting from 1984, national population and housing census has been carried out in our country once in every ten years. Accordingly, the third national population and housing census was conducted in the months of May to November 2007. At country level, the 2007 census covered the then existing total number of 85 zones and 765 *weredas*. The census report presents the major statistical data that are essential to policy makers, planners, administrators, researchers and other data users in a table format. To this effect, such characteristics as region, sex, grade, school attendance, literacy status, disability status, being orphan status, type of residence, etc. are used for disaggregated analysis of the population. And conducting disparity analysis by disaggregating the data using background variables is found to be the advantage of this report.

However, the 2007 Census Report was not used in detail since the research team and MoE were informed that the attendance variable has a problem. On the other hand, it was only used to find Dimension 1 because it has better information on attendance of 6 years old children.

**The Child Labour Survey (2001)**

The survey contained information for children aged 5-17 pertaining to their school attendance and reason for dropout, health and welfare situation, condition of employment of children who are working for pay, and their working conditions. The information in the survey has been used to examine the relationship between child labour and children's education in general and its impact in terms of enrolment, attendance and dropout, as well as to look into policy gaps and implementation shortcomings in relation to international conventions and national laws in the area of child labour.

**The Ethiopian Demographic and Health Surveys (2005 and 2011)**

Under the 2005 DHS data source, it was possible to compare the disparities by wealth quintile and see whether school attendance is low among the poor and high among the rich target groups. Moreover, the ANAR and the number of out of school children were calculated and estimated using the typology based on the 2011 EDHS and UNPD population projection obtained from UIS. Continue here

**Other Data Sources**

On top of the above four data sources, 10 documents that could be used for the rest of the three chapters were identified. Some of them are studies related to ABE, national learning assessment, ESDP IV and others that can be applied in the area of demand, supply, bottlenecks, strategies, and polices. For example, ESDP IV is a five-year program action plan spanning from 2010/2011-2014/2015 (2003-2007 E.C.) Organized under six chapters (national development context; education policy framework; priority action programs; implementation, monitoring and evaluation framework; financial framework; and major assumptions, risks and mitigation), the program is expected to address different challenges of the education sector.

Ethiopia has carried out three national learning assessments in 2004, 2008 and 2010, covering sample primary and secondary schools found in all the nine regions and the two city administrations. The main purposes of conducting the national assessments were to measure learning achievements of students of Grades 4, 8, 10 and 12 and identify the factors that determine those achievements. They also aimed at providing comparative information on school improvement. Both quantitative and qualitative research approaches were employed to obtain the required information for the three studies.

The main purpose of the ABE paper was to assess the status of ABE in Ethiopia by: identifying major contributions of the ABE program to achieve UPE, coming up with the role of NGOs in the

implementation of the program, identifying good practices of the program, identifying the different challenges, and suggesting future actions to improve its implementation in future.

## 1.2 Profile of Children in Dimension 1

The analysis of data on Dimension 1 involves data on the school attendance status of the population one year younger than the official primary school entrance age (7). In this study, attendance rate of 6-year-olds was taken from the 2007 Housing and Population Census. These children are in pre-primary or primary education, or they may be out of school. According to the CMF, the percentage of pre-primary age children and those who are out of school is calculated as follows:

1) Percentage of pre-primary children who are in pre-primary or primary education = the number of children of pre-primary school age enrolled in pre-primary or primary education divided by the number of children of pre-primary school age;
2) Pre-primary age children out of school = 100 minus percentage of children of pre-primary age who are enrolled in pre-primary or primary education.

Table 1 presents attendance rate of pre-primary children who are attending in pre-primary and primary education at national level, disaggregated by region and sex.

*Table 1: Percentage of children of pre-primary age (age=6 years) in pre-primary or primary education, by sex and region*

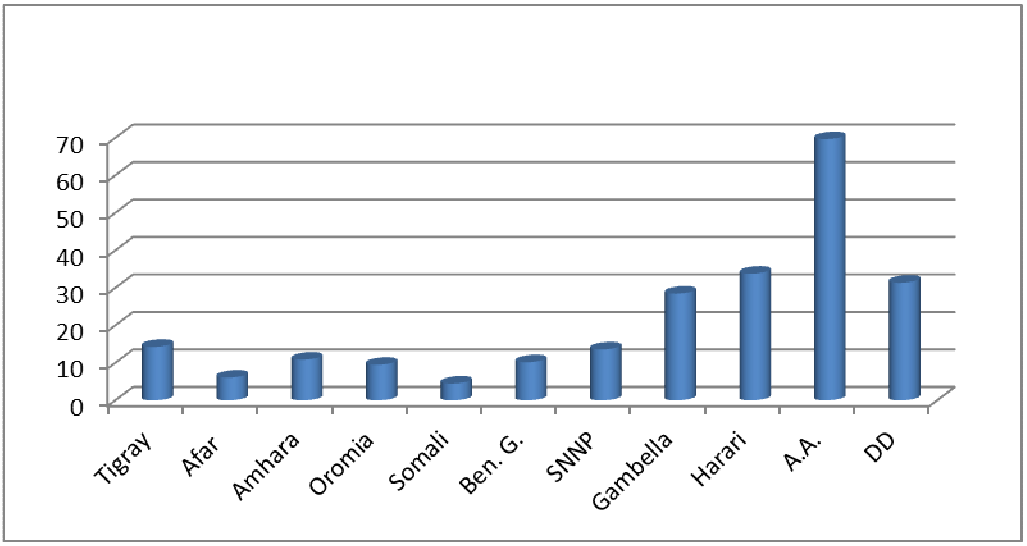
| Region | Not attending | Pre-primary | Primary | Both | Total pop. | % Attending | % not attending | % pre-primary | % Primary |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tigray | 109,708 | 7,497 | 10,745 | 18,242 | 127,950 | 14.3 | 85.7 | 5.9 | 8.4 |
| Afar | 46,841 | 638 | 2,382 | 3,020 | 49,861 | 6.1 | 93.9 | 1.3 | 4.8 |
| Amhara | 477,843 | 21,541 | 36,734 | 58,275 | 536,118 | 10.9 | 89.1 | 4.0 | 6.9 |
| Oromia | 890,788 | 41,045 | 52,697 | 93,742 | 984,530 | 9.5 | 90.5 | 4.2 | 5.4 |
| Somali | 169,926 | 2,668 | 5,303 | 7,971 | 177,897 | 4.5 | 95.5 | 1.5 | 3.0 |
| Benishangul Gumuz | 23,389 | 888 | 1,764 | 2,652 | 26,041 | 10.2 | 89.8 | 3.4 | 6.8 |
| SNNP | 488,316 | 37,125 | 39,802 | 76,927 | 565,243 | 13.6 | 86.4 | 6.6 | 7.0 |
| Gambella | 8,171 | 1,121 | 2,133 | 3,254 | 11,425 | 28.5 | 71.5 | 9.8 | 18.7 |
| Harari | 3,372 | 990 | 734 | 1,724 | 5,096 | 33.8 | 66.2 | 19.4 | 14.4 |
| Addis Ababa | 11,917 | 18,204 | 9,202 | 27,406 | 39,323 | 69.7 | 30.3 | 46.3 | 23.4 |
| Dire Dawa | 5,932 | 1,377 | 1,333 | 2,710 | 8,642 | 31.4 | 68.6 | 15.9 | 15.4 |
| **Sex** | | | | | | | | | |
| Male | 1,160,600 | 69,233 | 83,071 | 152,304 | 1,312,904 | 11.6 | 88,4 | 5.3 | 6.3 |
| Female | 1,078,816 | 64,198 | 79,844 | 144,042 | 1,222,858 | 11.8 | 88.2 | 5.3 | 6,5 |
| All | 2,239,416 | 133,431 | 163,515 | 296,346 | 2,535,762 | 11.7 | 88.3 | 5.3 | 6.4 |

*Source: The 2007 Population and Household Survey*

According to the data in the table, about 11.7% of pre-primary school-age children ( 6) attended pre-primary school (5.3%) and the remaining 6.4% attended primary school. The disaggregation by regional level shows the highest percentage of attendance was in Addis Ababa (69.7%), followed by Harari (33.8%) and Dire Dawa (31.4%). The least were reported to be in the emerging regions of Somali (4.5%) and Afar (6.1%). The higher percentages in Addis Ababa, Harari and Dire Dawa could be attributed to the different kindergarten institutions found in these urban areas.

Figure 1 also complements the data presented in Table 1.

*Figure 1: Percentage of children of pre-primary age (6 years) attending pre-primary or primary education, by region*




Source:*The 2007 Population and Household Survey*

In the Dakar declaration of 'Education for All', states have expressed their commitment to "expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children". Ethiopia is a signatory of this declaration, which clearly shows that this commitment has to be taken seriously. Currently, the providers at this level are mostly non-government organizations, communities, private institutions and faith-based organizations. The roles of the government are limited to teacher training, curriculum development and closer monitoring to improve the quality of education.

Though, establishing standardized kindergarten at different parts of the country might be expensive and share the cost of expanding primary education, the current effort of encouraging pre-primary age children to attend grade zero in primary schools must be encouraged in all parts of the country. In such cases, we can further reduce the dropout rate from grade one since the children will adapt to the school environment before reaching the age 7.

## 1.3 Profiles of OOSC in Dimensions 2 and 3

### 1.3.1 General

This section deals with the profiles of OOSC in Dimension 2 and Dimension 3, hereafter referred to as DE2 and DE3. The main purpose here is to provide a national estimate of primary and lower secondary school-age children who are out of school and to analyze the results obtained. To this effect, the data sources, methods used to estimate the OOSC and data analysis are presented in that order.

**Data Sources and Methods**

The main data sources used to estimate the OOSC under the current analysis is the 2009/10 Education Statistics Annual Abstract of the Education Management Information System (EMIS)/Ministry of Education (MoE). The estimations of OOSC were conducted using the typology provided by UNICEF and UIS. Moreover, other estimates presented in the tables were computed using the formulae given in the CMF.

The estimation of OOSC under DE2 and DE3 is performed by considering the Ethiopian educational structure and context (primary: Grades 1 to 8 and lower-secondary: Grades 9 to 10) and international standards according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) (i.e. primary: Grades 1 to 6 and lower-secondary: Grades 7 to 10).

**Data Analysis and Findings**

The definitions obtained from the CMF were applied to the administrative and EDHS 2011 data, as appropriate, which were processed using the typology as well as formulae provided to obtain the results. Different typologies and tables produced using the aforementioned data sources are discussed as follows.

**Basic Typology**

Out-of school-children of primary school and lower-secondary age fall into two main groups with respect to their exposure to education. The first group consists of children who have yet to start school while the second group comprises children who have dropped out before reaching the theoretical age for completing school. The first group can be broken down further in terms of the probability of future schooling. There is a good chance that many of these children, especially those at younger ages, will start school at some point in the future. Some, however, will never begin schooling. Examining rates of school participation for older primary school-age children allows one to judge the proportion of young out-of-school children that may enter primary school late.

**First group of OOSC: Children who attended but left school**

As indicated in the typology, significant percentages of children drop out of school. It has also been observed that, as the age of the child increases, the dropout rate also increases at different scenarios. From this, it is possible to identify the following three categories of dropouts:

a) children who dropped out from early grades and thus are unlikely to have acquired even the most basic mastery of reading, writing, numeracy and other skills;
b) children who dropped out after completing the primary cycle and who may not continue their education at secondary level; and
c) children who may leave school before or after completing lower-secondary education.

**Second group of OOSC: Children who are expected to enter school in the future**

Children who will enter in the future are children that have not yet entered formal education but will do so in the future. Entry into school may be delayed by one or more years. An increase in this delay is assumed to place children at an increased risk of dropping out or registering a low academic achievement. For the purpose of this study, the probability of entering in the future refers to the likelihood of entering school for the first time by age 17. However, entry into the education system after age 17 is not considered.

In the calculation of the typology, it is indicated that the percentage of those children whose ages were 7 and 8 when they joined primary school as new entrants was high as compared to the older children. Out of the total OOSC, some are expected to enter primary school before they reach age 17. From these conditions, one can suggest that the necessary action should be taken to increase the number of new entrants as early as possible.

**Third group of OOSC: Children who are expected to never enter school**

The third group of out-of-school children constitutes those that have never been in school. These are children who have never attended in the past and are not expected to do so in the future. In contrast to the aforementioned two groups, this group has no exposure to formal education at all. Out-of-school children who are expected to enter school after they have reached age 18 are grouped together with people who never enter school.

### 1.3.2 Adjusted Net Enrolment Rates (ANER) and Out of School Children (OOSC)

In the measurement of school participations, three main indicators are used for the administrative data. These indicators are gross enrolment rate (GER), net enrolment rate (NER) and adjusted net enrolment rate (ANER). The first rate measures the enrolment of children at a specific level of education regardless of their age. The second rate measures the enrolment of children at the specific level according to the age specific for that level. The third rate in which we are interested now measures the enrolment of these children at the intended level for education and the subsequent level. For example, the primary adjusted net attendance rate measures the total

number of pupils of the official primary school-age group who are enrolled at primary or secondary education levels, expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population.

As Table 2 indicates; the adjusted net enrolment declines with age. For example, at age 7 the adjusted net enrolment for males was 87.6%; for females the figure was 82.5% while the ANER in total was 85.1%. But at the age of 14, these enrolment trends declined to 71.2%, 65.6% and 68.4%, respectively. The adjusted net enrolment rates at the age of 15 were 59.9%, 52.0%, and 56.0% for male, female, and in total, respectively.

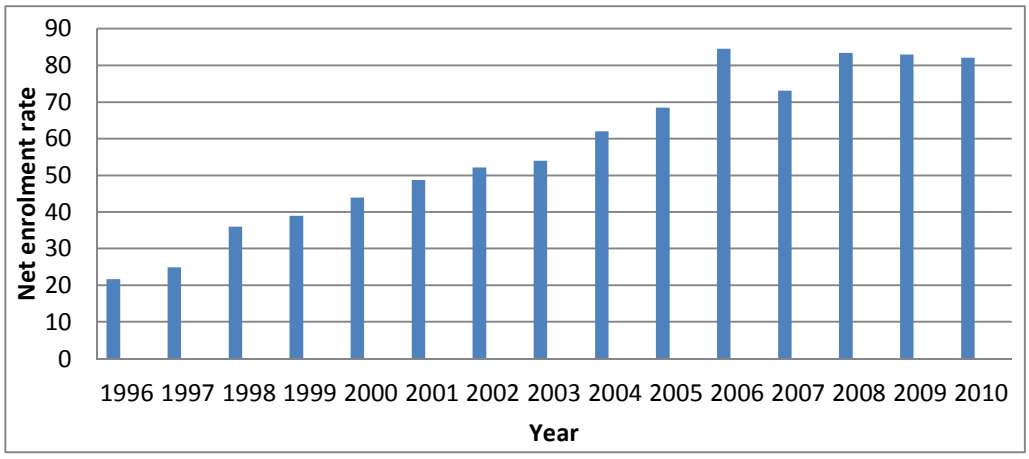
*Table 2: Adjusted net enrolment rate (ANER), by sex*

| Level of Education | Age | Male | Female | Total | Gender Parity Index |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary age | 7 | 87.6 | 82.5 | 85.1 | 0.94 |
| | 8 | 90.9 | 87.7 | 89.3 | 0.97 |
| | 9 | 86.2 | 83.6 | 84.9 | 0.97 |
| | 10 | 92.3 | 90.1 | 91.2 | 0.98 |
| | 11 | 76.5 | 75.3 | 75.9 | 0.98 |
| | 12 | 84.7 | 82.1 | 83.4 | 0.97 |
| | 13 | 77.6 | 75.7 | 76.7 | 0.98 |
| | 14 | 71.2 | 65.6 | 68.4 | 0.92 |
| **Total** | | 83.7 | 80.6 | 82.2 | 0.96 |
| Lower Secondary age | 15 | 59.9 | 52.0 | 56.0 | 0.87 |
| | 16 | 51.7 | 41.4 | 46.6 | 0.80 |
| **Total** | | 55.9 | 46.8 | 51.4 | 0.84 |

*Source: EMIS 2010*

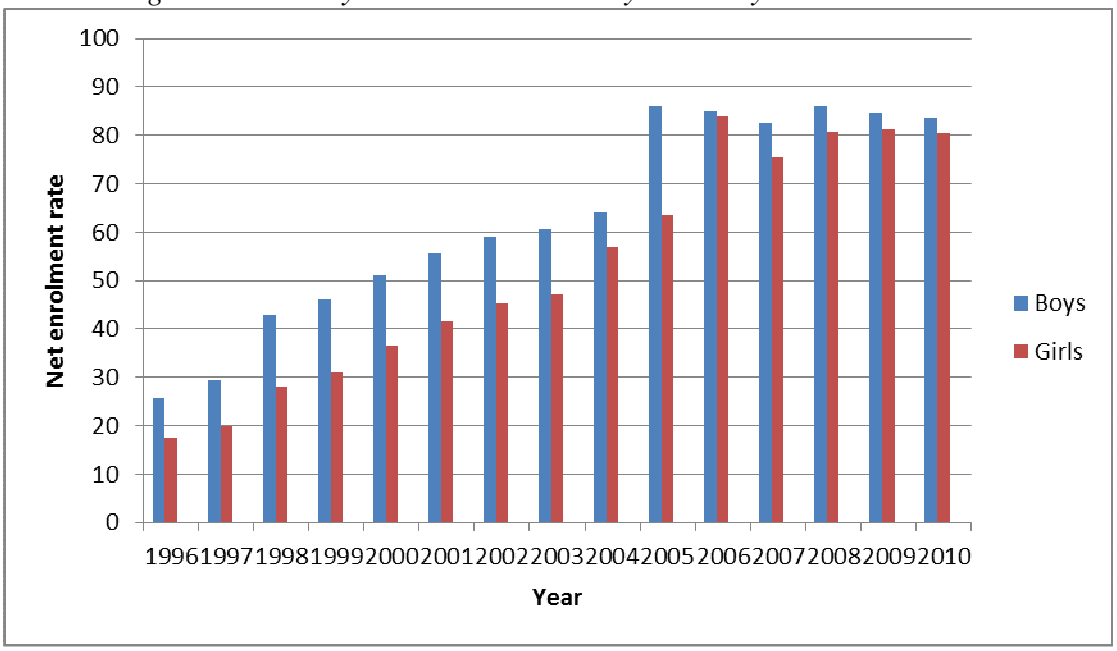
The trend analysis for the past fifteen years also shows that net enrolment rate (NER) has increased from 21.6% to 82% for all primary students (See Figures 2 and 3 below).

*Figure 2: Primary net enrolment rate by year*




*Source: EMIS Annual Reports*

*Figure 3: Primary net enrolment rate by sex and year*




*Source: EMIS Annual Reports*

**Gender Disparities**

It is known that gender parity is MDG 3 and Ethiopia is one of the countries that entered commitment to eliminate gender disparities at all levels of education. As per its commitment, Ethiopia is on the right track towards eliminating gender disparities. The Gender Parity Index (GPI) of enrolment or attendance rates, calculated as the ratio of female to male values, provides information on disparities in educational participation between boys and girls. If the GPI is between 0.97 and 1.03, it can be said that gender parity is achieved. If GPI is less than 0.97, females are disadvantaged; and if GPI is greater than 1.03, males are disadvantaged. Moreover, if GPI for dropout rate is less than 0.97, dropout rate for girls is lower than that of boys, putting boys at a disadvantage. According to the data in Table 2 above, gender parity in primary education for ANER is 0.96 and in lower-secondary education it is 0.84.

**a) Out of School Children Based on Administrative Data**

According to the CMF percent of out of school children for primary education (DE2) in the Ethiopian context (grades 1 to 8) is calculated by subtracting ANER from 100%, Where ANER is calculated by considering those enrolled for primary and whose age is 7 to 14 and again adding to this those enrolled in lower secondary whose age is 7 to 14 and dividing by all children in the age group of 7 to 14.

*Table 3: Percentage and number of out of school children, by age and sex based on enrolment rate*

| Age | Number of Male Children | Male % OOSC | No. of Male OOSC | Number of Female Children | Female % OOSC | No. of Female OOSC | All No of children | **All % OOSC** | All No of OOSC |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| ***Primary*** | | | | | | | | | |
| **7** | 1,161,512 | 12.4 | 143,628 | 1,120,971 | 17.5 | 196,126 | 2,282,483 | 14.9 | 339,754 |
| **8** | 1,137,811 | 9.1 | 103,479 | 1,097,693 | 12.3 | 134,810 | 2,235,504 | 10.7 | 238,290 |
| **9** | 1,113,802 | 13.8 | 153,988 | 1,074,292 | 16.4 | 176,338 | 2,188,095 | 15.1 | 330,326 |
| **10** | 1,089,459 | 7.7 | 83,731 | 1,050,764 | 9.9 | 104,163 | 2,140,223 | 8.8 | 187,895 |
| 11 | 1,064,756 | 23.5 | 250,324 | 1,027,102 | 24.7 | 254,094 | 2,091,859 | 24.1 | 504,419 |
| 12 | 1,038,996 | 15.2 | 158,822 | 1,003,009 | 17.9 | 179,912 | 2,042,005 | 16.6 | 338,735 |
| 13 | 1,011,816 | 22.4 | 226,834 | 978,332 | 24.3 | 237,477 | 1,990,149 | 23.3 | 464,311 |
| 14 | 983,417 | 28.8 | 283,637 | 953,164 | 34.4 | 327,985 | 1,936,580 | 31.6 | 611,621 |
| ***Total (i)*** | **8,601,570** | **16.3** | **1,404,446** | **8,305,328** | **19.4** | **1,610,904** | **16,906,898** | **17.8** | **3,015,350** |
| **Lower secondary** | | | | | | | | | |
| **15** | 954,870 | 40.1 | 382,842 | 927,933 | 48.0 | 445,105 | 1,882,803 | 44.0 | 827,947 |
| **16** | 926,578 | 48.3 | 447,724 | 902,776 | 58.6 | 529,144 | 1,829,354 | 53.4 | 976,869 |
| ***Total (ii)*** | ***1,881,448*** | ***44.2*** | ***830,567*** | ***1,830,709*** | ***53.2*** | ***974,249*** | ***3,712,157*** | ***48.6*** | ***1,804,816*** |
| ***All (I + ii)*** | ***10,483,018*** | ***21.3*** | ***2,235,013*** | ***10,136,037*** | ***25.5*** | ***2,585,153*** | ***20,619,055*** | ***23.4*** | ***4,820,166*** |

*Source: EMIS 2010*

The percentage of children of lower secondary school age out of school = 100 - lower secondary ANER - percentage of children of lower secondary school age enrolled in primary education.

The number of out-of-school children for lower secondary education (DE3) in the Ethiopian context (grade 9 to 10) is percentage of children of lower secondary school age out-of-school multiplied by number of children at lower secondary age. For example male whose age is 16 and enrolled in (a) lower secondary are 200892, (b) upper secondary are 9202 and (c) primary are 268759. The total number of male children whose age is 16 is 926578. According to the definition of the CMF the percent of out of school children is 100 - (a+b / 926578) - (c/926578) = 100- (200892+9202/926578)- (268759/926578) = 100- 51.7 = 48.3%. Thus, the total male out of school children is 0.483 x 926578; which is equal to 447,724. The figures in Table 3 for lower secondary are results of a similar calculation using the definition and formulae of the CMF.

As per the calculation using the administrative data of 2009/2010, about 17.8% of primary school age children (7-14 year olds) i.e. 3,015,350 children are out of school (DE2). Table 3 depicts that,

of these, 1,404,446 (16.3%) are male and the remaining 1,610,904 (19.4%) are female. Concerning lower secondary, 1,804,816 children (DE3), i.e. 48.6% are out of school. Of these, 44.2% (830,567 children) are male and 53.2% (974,249 children) are female. All in all 4,820,166 are out of school children based on the enrollment data in 2009/2010. Of these, 2,235,013 are male while the remaining 2,585,153 are female.

### 1.3.4 Disparities by Region

Table 4 presents percent and number of out of school children of primary and lower secondary age by region (based on the Ethiopian context primary Grades 1-8 and lower secondary Grades 9-10 and ANER).

*Table 4: Percentage of out of school children of primary and lower secondary age by region*

| Region | Percent of OOSC in primary age | No of OOSC in primary age | Percent of OOSC in lower secondary age | No of OOSC in lower secondary age |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tigray | 5.2 | 49,402 | 41.1 | 86,855 |
| Afar | 69.6 | 228,522 | 85.9 | 67,974 |
| Amhara | 5.0 | 184,513 | 48.7 | 410,920 |
| Oromia | 21.7 | 1,396,848 | 49.2 | 667,117 |
| Somali | 53.9 | 561,573 | 72.2 | 182,701 |
| Benishangul/Gumuz | 8.8 | 13,791 | 21.2 | 7,331 |
| SNNP | 12.3 | 440,693 | 46.5 | 351,661 |
| Gambella | 10.1 | 7,226 | 24.0 | 3,910 |
| Harari | 18.0 | 6,832 | 24.1 | 2,115 |
| Addis Ababa | 22.4 | 106,903 | 14.4 | 19,476 |
| Dire Dawa | 27.1 | 19,047 | 34.4 | 5,756 |
| Total | 17.8 | 3,015,350 | 23.4 | 1,804,816 |

*Source: EMIS 2010*

The highest percentage of out of school children for primary is documented in the two predominantly pastoralist regions of areas of Afar (69.6%) and Somali (53.9%). Similarly, Afar has the highest percent of out of school for lower secondary (85.9%) followed by Somali (72.2%).

Significant proportions (above 40%) of out of school children are also observed in Oromia (49.2%), Amhara (48.7%), SNNP (46.5%) and Tigray (41.1%) among lower secondary age group. These regions are highly populated and cover over 70% of the country's population

In terms of absolute figures, Oromia has the highest number of out of school children in primary (i.e. 1,396,848) followed by Somali (561,573) and SNNP (440,693). For lower secondary (Grades

9 – 10), the relatively large number of out of school children are found in Oromia (667,117), Amhara (410,920) and SNNP (351,661) followed by Tigray (86,855).

It has been observed from the findings of the study that these figures are far below the results of the Adjusted Net Attendance Rate (ANAR) based on the Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey 2011 data as could be seen from the sections that follow.

b) **Out of School Children Based on 2011 EDHS Data**

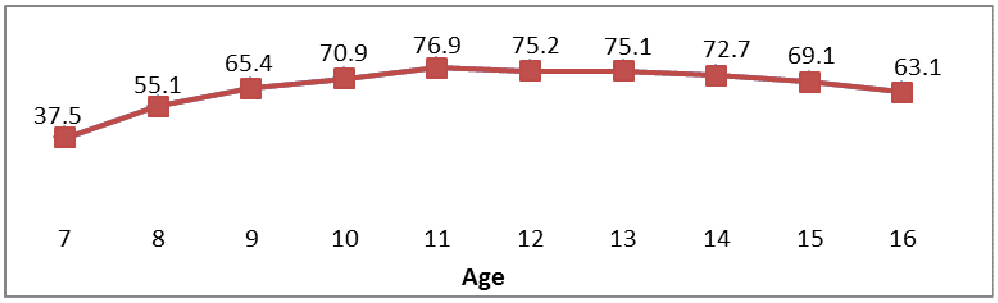
Table 5 reveals that, according to UIS's calculation using EDHS 2011 data, percent of primary and lower secondary out of school is about 34.1% i.e. 7,526,412 children. This figure is expected to be higher than the estimates of enrollment information using administrative data due to several factors. One important factor is the phenomenon of dropping out of students throughout the academic year after the EMIS enrolment data is captured at the beginning of the year during registration from each school. The gap between enrollment rates and attendance estimates can only be narrowed as the dropout rate approaches to zero.

*Table 5: Percentage and number of out of school children, by age and sex based on 2011 EDHS Data*

| | Age | *No of children* | **% OOSC** | *No of OOSC Children* |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary | 7 | 2,329,150 | 62.5 | 1,455,719 |
| | 8 | 2,313,438 | 44.9 | 1,027,166 |
| | 9 | 2,293,291 | 34.6 | 793,479 |
| | 10 | 2,268,982 | 29.1 | 660,274 |
| | 11 | 2,241,992 | 23.1 | 517,900 |
| | 12 | 2,212,158 | 24.8 | 548,615 |
| | Total | 13,659,011 | 36.6 | 5,003,153 |
| Lower secondary | | | | |
| | 13 | 2,177,070 | 24.9 | 542,090 |
| | 14 | 2,135,714 | 27.3 | 583,050 |
| | 15 | 2,088,953 | 30.9 | 645,487 |
| | 16 | 2,039,653 | 36.9 | 752,632 |
| | Total | 8,441,390 | 29.9 | 2,523,259 |
| | All | 22,100,401 | 34.1 | 7,526,412 |

*Source : EDHS 2011 and UNPD*

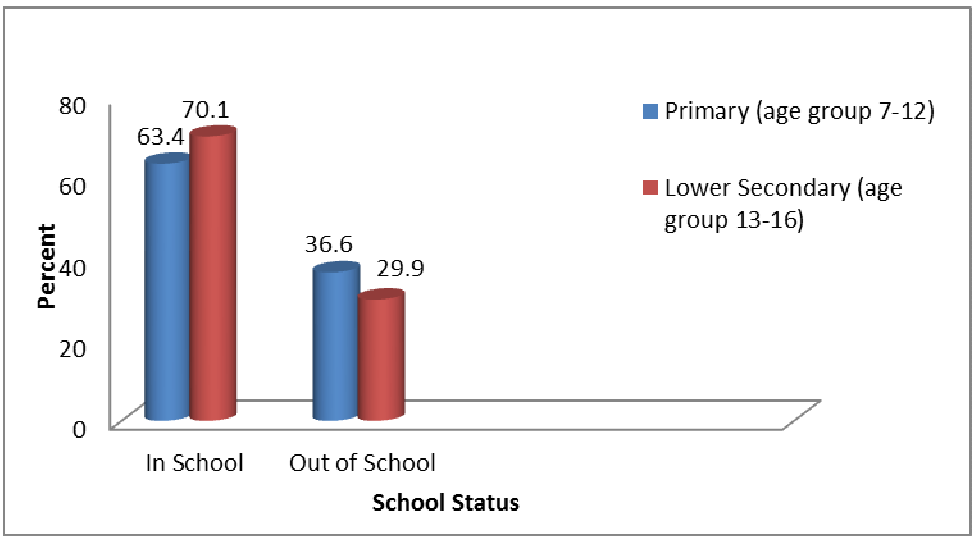
*Figure 4: Percentage of children attending school by age*




*Source: EDHS 2011*

Figure 4 represents a trend analysis of children attending school by age. The figure reveals that with age, more children attend school up to the age of 11, where 76.9% of children are in school. The percentage of children attending school begins to fall steadily from age 12 to 16.

*Figure 5: Percentage of children out of school and in school by age group*




*Source: EDHS 2011*

Furthermore, Figure 5 presents a comparison of children who are both in and out of school in the primary and lower secondary age groups. As can be observed in the Figure, 63.4% and 70.1% of children in the age groups 7-12 and 13-16 are in primary and lower secondary school respectively. Moreover, the proportion of children attending school in lower secondary is lower than that of primary.

### 1.3.3 Percentage of Out-of-school children by school exposure

Table 6 presents percentage of out-of-school children by school exposure by age and sex based on the 2011 EDHS source data. Under Dimension 2 (primary age: 7-12) the share expected to enter is significantly higher than dropped out or expected never to enter both for the total male and

female. On the other hand under Dimension 3 (lower secondary age: 13-16) the percentage of those who have already dropped out and those expected to never enter is significantly higher than the percentage of those expected to enter in the future.

*Table 6: Percentage of out-of-school children by school exposure, by age group and sex*

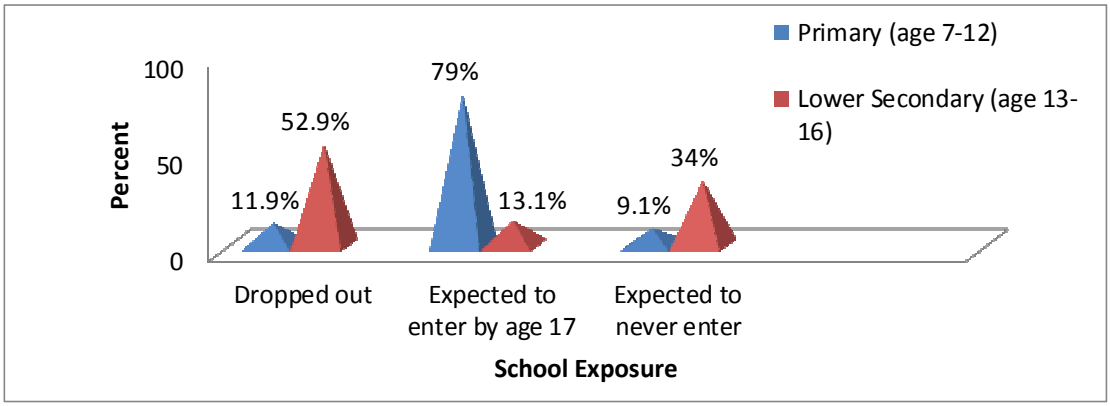
| School exposure | Dimension 2 (Primary age) | | | Dimension 3 (Lower secondary age) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Male | Female | Total | Male | Female | Total |
| Dropped out | 13.5 | 10.2 | 11.9 | 54.0 | 51.7 | 52.9 |
| Expected to enter in future | 78.3 | 79.8 | 79.0 | 15.2 | 11.3 | 13.1 |
| Expected never to enter | 8.2 | 9.9 | 9.1 | 30.8 | 37.0 | 34.0 |

*Source: UIS analysis based on EDHS 2011 using ISCED 1997*

The largest proportion of OOSC of lower secondary age are those children who were once in school but have dropped out (52.9%), followed by those that are never expected to enter to school (34%). The percentage of out-of-school children who are expected to enter school in the future is 79% and 13.1% respectively. Moreover, 9.1% of primary age out-of-school children and 34% of lower secondary age out-of-school children are expected never to enter school. These suggest that with age fewer children will enter to school.

Table 6 also shows that the percentage of female who dropped out is slightly less than the male in both categories. On the other hand, the proportion of female out-of-school children of primary school age (79.8%) expected to enter school in the future is slightly higher than for male out-of-school children (78.3%); while the proportion of male lower secondary age out-of-school children expected to enter (15.2%) is higher than the proportion of female children (11.3%) in the age group.

*Figure 6: Percentage of out-of school children by school exposure*




*Source: UIS analysis based on EDHS 2011 using ISCED 1997*

Figure 6 further summarizes the situation of out of school children by school exposure. The proportions of children who dropped out as well as who are expected to never enter school are higher for lower secondary age than for primary age.

*Table 7: Percentage of out-of-school children by school exposure, by age group and residence*

| School exposure | Dimension 2 (Primary age) | | | Dimension 3 (Lower secondary age) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Urban | Rural | Total | Urban | Rural | Total |
| Dropped out | 11.2 | 18.9 | 11.9 | 63.4 | 56.6 | 52.9 |
| Expected to enter in future | 84.4 | 66.4 | 79.0 | 12.1 | 6.7 | 13.1 |
| Expected never to enter | 4.4 | 14.7 | 9.1 | 24.5 | 36.7 | 34.0 |

*Source: UIS analysis based on EDHS 2011 using ISCED 1997*

Table 7 presents percentage of out-of-school children by school exposure by age group and residence based on the 2011 EDHS source data. Under Dimension 2 , percent expected to enter in the future are significantly higher for urban (84.4%) when compared with the rural (66.4%). The same is true under Dimension 3 where percent expected to enter in the future is higher for urban (12.1%) when compared with the rural (6.7%). Those expected never to enter are higher among rural under both Dimensions 2 and 3.

*Table 8: Percentage of out-of-school children by school exposure, by age group and wealth,*

| School exposure | Dimension 2 (Primary age) | | | Dimension 3 (Lower secondary age) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Poor | Rich | Total | Poor | Rich | Total |
| Dropped out | 9.0 | 15.4 | 11.9 | 41.8 | 67.6 | 52.9 |
| Expected to enter in future | 75.8 | 80.5 | 79.0 | 13.7 | 11.0 | 13.1 |
| Expected never to enter | 15.2 | 4.1 | 9.1 | 44.5 | 21.4 | 34.0 |

*Source: UIS analysis based on EDHS 2011 using ISCED 1997*

Table 8 presents percentage of out-of-school children by school exposure by age and wealth status based on the 2011 EDHS source data. Under Dimension 2 , percent expected to enter in future are slightly higher for rich (80.5%) when compared with the poor (75.8%).

## 1.4 OOSC and Involvement in Child Labour

Child labour is one of the major impediments that affect children's school attendance.

*Table 9: Distribution of children aged 5-17 years, by school attendance, age, sex and place of residence*

| Selected background variables | Total number of children | Attending school | | | Not attending school | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Engaged in productive activities | Engaged in housekeeping activities | Schooling | Engaged in productive activities | Engaged in housekeeping Activities | Idle |
| **Total** | **18,183,432** | **17.8** | **16.4** | **3.9** | **34.3** | **16.9** | **10.6** |
| **Age** | | | | | | | |
| 5-9 | 8,619,254 | 8.9 | 11.0 | 4.9 | 30.0 | 24.4 | 20.8 |
| 10-14 | 6,529,154 | 26.2 | 22.6 | 3.0 | 36.2 | 10.3 | 1.5 |
| 15-17 | 3,035,022 | 25.3 | 18.6 | 2.5 | 42.2 | 10.1 | 1.3 |
| **Sex** | | | | | | | |
| Male | 9,263,302 | 24.4 | 13.5 | 4.9 | 37.6 | 9.4 | 10.2 |
| Female | 8,920,13 0 | 11.0 | 19.5 | 2.7 | 30.9 | 24.8 | 11.0 |
| **Place of residence** | | | | | | | |
| Urban | 2,413,023 | 12.6 | 52.2 | 15.4 | 6.2 | 7.0 | 6.5 |
| Rural | 15,770,400 | 18.6 | 11. 0 | 2.1 | 38.6 | 18.4 | 11.2 |

*Source: Child Labour Analysis, p. 25, 2001*

The data in Table 9 indicates that more girls than boys do housekeeping work and more boys than girls are engaged in productive activities. As it is a common phenomenon in most of the developing countries, Ethiopian families have a preference of sending male children to school. As a result, there are more male children in school than female ones. This is what one observes from the table.

Moreover, Table 10 depicts that a sizeable portion of the children combine work and schooling, which, no doubt, affects their educational performance and their academic achievement. Thus, those children could not likely acquire the necessary knowledge and skills for their future life. It can also be observed from the table that child labour is common both in rural and urban areas of the country, though the participation of rural children is higher than their urban counterparts.

*Table 10. Distribution of children aged 10-17 years who were working and attending school, by effect of work on schooling, 2001*

| Selected background variables | Children working and attending school | Effect of work on schooling | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Affects my schooling | Doesn't affect my schooling | Not stated |
| **Total** | **4,333,574** | **38.5** | **60.9** | **0.6** |
| **Age** | | | | |
| 10-14 | 3,060,372 | 38.1 | 61.2 | 0.6 |
| 15-17 | 1,273,202 | 39.4 | 60.1 | 0.5 |
| **Sex** | | | | |
| Male | 2,453,457 | 39.1 | 60.4 | O,5 |
| Female | 1,880,116 | 37.7 | 61.6 | 0.8 |
| **Place of residence** | | | | |
| Urban | 1,173,477 | 29.1 | 70.1 | 0.9 |
| Rural | 3,160,097 | 42.0 | 57.5 | 0.5 |

*Source: Child Labour Analysis, p.26, 2001*

The 2001 Ethiopian Child Labour Survey also indicated that 52% of children in Ethiopia were involved in productive activities, and more than 80% of them (12.6 million) were below the age of 15. Most types of work that children were engaged in were tiresome and took long hours and, thus, the children could not get sufficient time to study. It is stated in Article 32 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child that "State parties recognize the right of the child to be protected from economic exploitation and from performing any work that is likely to be hazardous or to interfere with the child's education, or to be harmful to the child's health or physical, mental, spiritual, moral or social development". But in reality, as depicted in the two tables, a considerable portion of the school-aged children have been deprived of their right to education and they were out of school during that year (2001) on account of their engagement in child labour. The key informants in the focus group discussions have also witnessed that the challenges mentioned are obstacles for education of children.

Due to the prevailing pervasive poverty and parental attitude towards work, many children have not enrolled in school or are forced to drop out of school. There is ample evidence that indicates that the problem of child labour poses a major challenge to children's education, especially in rural areas, where the overwhelming majority of children are involved in productive/economic activities. Eighty-five percent of the country's children are engaged in some kind of productive or non-productive activities (Child Labour Survey, 2001), out of which more than two thirds do not get the chance of attending school. The problem is worse in the rural areas, where more than half of the working children are compelled to work to supplement family income, deprived of their

right to education, to which they are entitled in international conventions and national laws and policies.

It is commonly agreed that childhood is a period of life which should be dedicated not to work but to education. It is a period when children need a nurturing and stimulating environment that fosters their growth and development in all areas of their life. Key among these is education, which is currently constrained as a result of the prevailing child labour. Child labour has a tremendous effect on school attendance and educational achievement of children, and hence it depriving them of educational opportunities and knowledge that would enable them to compete in a labour market when they become adults. Child labour does not only affect school attendance of children; it is also harmful for their healthy growth, and has more severe effects when it is carried out in hazardous conditions.

Children in Ethiopia are engaged in all types of work and sectors including agriculture, industry, service, trade and household chores, which adversely affect their educational performance. The children engage in these sectors to supplement the income of their parents at the expense of their education. This negatively affects the educational status of children in general and female children in particular. Most parents, especially in the rural areas, consider child labour as a socialization process and an important experience to be acquired at an early stage of life. As it can easily be seen from the data in Table 10, more than one third of the children (38.5%) responded that their engagement in work while attending school affected their school attendance. Working while attending school affected more rural children (42%) than it affected urban children (29.1). The Ethiopian Child Labour Survey revealed that only 38.1% of children between 5 and 17 years of age are attending school, and 34.2% of children aged 5-17 years are engaged in productive or housekeeping activities while attending school. It was also reported that only 31.7% of children in rural areas were attending school, whereas the school attendance rate for urban children was 80.2% in the study year.

According to LFS 2005, based on the measurement guidelines contained in the 18th ICLS resolution, and restricting the scope to children up to and including 14 years of age (the most common upper-age limit for basic schooling), the child labour measure used in the study comprises three groups of children:

(1) 5-11 year-olds in economic activity (i.e., those engaged in any activity falling within the SNA production boundary for at least one hour during the reference week). Economic activity covers children in all market production and in certain types of non-market production, including production of goods for own use. It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal sectors, as well as forms of work both inside and outside family settings);

(2) 12-14 year-olds in non-light or "regular" economic activity (i.e., those engaged in any activity falling within the SNA production boundary for at least 14 hours during the reference week); and
(3) 5-14 year-olds in hazardous unpaid household services (i.e., those engaged in the production of domestic and personal services for consumption within their own households, commonly called "household chores", for at least 28 hours during the reference week).

The first two groups relate to ILO Convention 138, which stipulates a minimum age of at least 14 years in less developed countries for admission to employment or work (art. 2), but states that national laws may permit persons from age 12 years to engage in light work (art. 7). In determining the hour threshold for permissible light work, which is not defined explicitly in C138, the ICLS resolution recommends a cut-off point of 14 hours during the reference week, below which non-hazardous work can be considered permissible light work. The second group does not include those children working for less than 14 hours per week, but in hazardous work, because hazardous sectors are defined by national legislations.

The inclusion of the third group marks the recognition of the fact that the international legal standards do not rule out *a priori* children's work outside the SNA production boundary from consideration in child labour measurement. The ICLS resolution, building on this recognition, recommends classifying those performing hazardous, unpaid household services as part of the group of child labourers for measurement purposes, where hazardous, unpaid household services, in turn, are defined as those requiring long hours, involving unsafe equipment or heavy loads, in dangerous locations, etc.

The ICLS resolution does not recommend a specific hour threshold for classifying household chores as hazardous (and therefore as child labour), and describing the task of establishing hazardousness criteria as an area requiring further conceptual and methodological development. In the absence of detailed statistical criteria for hazardousness, an hour threshold of 28 weekly working hours is used in the current study. Above this, engaging in household chores is classified as child labour. It should be kept in mind, however, that this threshold is based only on preliminary evidence of the interaction between household chores and school attendance and does not constitute an agreed measurement standard.

The child labour indicator utilized in this study, therefore, represents a benchmark for international comparative purposes, but it is not necessarily consistent with the (estimates based on) national child labour legislation, owing to the flexibility clauses contained in the international legal standards.

The 2005 LFS study showed the differentials of the above estimates by sex, parent education, regions, and other variables. The result shows variations according to the different background variables and, particularly among male, rural, non-school attendance, non-educated parents, in Amhara and Oromia regions.

*Table 11. Child Labour and children not in school*

| Percentage of children not in school aged 5-14 years involved in child labour | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Children not in school | | Children not in school who are in child labour | |
| | Percentage | Sample size (n) | Percentage | Sample size (n) |
| **Total** | 70.8 | 33348 | 55.3 | 15273 |
| **Sex** | | | | |
| Male | 69.4 | 16487 | 62.3 | 8417 |
| Female | 72.3 | 16861 | 48.1 | 6856 |
| **Area** | | | | |
| Urban | 31.8 | 8431 | 17.2 | 1261 |
| Rural | 76.2 | 24917 | 57.5 | 14012 |
| **Age** | | | | |
| 5-11 | 80.5 | 27966 | 52.9 | 11719 |
| 12-14 | 44.9 | 5382 | 66.5 | 3554 |
| **HH head education** | | | | |
| *None* | 76.3 | 20876 | 57.0 | 10644 |
| *Primary* | 65.3 | 10459 | 53.2 | 4223 |
| *Secondary or higher* | 35.9 | 1979 | 33.8 | 390 |
| ***Region*** | | | | |
| Tigray | 60.7 | 2496 | 49.9 | 1087 |
| Afar | 71.9 | 1441 | 53.2 | 761 |
| Amhara | 69.7 | 6084 | 60.9 | 3275 |
| Oromia | 73.6 | 8712 | 56.3 | 4158 |
| Somali | 83.3 | 2341 | 51.4 | 1013 |
| Benishangul Gumuz | 72.2 | 1663 | 34.6 | 494 |
| SNNP | 75.4 | 7194 | 51.0 | 3222 |
| Harari | 52.4 | 871 | 37.6 | 338 |
| Addis Ababa | 17.9 | 1383 | 19.0 | 405 |
| Dire Dawa | 55.0 | 1013 | 34.7 | 517 |

***Source: Child labour, LFS 2005***

Table 11 presents percentages of out-of-school children aged 5-14 years involved in child labour and differentials by background variables. The situation is worse among females, rural areas, and non-educated parent groups.

*Table 12. Out-of-school children in economic activity by sector of employment*

| Percentage of out-of-school children aged 5-14 in economic activity, by sector of employment | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Sector of Employment** | | | | | |
| | Agriculture | Manufacturing | Commerce | Service | Other | Sample size out-of-school children involved in economic activity (n) |
| **Total** | 96.8 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.1 | 13940 |
| **Sex** | | | | | | |
| Male | 98.5 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.2 | 8,087 |
| Female | 94.4 | 2.1 | 1.7 | 1.7 | 0.1 | 5,853 |
| **Area** | | | | | | |
| Urban | 54.3 | 7.6 | 8.6 | 29.2 | 0.4 | 708 |
| Rural | 97.2 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.1 | 13,232 |
| **Age** | | | | | | |
| 5-11 | 98.3 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.6 | 0.1 | 10121 |
| 12-14 | 92.3 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 2.1 | 0.3 | 3819 |
| **HH head education** | | | | | | |
| *None* | 96.9 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 0.2 | 9,985 |
| *Primary* | 97.1 | 1.0 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 0.1 | 3,685 |
| *Secondary or higher* | 85.9 | 1.5 | 0.7 | 11.9 | 0.0 | 256 |
| *Missing* | | | | | | |
| ***Region*** | | | | | | |
| Tigray | 96.7 | 1.4 | 0.2 | 1.4 | 0.4 | 1,064 |
| Afar | 94.1 | 5.8 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 715 |
| Amhara | 98.1 | 0.8 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.2 | 3,208 |
| Oromia | 96.6 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 0.1 | 3,719 |
| Somali | 97.9 | 0.6 | 0.9 | 0.6 | 0.0 | 926 |
| Benishangul Gumuz | 89.8 | 5.0 | 1.4 | 1.4 | 2.4 | 439 |
| SNNP | 96.0 | 1.0 | 1.7 | 1.2 | 0.1 | 2,807 |
| Harari | 87.4 | 0.6 | 8.0 | 3.6 | 0.4 | 269 |
| Addis Ababa | 23.9 | 7.2 | 6.6 | 59.6 | 2.7 | 316 |
| Dire Dawa | 93.3 | 0.0 | 2.7 | 4.0 | 0.0 | 476 |

*Source: Ethiopia LFS 2005*

Table 12 above shows percentage of out-of-school children aged 5-14 involved in economic activity, by sector of employment. The data reveal that the majority are involved in the agriculture sector compared to the other sector.

*Table 13: Percentage of 5-14 children attending school and involved in child labour versus those who are not involved in child labour*

| **Variable** | School attendance rate of children 5-14. | | School attendance rate of children 5-14 involved in child labour. | | School attendance rate of children 5-14 not involved in child labour. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **%** | **N** | **%** | **N** | **%** | **N** |
| **Total** | 29.2 | 26,740 | 24.8 | 6,528 | 34.0 | 20,212 |
| **Sex** | | | | | | |
| Male | 30.6 | 13,521 | 26.1 | 3,501 | 37.0 | 10,020 |
| Female | 27.7 | 13,219 | 23.0 | 3,027 | 31.6 | 10,192 |
| **Area** | | | | | | |
| Urban | 68.2 | 19,153 | 66.6 | 2,633 | 68.5 | 16,520 |
| Rural | 23.8 | 7,587 | 23.1 | 3,895 | 24.6 | 3,692 |
| **Age** | | | | | | |
| 5-11 | 19.5 | 14,247 | 17.1 | 2,963 | 22.0 | 11,284 |
| 12-14 | 55.1 | 12,493 | 44.4 | 3,565 | 67.6 | 8,928 |
| **HH head education** | | | | | | |
| *None* | 23.7 | 9,723 | 21.3 | 3,161 | 26.6 | 6,562 |
| *Primary* | 34.7 | 11,066 | 30.1 | 2,599 | 39.2 | 8,467 |
| *Secondary or higher* | 64.1 | 5,934 | 52.2 | 763 | 68.1 | 5,171 |
| ***Region*** | | | | | | |
| Tigray | 39.3 | 2,556 | 34.5 | 731 | 43.5 | 1,825 |
| Afar | 28.1 | 638 | 8.4 | 79 | 42.3 | 559 |
| Amhara | 30.3 | 5,458 | 26.4 | 1,553 | 35.6 | 3,905 |
| Oromia | 26.4 | 5,980 | 23.8 | 1,804 | 29.5 | 4,176 |
| Somali | 16.7 | 762 | 4.4 | 75 | 26.6 | 687 |
| Benishangul Gumuz | 27.8 | 953 | 25.7 | 246 | 28.8 | 707 |
| SNNP | 24.6 | 4,630 | 21.6 | 1,261 | 27.4 | 3,369 |
| Gambela | 58.9 | 215 | 77.8 | 9 | 58.3 | 206 |
| Harari | 47.6 | 631 | 30.8 | 135 | 54.3 | 496 |
| Addis Ababa | 82.1 | 4,321 | 70.4 | 489 | 83.6 | 3,832 |
| Dire Dawa | 45.0 | 596 | 27.3 | 146 | 51.3 | 450 |

***Source: Child labour, LFS 2005***

Analysis of children involved in child labour while at the same time attending school versus children who were attending school without engaging in any type of child labour shows that about 24.8% is the school attendance rate of 5- to 14-year-old child labourers. The percentage of children covered by the survey were involved in child labour while attending school is 6528/26740 = 24.4%. Moreover, 34% is the school attendance rate of 5- to 14-year-old children who are not involved in child labour. The percentage of 5- to 14-year-olds who were attending school without being involving in any type of child labour is 20212/26740 = 75.6%.

The percentage of children who were attending school without engaging in child labour is 20212/26740 = 75.6% (unweighted) of all 5- to 14-year-olds. The percentage of children who were attending school and at the same time involved in child labour is 6528/26740 = 24.4% (unweighted) of all 5- to 14-year-olds.

Moreover, 68.2% is the school attendance rate of urban children (regardless of child labour status), 23.8% is the school attendance rate of rural children (regardless of child labour status). 3895/7587 = 51% of all rural children were engaged in child labour, compared to 2633/19153 = 14% of all urban children. The percentage of child labourers among 5 to 11 year-olds is 2963/14247 = 21%. The percentage of child labourers among 12 to 14 year-olds is 3565/12493 = 29%.

When viewed across regions, the proportion of children involved in child labour while attending school ranged from 77.8% for Gambella to 4.4% for Somali. Gambella (77.8%) and Addis Ababa (70.4%) had the highest proportion of children engaged in child labour while attending school, whereas Somali (4.4%) and Afar (8.4%) had the lowest percentage of children engaged in child labour while at the same time attending school. As it is also evident from the table, in the city states like Dire Dawa (27.3%; 51.3%) and Harari (30.3; 54.3%), the proportion of children attending school without engaging in child labour was very high compared to those who were involved in child labour while at the same time attending school.

In general, the above table shows that the percentages of children attending school were all higher for those not involved in child labour in almost all regions. But there was a vibration in the difference between the two groups among the different regions. For example, the difference between those who were involved in child labour and those who were not in the Somali Region was 22.2% (26.6% minus 4.4%) while that in Benishangul Gumuz Region was 2.1% (28.8% minus 25.7%).

From Table 13 above, it may be observed that the proportion of children who were attending school varied by status of child labour specially across the three variables by area, education of head of the household, and by region. It may be noted also that the proportion of children who were out of school was significantly higher in those households who did not have any education when compared with those whose educational level was secondary and above. This clearly shows that multiple variables were affecting children to be out of school. For example, in this case, those whose attendance was the lowest percentage were those involved in child labour and those who came from non-educated households (21.3% versus 68.1% for non-working children from households whose head has secondary or higher education).

**Disaggregation by Wealth**

EDHS 2011 does not have attendance rates by wealth for lower secondary separately. Table 14 illustrates net attendance and gross attendance rates, by wealth quintile between primary schools,

based on the EDHS 2011. The disaggregation by wealth showed that attendance rate increased with an increase in wealth. For example, at primary level, those with the lowest wealth quintile documented the lowest attendance rate (52.0%) while those at the highest quintile recorded 83.9% attendance rate in 2011.

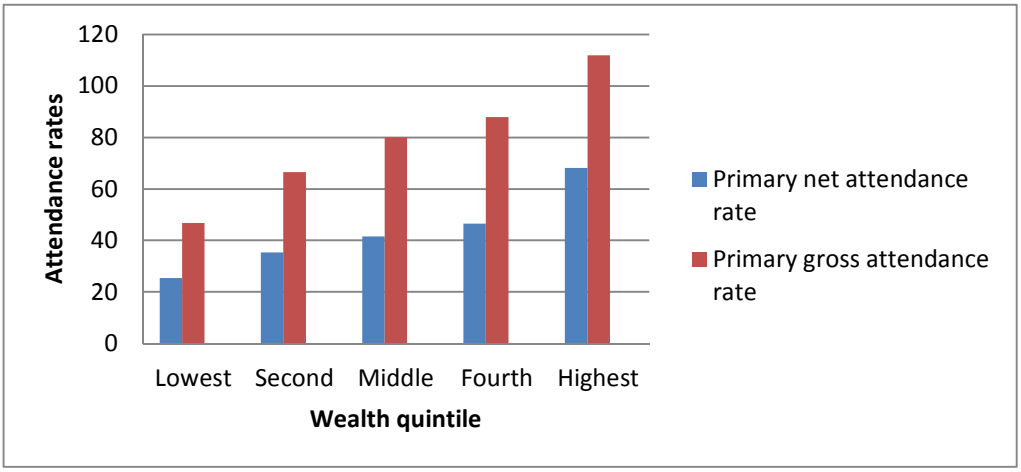
*Table 14: Primary net attendance rate and gross attendance rate by wealth in 2011*

| Status | Wealth | Male | Female | All | GPI |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Net attendance rate | Lowest | 51.3 | 52.7 | 52.0 | 1.03 |
| | Second | 58.7 | 57.0 | 57.9 | 0.97 |
| | Middle | 60.8 | 62.5 | 61.7 | 1.03 |
| | Fourth | 68.2 | 71.9 | 70.0 | 1.05 |
| | Highest | 85.7 | 82.2 | 83.9 | 0.96 |
| Gross attendance Rate | Lowest | 70.2 | 71.8 | 71.0 | 1.02 |
| | Second | 80.3 | 79.5 | 79.0 | 0.99 |
| | Middle | 86.0 | 87.2 | 86.6 | 1.01 |
| | Fourth | 93.5 | 103.2 | 98.2 | 1.10 |
| | Highest | 108.4 | 108.7 | 108.6 | 1.00 |

*Source: EDHS 2011*

Figure 7 further clarify the fact that both net attendance and gross enrolment rates showed an increasing trend with an increase in wealth at primary level. The net attendance rate increases from 52 per cent in the lowest wealth quintile to 84 per cent in the highest wealth quintile. The gross attendance rate increases from 71.0 per cent in the lowest quintile to 108.6 per cent in the highest quintile. The GPI results for the wealth quintiles signify that girls' attendance rates are greater than the boys' in all except for the highest quintile for NAR; and for the second quintiles in both the net and gross attendance rates.

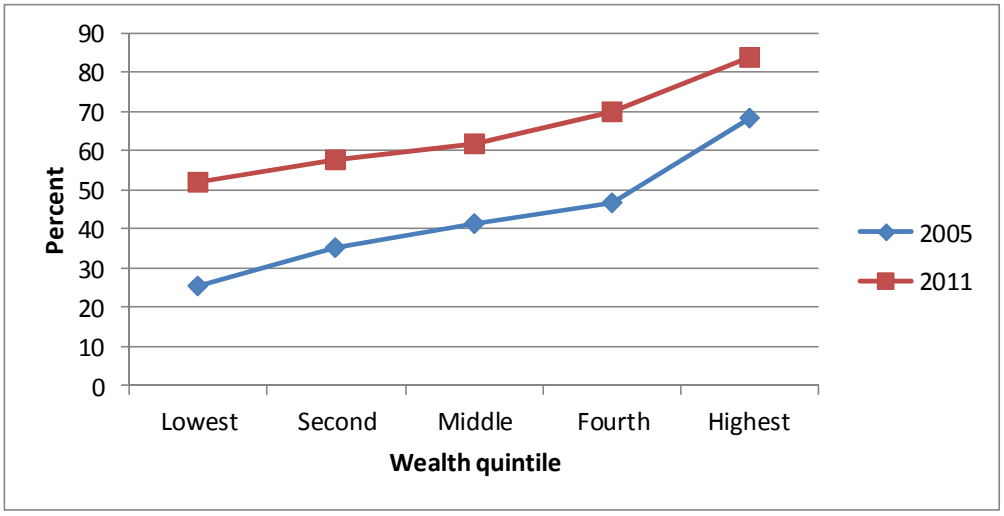
*Figure 7: Primary net and gross attendance rates by wealth quintile*




*Source: EDHS 2011*

In general, there is a wide gap in the net attendance and gross attendance rates among children from the richest and the poorest background indicating that socio-economic status is one of the determinant factors for children to be in or out of school.

*Figure 8: Primary net attendance rate by wealth quintile in 2005 and 2011*




As can be observed from Figure 8, the net attendance rate has increased with increase in wealth quintile both in 2005 and 2011.

## 1.5 Profiles of Children at Risk (Dimensions 4 and 5)

As mentioned earlier, Dimensions 4 and 5 cover children who are in primary and lower-secondary schools that are at risk of dropping out. In other words, these dimensions represent the potential OOSC of tomorrow. All children face some risk of dropping out, but not all drop out in the same way. The analysis of Dimensions 4 and 5 focuses on those children who are at the greatest risk of dropping out of school. This is considered as a key feature in linking equity in access to quality education, demand-driven poverty-focused policies to supply-side provision of quality (especially in relation to school-level processes), and policies for out-of-school children to policies for children in school.

According to the CMF of this study, a simple way to analyze the population of children at risk of dropping out is to look at the at-risk children of yesterday, that is, children who recently dropped out of school. Understanding the profiles of children whose risk of dropping out was realized provides insight into the profiles of children currently at risk. Accordingly, an attempt has been made to present and analyze dropout rates at the primary and lower-secondary levels by grade, sex, and region so as to get useful information about which children leave school early.

### 1.5.1 Dropouts

Table 15 presents dropout rate at the primary and lower-secondary level, by sex and region.

*Table 15: Dropout rate by grade at the primary and lower secondary level by sex and region*

| Sex | Region | Grade | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | G1 | G2 | G3 | G4 | G5 | G6 | G7 | G8 | G9 |
| **Male** | Tigray | 14.6 | 10.8 | 9.2 | 12.0 | 14.4 | 9.1 | 4.4 | 17.8 | 17.3 |
| | Afar | 41.5 | 13.6 | 4.4 | 10.8 | 0.7 | 1.8 | 15.1 | 19.3 | 11.9 |
| | Amhara | 21.6 | 21.0 | 16.1 | 10.3 | 19.2 | 14.0 | 9.9 | 13.5 | 16.6 |
| | Oromia | 29.9 | 19.7 | 14.9 | 13.8 | 19.1 | 10.3 | 17.2 | 14.3 | 22.1 |
| | Somali | 28.38 | 17.92 | 10.28 | 19.50 | 2.50 | 9.34 | 8.46 | 8.13 | 11.7 |
| | Ben | 20.2 | 7.7 | 1.3 | 3.2 | 15.8 | 7.8 | 6.6 | 4.8 | 20.7 |
| | SNNPR | 32.3 | 16.4 | 12.5 | 16.0 | 21.8 | 11.3 | 4.8 | 26.9 | 20.7 |
| | Gambella | 26.3 | 2.1 | 8.8 | 3.9 | 13.7 | 9.7 | 7.2 | 28.5 | 2.8 |
| | Harari | 45.3 | 15.3 | 9.7 | 17.0 | 4.7 | 2.1 | 15.6 | 5.5 | 4.9 |
| | A. Ababa | 4.1 | 3.6 | 3.4 | 2.0 | 6.5 | 1.1 | 6.4 | 2.5 | 15.4 |
| | Dire Dawa | 29.9 | 20.9 | 4.7 | 8.4 | 8.0 | 6.2 | 3.1 | 4.9 | 31.3 |
| | Total | 28.0 | 21.6 | 15.1 | 12.4 | 18.0 | 9.2 | 8.2 | 15.3 | |
| **Female** | Tigray | 12.9 | 9.3 | 6.9 | 8.7 | 13.5 | 7.3 | 0.6 | 23.3 | 17.2 |
| | Afar | 37.3 | 10.4 | 10.9 | 13.0 | 5.5 | 7.7 | 13.7 | 24.5 | 14.6 |
| | Amhara | 19.3 | 16.6 | 11.3 | 6.4 | 17.6 | 13.5 | 9.3 | 16.0 | 16.7 |
| | Oromia | 30.9 | 21.8 | 16.6 | 18.8 | 20.3 | 16.4 | 19.4 | 5.6 | 17.8 |
| | Somali | 28.88 | 16.47 | 7.89 | 15.58 | 1.32 | 6.12 | 7.98 | 22.49 | 12.5 |
| | Ben | 19.5 | 6.9 | 5.7 | 1.0 | 16.5 | 11.2 | 9.0 | 4.3 | 17.1 |
| | SNNPR | 32.0 | 19.4 | 16.0 | 18.9 | 22.7 | 15.4 | 6.1 | 27.3 | 13.4 |
| | Gambella | 24.7 | 3.5 | 2.1 | 5.5 | 13.2 | 4.5 | 4.0 | 24.1 | **7.0** |
| | Harari | 36.4 | 22.3 | 16.2 | 8.4 | 13.5 | 1.8 | 15.0 | 4.8 | **0.3** |
| | A. Ababa | 5.1 | 0.3 | 2.0 | 3.0 | 3.3 | 2.6 | 2.1 | 5.0 | **27.9** |
| | Dire Dawa | 29.5 | 24.4 | 5.9 | 9.1 | 5.3 | 5.0 | 3.3 | 4.2 | **31.3** |
| | Total | 28.1 | 21.4 | 15.5 | 14.1 | 19.1 | 13.8 | 10.2 | 14.2 | |
| **Total** | Tigray | 13.8 | 10.1 | 8.1 | 10.4 | 13.9 | 8.1 | 2.4 | 20.6 | 17.2 |
| | Afar | 39.8 | 12.3 | 7.0 | 11.6 | 2.4 | 4.0 | 14.6 | 21.1 | 8.1 |
| | Amhara | 20.5 | 18.9 | 13.7 | 8.3 | 18.4 | 13.8 | 9.6 | 14.7 | 16.6 |
| | Oromia | 30.4 | 20.7 | 15.7 | 16.2 | 19.7 | 13.1 | 18.1 | 10.8 | 20.4 |
| | Somali | 28.12 | 16.02 | 13.82 | 17.59 | 18.62 | 13.29 | 18.28 | 20.52 | 12.1 |
| | Benishangul Gumuz | 19.9 | 7.3 | 3.2 | 2.3 | 16.1 | 9.2 | 7.6 | 4.6 | 19.3 |
| | SNNP | 32.2 | 17.9 | 14.2 | 17.3 | 22.2 | 13.1 | 5.3 | 27.1 | 18.2 |
| | Gambella | 25.5 | 2.7 | 5.8 | 4.6 | 13.5 | 7.7 | 6.0 | 27.0 | **4.2** |
| | Harari | 41.5 | 18.6 | 12.7 | 13.0 | 8.7 | 0.3 | 15.3 | 5.2 | **3.2** |
| | Addis. Ababa | 4.7 | 1.5 | 2.6 | 2.6 | 4.8 | 1.9 | 4.1 | 1.6 | **22.4** |
| | Dire Dawa | 29.7 | 22.6 | 5.3 | 8.7 | 6.8 | 5.7 | 3.2 | 4.6 | **31.3** |
| | Total | 28.1 | 21.5 | 15.3 | 13.2 | 18.6 | 11.4 | 9.1 | 14.8 | |

Source : EMIS 2010

The dropout rate varies from grade to grade, region to region, and in terms of gender. As regards grade variation, it is very high in the first grade of primary education and tends to decline consistently in the next higher grades with some exceptions that are observed in grades 5 and 8. As indicated in the Education Statistics Annual Abstract (MoE, 2009/10, p 34), 28.1% of pupils enrolled in Grade 1 in 2008/09 had left school before reaching Grade 2 in 2009/10. This may be due to lack of ECCE experience/exposure, engagement in child labour, and other related factors. Though the data for grade 10 was not available, dropout rate at lower-secondary level of education (Grade 9) was relatively better than that of the primary level except in rare cases.

In terms of the other two variables (sex and region), the data in Table 15 reveal that in most cases the dropout rate was slightly lower for boys than it was for girls. And the dropout rate varied from region to region, the highest being in the Somali region. Overall, the data in the table unveil that a significant number of students in primary and lower-secondary education were dropping out of school, which could increase the number of potential OOSC of tomorrow. Hence, there is an urgent need for making a concerted effort towards changing this scenario to enable the education system to attain UPE by 2015.

**Dropout rate by age and sex from the 2007 Population and Housing Census**

Dropout rate is one of the indicators of the education system which shows the percentage of those students who discontinue their learning from a given grade compared to the previous year's total enrolment in the same grade. Table 16 portrays the dropout rate by age and sex .The dropout rate for both male and female students shows an increasing trend with the increase in students' age.

*Table 16: Dropout rate by age and sex from household data*

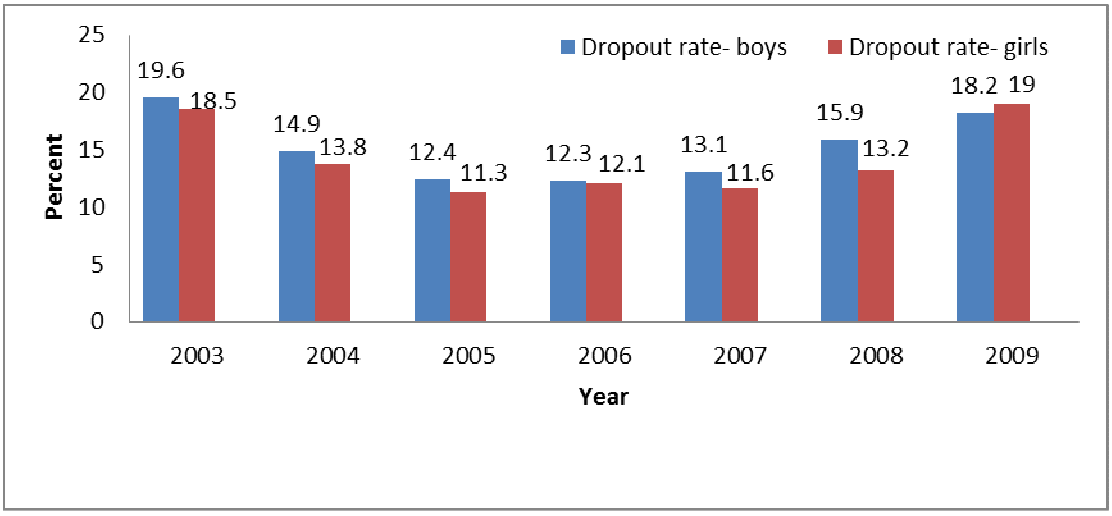
| *Age* | *Male* | | | *Female* | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Total No. of students | No. of dropped out students | % | Total No. of students | No. of dropped out students | % |
| 7 | 472,300 | 30,237 | 6.40 | 455,720 | 24,908 | 5.46 |
| 8 | 536,735 | 44,027 | 8.20 | 521,217 | 38,605 | 7.40 |
| 9 | 372,153 | 40,192 | 10.79 | 374,570 | 36,967 | 9.86 |
| 10 | 579,338 | 75,684 | 13.06 | 539,655 | 63,900 | 11.84 |
| 11 | 223,665 | 34,429 | 15.39 | 212,517 | 30,123 | 14.17 |
| 12 | 507,463 | 86,433 | 17.03 | 468,440 | 69,800 | 14.90 |
| 13 | 285,434 | 53,140 | 18.61 | 261,552 | 45,592 | 17.43 |
| 14 | 327,028 | 67,481 | 20.63 | 313,285 | 54,196 | 17.29 |
| 15 | 386,422 | 87,424 | 22.62 | 371,677 | 65,509 | 17.62 |
| 16 | 335,901 | 78,961 | 23.51 | 310,288 | 59,637 | 19.21 |

*Source: 2007 Population and Housing Census*

**Trends of dropout rate based on administrative data**

As depicted in Figure 9, the trend analysis for drop outs showed a declining trend from 2003 to 2005 but again started to show an increasing trend from 2006 to 2009.

*Figure 9: Trend analysis for primary school dropouts by sex and year (2003 to 2009)*




Source: EMIS 2003 - 2009

Figure 9 further reveals that the disparity of between boys and girls in terms of dropout varies from year to year, i.e. except in 2009 the drop out figure for boys is higher than that of girls; however, the disparity tends to show insignificant variation in 2006.

Dropout rates show no significant variation between boys and girls each year. The trend first decreases for the first three years then increases for the last four years but no change when the last seven years are compared.

### 1.5.2 Repetition rate

Another way to analyze the at-risk population is to examine various indicators linked to children in school. One of these indicators is repetition rate at primary and lower secondary level of education. This indicator measures the proportion of students who have remained in the same grade for two or more consecutive years by retaking the grade having either left it prematurely or returning for a second or third time. The repetition rates by grade, sex, and region are presented in Table 17 to highlight the points at which children are not progressing in school.

*Table 17: Repetition rate by grade at the primary and lower secondary level by sex and region*

| Sex | Region | Grade | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | G1 | G2 | G3 | G4 | G5 | G6 | G7 | G8 | G9 |
| **Male** | Tigray | 2.8 | 3.2 | 3.6 | 3.6 | 5.6 | 3.6 | 3.8 | 5.6 | 8.8 |
| | Afar | 13.1 | 9.1 | 6.9 | 5.8 | 9.2 | 4.5 | 4.9 | 4.7 | 16.4 |
| | Amhara | 9.4 | 6.0 | 5.6 | 6.0 | 7.3 | 5.4 | 6.9 | 7.8 | 15.4 |
| | Oromia | 3.0 | 2.9 | 3.2 | 3.7 | 3.6 | 2.9 | 4.7 | 2.9 | 3.3 |
| | Somali | 19.5 | 6.1 | 11.3 | 11.6 | 31.2 | 47.7 | 58.2 | 68.0 | 42.2 |
| | Ben | 18.3 | 11.8 | 11.2 | 9.8 | 15.9 | 10.7 | 15.1 | 12.3 | 17.6 |
| | SNNPR | 1.4 | 1.5 | 1.7 | 2.5 | 4.0 | 3.2 | 4.3 | 8.9 | 16.5 |
| | Gambella | 18.1 | 11.1 | 10.7 | 10.7 | 14.2 | 6.9 | 7.2 | 10.8 | 16.5 |
| | Harari | 4.6 | 5.7 | 8.0 | 7.5 | 13.2 | 9.0 | 11.3 | 7.2 | 17.6 |
| | Addis Ababa | 0.9 | 0.4 | 0.8 | 2.7 | 2.3 | 2.5 | 4.4 | 4.2 | 5.4 |
| | Dire Dawa | 0.2 | 0.5 | 0.2 | 0.5 | 1.5 | 0.8 | 1.4 | 1.5 | 0.0 |
| | National | 5.4 | 3.7 | 3.8 | 4.3 | 5.5 | 4.4 | 5.8 | 6.9 | |
| **Female** | Tigray | 2.5 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 2.8 | 5.6 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 4.9 | 10.3 |
| | Afar | 17.7 | 2.7 | 3.0 | 2.8 | 5.6 | 2.6 | 3.1 | 4.9 | 10.3 |
| | Amhara | 7.1 | 5.4 | 4.9 | 5.3 | 7.1 | 4.5 | 6.2 | 6.1 | 21.9 |
| | Oromia | 3.5 | 3.9 | 4.8 | 5.9 | 6.6 | 5.8 | 10.1 | 6.1 | 5.1 |
| | Somali | 18.8 | 5.7 | 10.6 | 11.7 | 27.0 | 52.7 | 64.0 | 83.7 | 42.9 |
| | Ben | 16.9 | 11.7 | 10.1 | 8.5 | 13.9 | 9.4 | 12.2 | 12.5 | 17.0 |
| | SNNPR | 1.9 | 2.1 | 2.7 | 4.4 | 6.5 | 5.5 | 7.5 | 15.2 | 15.5 |
| | Gambella | 19.5 | 11.2 | 12.4 | 11.6 | 17.8 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 16.0 | 17.5 |
| | Harari | 5.9 | 5.6 | 8.4 | 8.6 | 9.1 | 8.5 | 11.8 | 9.6 | 10.3 |
| | Addis Ababa | 0.9 | 0.6 | 0.5 | 1.9 | 1.9 | 1.8 | 4.2 | 5.8 | 4.7 |
| | Dire Dawa | 0.5 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 2.3 | 1.0 | 2.2 | 3.2 | 0.0 |
| | National | 4.1 | 4.5 | 4.3 | 4.8 | 8.3 | 6.0 | 8.8 | 8.9 | |
| **Total** | Tigray | 2.6 | 3.0 | 3.3 | 3.2 | 5.6 | 3.1 | 3.5 | 5.2 | 9.5 |
| | Afar | 15.1 | 3.3 | 3.3 | 3.0 | 5.8 | 2.7 | 3.2 | 4.9 | 10.6 |
| | Amhara | 8.4 | 5.7 | 5.2 | 5.7 | 7.2 | 4.9 | 6.5 | 7.0 | 18.5 |
| | Oromia | 3.2 | 3.4 | 3.9 | 4.8 | 5.0 | 4.2 | 7.0 | 4.2 | 4.1 |
| | Somali | 19.2 | 6.0 | 11.0 | 11.7 | 29.5 | 49.3 | 59.9 | 72.5 | 42.4 |
| | Benishangul Gumuz | 17.7 | 11.8 | 10.7 | 9.2 | 15.0 | 10.2 | 13.9 | 12.4 | 17.4 |
| | SNNPR | 1.6 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 3.4 | 5.2 | 4.2 | 5.7 | 11.6 | 16.2 |
| | Gambella | 18.8 | 11.1 | 11.5 | 11.1 | 15.7 | 9.0 | 9.0 | 12.6 | 16.9 |
| | Harari | 5.1 | 5.6 | 8.2 | 8.0 | 11.4 | 8.8 | 11.5 | 8.2 | 14.5 |
| | Addis Ababa | 0.9 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 2.2 | 2.1 | 2.1 | 4.3 | 5.1 | 5.1 |
| | Dire Dawa | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 1.8 | 0.9 | 1.7 | 2.3 | 0.0 |
| | National | 4.5 | 4.1 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 6.7 | 5.1 | 7.1 | 7.8 | |

*Source: EMIS 2010*

The repetition rate varies by grade, region, and gender. As regards grade variation, relatively higher repetition rate is observed in grades 5, 7 and 8 of primary education. The lowest repetition rate was registered in grade 3 and the highest in grade 8.

As per the explanation in the Education Statistics Annual Abstract (MoE, 2009/10), the relatively higher repetition rate at grade 8 is observed partly due to a national policy which indicates that those who could not pass the school leaving examination should repeat grade 8 prior to retaking the examination (p. 33). Though the data for grade 10 was not available, repetition rate at lower secondary level of education (Grade 9) varies from region to region the highest being in Somali and the lowest in Dire Dawa.

Girls' repetition was lower than that of boys In grade 1, but the reverse is true for the other grade levels. The repetition rate in primary education is slightly lower for female students than for male students though it is much higher than the target set in ESDP IV, i.e., 1%. Besides, the repetition rate of female students is lower than that of male students in lower secondary education. And the repetition rate at primary education shows regional variation where the highest being in Somali region and the lowest in Dire Dawa. Overall, the data in Table 16 unveil that sizeable portion of students in primary and lower secondary education who are not promoted to the next higher grade, which may raise concerns on the quality of education provided in the schools.

The repetition rate in seven of the eleven regions is less than 10% whereas in the remaining four regions (Somali, Gambella, Benishangul Gumuz, and SNNP) are higher than 10%.

### 1.5.3 Percentage of new entrants without ECCE experience

The percentage of new entrants to primary education without ECCE experience is an indicator of the risk of exclusion from education. Percentage of new entrants to primary education with no ECCE experience refers to the number of new entrants to primary education who have not attended some form of organized early childhood care and education (ECCE) programs, expressed as percentage of total number of new entrants to primary education. Table 18 depicts the proportion of new entrants to primary education with no ECCE/pre-primary experience and thus who have greater risk of dropping out. As shown in the table, except in Addis Ababa and Harari where close to 49% and 53% of the new entrants to primary education have no ECCE experience respectively, in other regions and at national level the proportion of those new entrants to primary education with no ECCE experience ranges between 68% and 93%, the highest being in Afar region. This may be an indication for the presence of students in primary education with high risk of dropping out and exclusion from education.

*Table 18: Percentage of new entrants to primary education with no ECCE experience*

| Region | Male | Female | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tigray | 86.4 | 85.7 | 86.0 |
| Afar | 93.0 | 92.9 | 93.0 |
| Amhara | 91.1 | 90.6 | 90.9 |
| Oromia | 67.6 | 68.3 | 67.9 |
| Benishangul-Gumuz | 82.6 | 81.7 | 82.2 |
| SNNP | 69.5 | 69.4 | 69.5 |
| Gambella | 70.0 | 71.4 | 70.7 |
| Harari | 55.5 | 50.8 | 53.3 |
| Addis Ababa | 44.5 | 52.0 | 48.7 |
| Dire Dawa | 74.6 | 71.5 | 73.1 |
| **Total** | **74.0** | **73.9** | **74.0** |

*Source: EMIS 2010*

Participation in pre-primary has been shown to reduce the likelihood of early school leaving (Hammond, et. al. 2007). As mentioned in the ESDP IV, participating in ECCE is the right of the child and it has been considered as a bed rock of EFA and the first step in meeting all the other EFA goals . The same document also states that GER for ECCE will increase from 6.9% in 2009/10 to 20% in 2014/15 (MoE, 2010, p.31). The findings of a recently conducted study (Ayalew, 2010) however, disclosed that enrolment at the pre-primary level has generally remained low even by Sub-Saharan African standard. The study also revealed that most schools are found in urban areas and even then access is limited to children whose parents can afford to pay the fees, except in some faith based institutions where there are no or only nominal fees. Moreover, provisions of early childhood education are mostly left to the non-government sectors and the Ministry of Education has restricted itself to curriculum development and teacher education.

### 1.5.4 Transition rate from primary to lower secondary

One last way to analyze dropout is to look at transition rates from primary to lower secondary education which is illustrated in Table 19. Transition rate refers to the number of new entrants to the first grade of secondary education in a given year, expressed as a percentage of the number of pupils enrolled in the final grade of primary education in the previous year.

*Table 19: Transition rate from primary to lower secondary education*

| Indicator | Male | Female | Total | GPI |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Transition rate to lower secondary education | 80% | 79% | 80% | 0.99 |

*Source: EMIS 2010*

The transition rate from primary to lower secondary education presented in Table 18 shows that 80% of both male and female students in the final grade of primary education were able to enter to the first grade of lower secondary education. The GPI value (0.99) further indicates the existence of gender parity in terms of transition rates.

Table 20 indicates primary school completion rate calculated as a proportion of new students in the last grade of primary (Grade 8) to the population official age (14 years old) in the last grade.

*Table 20: Primary completion rate by sex*

| Indicator | Male | Female | Total | GPI |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Primary completion rate | 51% | 44.5% | 47.8% | 0.87 |

*Source: EMIS 2010*

The 2009/10 EMIS report signifies that the primary completion rate at grade 8 is only 47.8%. The completion rate for male students is higher than that of the female students by 6.5 percentage points.

## 1.6 Analytical Summary

This section summarizes the highlights of the major issues related to the profiles of excluded children that are discussed in the six sections of the chapter. As its main purpose, this specific chapter attempted to describe the profiles of excluded children in terms of the five dimensions of exclusion. Accordingly, the analysis of data in Dimension 1 revealed that about 11% of pre-primary school-age children (6) attended education at pre-primary and primary schools. The net enrolment rate for pre-primary education was also found to be close to 5% at national level. Moreover, regional variations were observed in terms of attendance and enrolment rates at this level of education.

Pre-primary education should be advocated not only because it is recognized as a child right in the various conventions but also because it plays an important role in the school success of the child. Researchers in the field asserted that many children repeat classes and/or dropout from school altogether because of adjustment problems. Pre-primary education is a proven solution to this problem. Moreover, this type of education enables mothers to go to work. This sub-sector of the education system should, therefore, be given due consideration by all stakeholders.

Regarding the profile of OOSC in Dimensions 2 and 3 based on the administrative data , there are 4,878,385 out of school children. Of these, 3,075,862 are in the primary age group and 1,802,523 are in the lower secondary age group. Using EDHS 2011 considering attendance rate the total out of school children are 7,526,412 which is greater than the number estimated by using enrolment rate. The number of out of school children are significant in both cases where Government's effort must be increased to maximize enrollment and minimize school drop outs to reduce out of school children significantly.

The percentage of those children who were 7 and 8 at joining the primary school as new entrants was found to be high as compared to older children. It should be emphasized that leaving school without completing a full cycle of primary education is still problematic. All these indicate that these situations may pose a much bigger problem for the education system. The data analyzed above indicate that those children who live in rural areas are prone to be OOSC. This implies that these children will be forced to spend their lives out of school and there will be no significant development in their lives; their contribution to their nation's development will also be affected as they are not educated.

The OOSC gender disparity is higher at lower ages and almost small after age 13. The findings further indicated that, even though very high gross and net enrollments are recorded at national level, over three million children are still out of school. It is clearly observed from the findings that some of the school-age children are not attending school due to their engagement in productive and housekeeping activities. Besides, more girls than boys do housekeeping work and more boys than girls are engaged in productive/economic activities. In general, child labour is found to be common both in rural and urban areas of the country, though the participation of rural children is higher than their urban counterparts.

Concerning the profiles of children at risk in Dimensions 4 and 5, the results of this research disclosed that the dropout rate from primary and lower-secondary education varied from grade to grade, region to region, and by gender. Moreover, dropout rates as well as repetition rates at primary and lower-secondary levels were found to vary by grade, region, and gender. Furthermore, the transition rate from primary to lower-secondary education showed that 80% of both male and female students in the final grade of primary education were able to enter the first grade of lower-secondary education. The GPI value (0.99) further indicated the existence of gender parity.

The disaggregated data by wealth and region further unveiled that those with highest wealth quintile had better attendance and enrolment rates. This emphasizes the need to motivate poor children by providing them with basic support like educational materials and school uniform. In terms of region, the highest percentage of OOSC was recorded in Afar, Somali, Addis Ababa, Dire Dawa, and Harari, whereas the lowest was found in Tigray and Amhara. However, Oromia, Amhara, SNNPR and Somali have the largest number of out of school children in terms of absolute figures.

The trend analysis also revealed that enrolment rate has increased for the past 15 years significantly. The other interesting observation was that the increased rate for girls was much better than that of boys. This has to be encouraged by promoting children from ages 7 to 17 years to join schools and increase the percentage of students who will enter school by age 17. In general, indicators under this chapter showed the following results:

1. enrolment rate has significantly increased for the past 15 years;

2. dropout rate appears to be increasing but the rate is not statistically significant. The trend for dropout is constant, i.e. it was 19% for the year 2003 and again 19% for the year 2009; and
3. there is a significant difference in enrolment rate by residence, sex, age, and region.

Hence, concerted efforts should be made by all stakeholders towards curbing the problems of out-of-school children in general and attaining UPE by 2015 in particular. Among the possible courses of action, the following are worth considering:

- The current increasing enrolment trend must be maintained by encouraging two targets of the population. That is, those children at the primary age group should be able to attend the formal education system continuously. Secondly, those children above the age of 14 need to be enrolled in school as much as possible by age 17. Besides, constructing additional secondary schools at *kebele* levels might solve the accessibility problem of those out-of-school children of the lower-secondary age.
- Parallel to increasing enrolment rate, strategies ought to be designed to decrease dropout and repetition rates, especially at the lower-secondary level.
- Appropriate strategies must be designed to address the needs of the pastoralist/semi-pastoralist communities and vulnerable segments of the population.

# CHAPTER 2: BARRIERS AND BOTTLENECKS

## 2.1 Background

Education for All and Universal Primary Education are two UN Conventions Ethiopia has committed to fulfil. To this effect, the government of Ethiopia has made enormous strides by increasing the budget allocated for education from year to year and soliciting financial and technical support from various development partners. In fact, these strides enabled the government to register commendable results as compared to the country's school enrolment and education coverage during the early 1990s. Despite the encouraging results achieved, there are still a significant number of out-of-school children that could not be enrolled due to various barriers and bottlenecks.

In this chapter the barriers and bottlenecks that keep children out of school are analyzed and discussed using the five dimensions of exclusion (5DEs) as a broad structure and guide. The analysis aims at identifying differences between causes and barriers related to children that are out of school and those that are likely to drop out of pre-primary, primary, and lower-secondary school levels. The first and second sections deal with this background and the socio-cultural demand side, respectively. The third and the fourth sections discuss the economic demand and supply side. In the fifth section political governance, capacity, and financing issues are discussed. The chapter culminates by presenting the analytical summary. Even though the chapters are divided in such a way for the purpose of discussion, it should be noted that the socio-cultural and economic demand side barriers are most of the time interlinked and difficult to separate from the other factors, for it is a combination of these barriers and bottlenecks that keep children out of school.

## 2.2 Socio-Cultural Demand Side

Ethiopia is a big and populous country with 80 ethnic groups that have their own peculiar as well as common socio-cultural values. Amongst the various socio-cultural values, some, such as violence against women and children, early marriage, and negative attitude towards education are common to most of the ethnic groups. These socio-cultural values are apparently barriers and bottlenecks to school enrolment, retention, and completion, especially for girls, children with disability, orphans and other vulnerable children. The key socio-cultural barriers to schooling can be grouped into five as presented in the table below.

| Barriers | Factor | Dimensions of Exclusion (DE) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | DE1 | DE2 | DE3 | DE4 | DE5 |
| Socio-Cultural Barriers | 1. Violence against children (VAC) and gender-based violence (GBV) in and out of school | | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| | 2. Harmful traditional practices<br>2.1 Early marriage and teenage pregnancy<br>2.2 Female genital mutilation | √ | | √ | √ | √ |
| | 3. Lack of parental awareness regarding the benefit of education | | √ | | √ | √ |
| | 4. Wrong attitude towards children with disabilities | √ | √ | √ | | |
| | 5. Wrong attitude towards the education of girls | | | √ | √ | √ |

As indicated above, the effects of these barriers differ from one dimension to another. For instance, violence against children and gender-based violence affect those children who are out of school (DE2 and DE3) as well as those who are in school but at risk of dropping out (DE4 and DE5). The second barrier, i.e., harmful traditional practices, also affects children who are not in school (DE1 and DE3) as well as those who are in school but at risk of dropping out (DE4 and DE5). Besides, lack of parental awareness regarding the benefits of education, wrong attitude towards children with disabilities and the education of girls hamper children's school enrolment and increase dropout rates at pre-primary, primary, and lower-secondary levels. One thing that should be noted is that a child can fall into one of the 5DEs because of more than one barrier and bottleneck, as discussed in this study.

### 2.2.1 Violence against Children (VAC) and Gender-Based Violence (GBV)

Violence against children does not differentiate gender but affects both male and female children whereas gender-based violence affects only girls. In this section, these two types of violence along with their consequences in relation to school attendance and dropout are discussed. Violence against children is defined in various studies in different ways but their common point is they focus on children and some types of violence. According to Article 19 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), violence against children is defined as "all forms physical or mental violence, injury and abuse, neglect or negligent treatment, maltreatment, or exploitation including sexual abuse" (Jacomy, 2008).

Violence against children is a pervasive and deeply disturbing problem. Violence takes place in many settings: in homes, in schools, on the streets, in institutions and at work. The forms of violence range from physical violence such as beating to psychological and sexual violence including name-calling, humiliation, and rape. Although some forms of violence are unexpected and isolated, most are committed by people whom children know and trust such as parents, step-

parents or parents' partners, school-mates, teachers and employers. Certain groups of children such as children with disabilities, children living on the streets, adolescents in conflict with the law, and refugee and displaced children are more vulnerable for such violence. Often, children who face violence or witness it remain silent due to fear and stigma and many children accept violence as an inevitable part of life.

On the other hand, gender-based violence is one of the major barriers that inhibit girls not to be enrolled in schools. Since girls are exposed for this danger, they are not willing to go to school; their parents are also reluctant to send them to school for the same reason. Moreover, once a girl is a victim of gender-based violence, she will not have the interest to pursue her education due to the trauma she has undergone. Actually, there are no data that show the number of girls who discontinued their education due to gender-based violence. However, all respondents from the six sample regions unanimously confirmed that gender-based violence, particularly rape and abduction, are still the main barriers to girls' education. The study conducted by Population Council and UNFPA - Ethiopia Country Office (2010) classifies the types of violence inflicted on females and males as follows.

*Table 21. Magnitude of violence in Ethiopia*

| Region | Percentage of children who were affected by violence | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Forced sex/Rape | | | | | | At least one type of domestic violence | | | | | |
| | Urban | | Rural | | All | | Urban | | Rural | | All | |
| | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| Tigray | | 14.6% | - | 13.5% | | 13.7% | | | | | | 2% |
| Afar | - | - | - | - | - | 15.4% | 4.6% | 3.6% | 11% | 11.7% | 3.9% | 11.4% |
| Amhara | | 13.2% | | 15.4% | | 14.9% | | 17.3% | | 9.5% | | 10.9% |
| Oromia | | | | | | 12% | | 13.9% | | 13% | | 13.3% |
| Ben. G. | | | | | | 15.4 | 13.8% | 13.2% | 9% | 9.2% | 9.8% | 9.8% |
| SNNPR | 6.4% | 11.4% | | 19.2% | | 16.2% | | 16.4% | | 19.2% | | 18.3% |
| AA | | | | | | 10.3% | | | | | | 26.1% |
| All 7 Regions | 1.4% | 12% | 2.8% | 16% | 2% | 15% | 5.4% | 16.6% | 9.8% | 10.9% | 8.8% | 12.5% |

*Source: Population Council Inc. and UNFPA Ethiopia Country Office Survey (2010)*

### (a) Sexual Abuse Issues within and out of Schools (Widespread but often Unrecognized Problem)

Most of the time girls are victims in this regard because they are forced by their peers, older people who are members of the family such as step-fathers, parents' relatives, etc. or some teachers to have sexual intercourse with them. Such violence is also committed either on the way to school, at home, or in school. As shown in Table 21, 15% (12% urban and 16% rural) of girls and 2% (1.4% urban and 2.8% rural) of boys have ever experienced forced sex (rape). Forced sex (rape) was highly prevalent in Tigray, Amhara and SNNPR where, in each region, 14.6%, 13.2% and 11.4% of urban females and 13.5%, 15.4% and 19.2% of rural females, respectively, were victims of forced sex (rape).

**(b) Verbal Abuse, Physical Violence and Chastisement for Coming Late on Regular Basis**

A survey conducted in Ethiopia found that 7.2% of children had been slapped for coming late to school. Moreover, 84% of girls surveyed had experienced physical abuse. Many were beaten severely and they had to go to a clinic to treat the resulting health complications. Because of these and other reasons, they do not have interest to go to school.

**(c) Lack of Parental Care and Household Poverty**

Those children who are orphans or migrants from other areas are suffering from the above mentioned violence because their guardians or foster parents do not take care of or pay attention to them. On the contrary, they demanded the children's labour for domestic work and when these children fail to comply with the instruction of the guardians for one reason or another, they hit, or insult, or raise some bad things about their deceased parents so as to torture them. Moreover, not only the guardians do not allow these children to study but also they discourage them by saying "you will not succeed", etc. Due to these reasons, the children (i) will be discouraged to study their lessons, (ii) cannot do their assignments given by their teachers, (iii) since they could not do their assignments they are afraid of going to school because their teachers will ask them to bring their parents (iv) will not dare to ask their guardians to buy them educational materials so that they will not take the whole note given by their teachers (v) they underestimate themselves and develop inferiority complex, (vi) even if they seat in the class, they could not attend the lessons, etc. In general, the children are abused by their guardians at home and sometimes outside home. Even if there is no sufficient data that show how many boys and girls dropped out of their education due to the aforementioned violence, it is possible to presume from the above disaggregated data that many girls and boys either dropped out of their education (DE2 and DE3) or are at risk of dropping out of their education due to fear of the violence (DE4 and DE5).

The basic issue here is that even though the magnitude of the violence is as indicated above, it is not recognized by most people who are out of the school because children do not tell such violence to any one fearing that they will be attacked again. Therefore, in order to tackle dropout rate that crop up due to the aforementioned violence, government, community members and teachers in particular should pay due attention to children who are exposed to different types of violence by pursuing their class attendance, checking their exam results and approaching them to know their problems. In addition to this, strict regulation should be enacted so that those people who attack these children on the way to school, in school or at home can be penalized. Apart from this, continuous awareness raising activity should be made in and out of school regarding the types of violence against children and gender-based violence the consequences of such violence and other related issue.

### 2.2.2 Harmful Traditional Practices (HTPs)

This is also one of the factors that affect children's school enrolment and attendance. In Ethiopia there are different types of harmful traditional practices that are barriers to the demand for

education. Among many HTPs that are prevalent in the country are early marriage, female genital mutilation, and undermining the future fate of female children. The following paragraphs briefly describe and analyze the status of early marriage and abduction in the country.

Early marriage is a very serious problem that could lead to grave, lifelong health complications. In Ethiopia the legal age at marriage for both sexes is 18, and child marriage is defined as marriage before this age. Due to the strictness of the law and the growing awareness of children and other community members about the bad consequences of early marriage, it is not done officially; rather, it is happening in hidden and systematic ways. Table 22 shows the status of early marriage in different regions of Ethiopia.

*Table 22. Status of early marriage*

| Region | Age (12-14) | | Age (15-17) | | Never enterred school | Dropped out | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Boys | Girls | Boys | Girls | | LPS | UPS |
| Tigray | | 1.6% | | 10.7% | 58% | 31.2% | 16.5% |
| Afar | | 0.3% | | 16% | 59.3% | 37.3% | 36.9% |
| Amhara | | 2.7% | | 25.4% | 82.1% | 21.3% | 17.2% |
| Oromia | | | | 13.6% | 75.9% | 30.2% | 22.6% |
| BG | | 2.7% | | 29.4% | 74.9% | 32.7% | 31.8% |
| SNNPR | | | | 2.2% | 61.5% | 16.6% | 17.3% |

*Source: Population Council Inc. and UNFPA Ethiopia Country Office Survey (2010)*

As shown in the above table, the highest rate of early marriage was registered in Amhara and Benishangul Gumuz (BG) regions 28.1% (2.7%+25.4%) and 31.2% (2.7%+29.4%), respectively, followed by Afar, Oromia, Tigray and SNNPR, which registered 16.3%, 13.6%, 12.3%, and 2.2%, respectively. The report further indicated that a significant number of those who married early were uneducated. Moreover, 13% of the girls were married by abduction and 13.5% of the girls were forced to drop out of their education due to the early marriage. In general, the above-mentioned study indicated that 1.8% of male and 13.8% female children aged 15-17 were married while only 1.1% of girls aged 12-14 were married. Greater than 35.3% of the girls who married before the age of 15 had no education, whereas more than 9.6% and 2.1% of the girls had attained primary and secondary education, respectively.

The report further showed that, among those girls who were enrolled in different levels of education, 8.2% had dropped out of their education. Moreover, among those girls who married, 1.1%, 3.7%, and 8.9% were followers of Orthodox Christianity, Islam and Protestantism. Males were also victims of early marriage. As per the report, 0.4%, 5.8%, 0.9% and 1% of boys in Afar, Amhara, Oromia and Benishangul Gumuz got married by the age of 15. Of these, 3.2% were never enrolled in school while 2.2% and 1.1%, had attained primary and secondary school, respectively. As a result, 2.8% of the boys and 18.2% of the girls were not able to pursue their

education. Further, 3.7% (2.9% urban and 4.3% rural) of the boys and 28.9% (21.2% urban and 39.6% rural) of the girls were forced to leave their school due to marriage (DE3). Those girls and boys who are married are at risk of dropping out of their education (DE5). The respondents from Afar and Amhara also confirmed that early marriage was the major barrier to girls' education even though this practice was showing a declining trend in rural towns of the Amhara region.

The causes for early marriage differ from region to region and from one ethnic group to the other, but the most common causes, according to Save the Children - Denmark, MoWA, and MoE (2008), are the following:

i. **Economic factors**: One of the causes for early marriage is obtaining bride price (the tradition of seeking bride price/bride wealth).
ii. **Improvement for the boys' family,** which includes additional labour (the girl) and possible access to additional land, when a new household is established.
iii. **Interest to affiliate with families of high status,** i.e. families with important resources such as land, labour, and cattle: Early marriage is, therefore, one of the major mechanisms to cope with economic crisis. It enables the family to gain resources from outside the household.
iv. **The assumption that an unmarried girl is helpless and totally unprotected**: Thus, the parents of a girl child feel a big responsibility to ensure the marriage of their daughter. Since life expectancy in Ethiopia is low, parents may not dare to wait too long to get their daughters married.
v. **Fear of pre-marriage sexual activity:** In most of the Ethiopian cultures where early marriage is practiced, the virginity of the girl is given high value. The fear of the girl losing her virginity (voluntarily or forced) and becoming pregnant before marriage is a key motivating factor for the parents to get their daughters married in an early age.
vi. **Fear of abduction:** Early marriage also serves to protect girls against abduction.

The above discussion indicated that there still remains a long way to go before early marriage is removed from our society. Therefore, government bodies and other stakeholders should work together on awareness-raising activities and influencing people not to give their female children away in early marriage because the burden is very tough. Marriage by abduction differs from early marriage because the man takes the female forcefully without the consent of her parents or the girl. In fact, after the abduction, he will send arbitrators to have her parents' approval. In very rare cases, there is also arranged abduction either by her parents or herself. Since abduction is usually committed without the consent and the will of the abducted female, it is a violent act and in most cases the girl is raped immediately after the actual abduction.

*Table 23. Places for abducting school girls*

| **Respondents** *Total No. of respondents: Parents= 323; Students= 1260; Teachers=335* | | **In school** | **On the way to and from school** | **At home** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | **%** | **%** | **%** |
| **Students** | **Yes** | 7 | 81 | 89 |
| | **No** | 93 | 19 | 11 |
| **Teachers** | **Yes** | 18 | 55 | 30 |
| | **No** | 82 | 45 | 70 |
| **Parents** | **Yes** | 9 | 72 | 23 |
| | **No** | 91 | 28 | 77 |

According to the study done by Save the Children - Denmark, MoWA, and MoE (2008), girls are often abducted from schools, on their way to and from schools, and from home. This is shown in Table 23.

The factors behind abduction are rather complex and also differ from culture to culture. However, some of the causes are explained below:

a) **Economic cause:** If the boy's family can't afford the bride price, abduction is an option.
b) **Rejection of the boy by the girl's family**: In such cases, the boy becomes harsh and decides to marry the female forcefully.
c) **Male dominance in the act of the abduction**: Boys need to prove that they are strong enough to forcefully get exactly the girl they want – if she is not a married.

In general, due to early marriage and abduction, many young girls drop out of their education because of teenage pregnancy that may expose them to lifelong complications, including death, due to different obstetric problems they may encounter during pregnancy and/or delivery. If they deliver safely, the next step is to be mothers of many children and to assume the responsibility of caring for them. These and other issues together force the girl to drop out of her education (DE3). On the other hand, those girls who are attending their education may see the situation their friends who married either by abduction or early marriage are in and feel discouraged to pursue their education and may be at risk of dropping out for fear of abduction and early marriage (DE4 and DE5).

### 2.2.3 Lack of Awareness regarding the Benefit of Education

It is apparent that children's school participation depends, to a large extent, on the parental decision making, which is the most influential factor in sustaining school participation at upper-primary (DE4) and lower-secondary (DE5) levels. However, many parents, particularly those who live in rural Ethiopia, do not have the proper knowledge regarding the benefit of education due to the fact that they are illiterate. This remains one of the greatest barriers to children's non-

enrolment in Ethiopia. In particular, mothers' illiteracy or low educational level plays a major role in the high children's dropout rate or in the fact that some never join school.

Another issue related to the high risk of children dropping out of school (DE4 and DE5) is the lack of parental support to their children, i.e., parents do not provide emotional, social and economic support for their children to enroll and stay in school. Parental support for schooling is an important factor in ensuring that the necessary environment for school participation is sustained. A key enabling factor to school participation is the link between parental perception of the benefits and outcomes of schooling and their desire to keep children in school. Parents who do not see the immediate and long-term benefits of sending their children to school because they expect poor quality education and/or because children do not meet the social and economic success marker in the community are unlikely to continue to invest on education. Therefore, a misconception of parents regarding education is amongst the barriers for the enrolment of children in schools.

A study conducted by Population Council Inc. and UNFPA - Ethiopia Country Office (2010) indicated that among 4,689 boys and 4,794 girls (both groups aged below 6 and above 18) drawn from seven regions, 6.8% (2.1 urban and 10.6% rural) and 6.4% (2.5% urban and 11.58% rural) were forced to drop out of their education due to parents' disapproval. Those sample respondents who were asked to express their opinions on the issue replied that families' education level determines the enrolment of a child to school. If they are illiterate, they do not know the benefit of education and thus will have a wrong attitude towards education. Therefore, schools, together with governmental and non-governmental organizations, should engage in advocacy activities regarding the long-term positive impact of education and try to address the temporary problems that inhibit parents to send their children to school.

### 2.2.4 Wrong Attitude towards Children with Disabilities

In Ethiopia many people, including the parents of children with disabilities, assume that the future of such children is dark as they cannot do anything. As a result of this, many children with disabilities could not be enrolled in schools. Such an attitude is a significant barrier to educational access for children with disabilities. People could not see the value of education for children with disabilities. This situation often limits the number of children with special needs attending school and is a barrier particularly in schools where teachers and heads of teachers do not promote inclusive education. This barrier affects children particularly in entry to pre-primary and primary education. The above-mentioned survey study revealed that in the seven regions 1.3% of 4,689 boys and 1.3% of 4,794 girls were forced to leave schools or did not attend school (Population Council Inc. and UNFPA, 2010).

The sample respondents from education and other social sectors clearly indicated that the importance of special needs education is well articulated in the 1994 Education and Training Policy, and a special needs education strategy has been developed by the MoE. As a result,

children with various kinds of disabilities are enrolled in schools but the public attitude towards these children has not yet changed. Accordingly, many children are kept in their homes and are not allowed to go to school. As noted in the UNESCO Global Monitoring Report (2010), failure to address inequalities, stigmatization and discrimination linked to disability and other socio-economic characteristics can hold back progress towards Education for All. Therefore, a concerted effort should be made by all stakeholders to change such wrong attitudes and address the problems of children with disabilities.

### 2.2.5 Wrong Attitude towards the Future Fate of Female Children

The other social barrier to girls' education is the society's attitude towards the fate of female children. Parents assume that educating a female child is a waste of time and resources because when she is old enough, she will marry someone and start taking care of her children and husband. Such an attitude deters females' access to education and gives undue advantages for boys since boys get better chances of getting educated and are considered as an asset to the family. This is due to the patriarchal system that prevailed in the country and a general low regard for the value of female education, among other factors. These reasons adversely affect the participation of girls in education. As a result, educating girls is not seen as a strategic investment. The money parents spend on girls' education is often seen as a loss to the family.

The other attitude towards girls' education is that girls are less competitive in education in general and less talented in some subjects like Mathematics that are considered tough. Such negative attitudes erode girls' confidence to study such subjects. Studies carried out on this issue in Ethiopia also confirm this view. According to one study by Population Council Inc. and UNFPA (2010), the attitude among young adults and parents towards girls' capacity in education is more or less similar, i.e., 36.2% male and 33.6% female youths said that most girls are lazy in school, and 29.3% of fathers and 30.6% mothers also felt the same. Such attitudes will increase the number of students in DE4 and DE5. This implies that a lot of sensitization and awareness-creation activities should be done in order to curb this problem. Besides, schools, the government, and non-government organizations should support female students in their education. Apart from this, older females who have completed their education should be given jobs and other opportunities so that younger female students will be motivated to successfully complete their education; if this happens, their parents will be encouraged to send their female children to school.

## 2.3 Economic Demand Side

The other essential factor for the enrolment of children in schools is the economic demand side. This factor comprises household income, schooling cost, presence of schools, community involvement, transportation, education quality and relevance (Raja and Burnett, 2004). Many children will either never enter school or drop out of their education even if they have demand for

it due to economic problems. In this sub-section, the economic barriers and bottlenecks that keep children out of school or that will lead those children who are already in school to drop out of school are discussed.

| Factor | Dimensions of Exclusions | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | DE1 | DE2 | DE3 | DE4 | DE5 |
| 1. Household poverty | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 2. Cost-benefit of education | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 3. Being orphan | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 4. Seasonal factor and migration | | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 5. Indirect and opportunity costs of education | | | | √ | √ |
| 6. Child labour | | √ | √ | √ | √ |

The aforementioned economic factors, often working together, bring about high rates of household vulnerability, which can be affected with the slightest economic shock, causing dropouts and/or preventing other children from enrolling. Parents who are very poor have to make strategic and hard decisions to bring about the least risk when deciding on which children should go to school.

### 2.3.1 Household Poverty

Poverty in Ethiopia is pervasive and multifaceted and, as a result of this, it is estimated that about 38% (39.3% in rural and 35.1% in urban) of the population lives below the poverty line (MOFED, 2006). In fact, in rural area poverty has declined due to pro-poor interventions such as the food security program, the extension program, and the productive safety net program. When we see poverty as a barrier for school enrolment and attendance, although school enrolment has increased dramatically in Ethiopia, there are more than three million children who are out of school. There are also many others who are attending education but are at risk of dropping out. The main reason for these children to be excluded from their education is poverty. Children of poor households are excluded from education for four reasons:

The first reason is their inability to cover indirect costs of schooling. Parents' inability to afford education is one of the major reasons why children are out of school, even in countries that have abolished formal school fees (UNESCO, 2010). Even though Ethiopia has made primary education free, due to the indirect costs involved, children are deterred from being enrolled in primary school since their parents cannot afford to cover the indirect costs, which include the cost of purchasing uniforms, stationary, other learning materials, transport cost, etc. Even if the children are enrolled, they will be forced to discontinue their education due to the low economic capacity of their parents.

The second reason for children from poor families to be excluded from their education is family size. If there are many children in a family, the parents will not send all their children to school

because (i) they cannot cover the indirect costs of education as mentioned above, and (ii) they need the labour of some of their children. In such situations, most of the time, male children are allowed to go to school while female children are forced to remain at home to take care of younger children and to support their mothers in doing the domestic work. In fact, in a family where there is no elder female child, the older boy is responsible for supporting his family; therefore, he will be engaged in activities which might be beyond his capacity. In these cases, either female or male children or both will be forced to be out of school (DE2 and DE3) or will be at the gate of dropping out of their education because they cannot attend their classes regularly (DE4 and DE5).

The third reason is the opportunity cost of schooling for the poor family. For children from poor families, the opportunity cost of attending school is high. This means that what they give up in terms of time and labour makes school relatively more expensive. Therefore, they will be forced to engage in income-generating activities to help their families.

The fourth reason, which is one way or the other related with the second one, is that children's labour is demanded by their families. In Ethiopia, children as young as 7 years old are required to perform various tasks related to domestic and farm activities. Girls are wanted in household chores such as fetching water, collecting fire wood, etc. and boys are also forced to be employed in order to generate income to support their parents. This is especially true of rural school children who have to work on farms before and after school and also during weekends. The situation of school girls in particular is worrying because of the double role they assume as helpers in the domestic unit and as sources of labour for the family farm. While working as such may not be harmful for school girls, excessive work both at home and on the farm is detrimental to their physical, emotional and intellectual development. It is from this point of view that excessive work is considered an abuse.

The data obtained from UNFPA Ethiopia Country Office indicates that 11.9% (12.2% urban and 11.9% rural) of children were not able to attend their education and 22.1% (22.1% urban and 22.3%) of children were forced to stay out of school because the children are engaged in income-generating activities to support their families (Population Council Inc. and UNFPA, 2010). The qualitative data collected from the sample regions also confirm that children are excluded or at a risk of being excluded from their school due to the above-mentioned reasons. Hence, in order to alleviate such problems: a) school-feeding programs should be introduced in schools to help those children who cannot get enough food in their homes; b) parents or guardians of such children should be supported to find jobs so that they can support themselves and send their children to school.

### 2.3.2 The Cost-Benefit of Education

The role of poverty is important for parents to decide whether or not to send their children to school because parents always compare the costs incurred for education vis-a-vis the future

benefits that will be obtained after graduation or completion of schooling. Thus, even though the poor household heads realize that the benefit that will be obtained after completion or graduation of education is greater than the costs they now incur for education at higher levels, they will not volunteer to send their children to school because they estimate that current costs are greater than any other future benefits (Schaffner, 2004).

### 2.3.3 Being Orphan

Being orphan often exacerbates financial constraints for poorer households and increases the demands for child labour (Hunt, 2008). As a result, enrolment of orphans in primary education is lower (Schaffner, 2005) mainly for two reasons: (i) absence of people who would support them, and (ii) psychological depression. These two factors negatively affect the children's attitude to continue their education, especially at primary level. Regardless of the specific causes of parental deaths, children will become orphans when they lose one or both of their parents. Being orphan, particularly for children who come from poor families, negatively affects school enrolment or attendance. Those children who lost both of their parents or only the mother will either be delayed from school enrolment or drop out of their education, especially at younger ages as compared to non-orphans (Pullum and Greenwell, 2009). Because of their economic problems, they will not be able to cover the costs of education materials, nursing ailing parents, and caring for younger siblings; they also have to drop out in order to work. Because of this, most of the time, the older children, particularly girls, will drop out of their primary education (Schaffner, 2005).

Orphan children living in rural areas with poor households are compelled to be engaged in income-generating activities which are sometimes beyond their capacity. Most of the time, boys are employed in labourious work while girls are either hired as domestic workers or become commercial sex workers. Orphans and other poor children of urban areas are also engaged in such activities in order to support themselves and their siblings. Poor children of rural areas are involved in such activities when they become orphans or when crops fail (N. Chaudhury et al., 2006, cited in Taylor and Amdissa, 2007). Moreover, the findings from the qualitative data collected from the six regions strengthen the conclusions made above and being orphan is considered as one of the barriers for the enrolment of children in school.

The data obtained from UNFPA - Ethiopia Country Office report further revealed that 5% (6% urban and 4.8% rural) and 5.5% (5% urban and 6.3% rural) of orphans were compelled not to attend their education regularly (DE4 and DE5) and to drop out of their school (DE2 and DE3), respectively (Population Council Inc. and UNFPA, 2010).

### 2.3.4 Seasonal Factors and Migration

People move from one place to another due to seasonal factors. For instance, pastoralists move from the place where they live to another in search of grazing land and water for their cattle. When these people move, undoubtedly children also move along with them. On the other hand,

due to natural calamities such as drought, flood, etc. and man-made problems like civil war or temporary mass rivalry, people may be forced to move to other areas. As a result of such migration, children move with their parents frequently and do not regularly attend school for the months when they are away from home. Moreover, when parents are far apart for long periods, children can be severely affected emotionally due to the lack of remittances, which can create family stress in relation to children's education. Not having a parent around to monitor the child's progress can adversely affect his/her chances of succeeding in school. Children can also decide on their own volition whether to attend school or not.

As indicated in the report of Population Council Inc. and UNFPA (2010), at the time of migration, 46.8% (68.6% urban and 28.9% rural) of children never entered in school and 40.3% (62.8% urban and 21.2% rural) of children were attending primary education at the time of their migration. During the interview time, sample respondents further confirmed that children of pastoralist families were forced to drop out of their education due to the movement of their families to other places. In addition, they were required by their parents to keep herds. Thus, migration is one of the factors that negatively affects the school enrolment and attendance of children. Children may move from rural to urban areas with or without their parents temporarily or permanently, not only in searching of schools but also due to natural and man-made problems, or to look for paid employment. In areas where there is a lot of rural-urban migration, pupils frequently drop out of school prior to completing their education (Hunt, 2008). In this connection, the responses of the sample respondents, particularly from Amhara and Afar regions, were found to support the observations made above. Thus, it is possible to deduce that seasonal factors and migration are among those barriers and bottlenecks for children to be enrolled in school. Hence, it is proposed that: (i) mobile schools for pastoralists should be established because the schools can move with these people; (ii) flexible school calendars should be used so that at the time of movement, the school can be closed and when they come back, the school can start operating; and c), tent schools should be established in areas where people settle for the time being during emergency situations.

## 2.4 Supply Side

This section explores the key education supply indicators related to the 5DEs framework. The supply side factors that lead to children enrolling, staying in school and attending on regular basis are complex and interwoven. None or irregular enrolment and eventual dropout from school are caused by a multiplicity of supply side factors which can be grouped into the following areas:

- Absence of school infrastructure/Distance to school
- The unavailability of child-friendly resources, including potable water and sanitation facilities
- The shortage of textbooks, teacher guides, and labs
- Lack of trained teachers

- Language of instruction

These often lead to poor performance in school, loss of motivation for learning and eventual dropout, particularly in under-resourced schools. Even parents can be influenced to decide whether to send or not to send their children to school. The main supply side barriers discussed in this section are shown below.

| Factor | Dimensions of Exclusion | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | DE1 | DE2 | DE3 | DE4 | DE5 |
| 1. Distance to school | √ | √ | √ | | |
| 2. Insufficient sitting and writing place | | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 3. Poor conditions of school facilities | | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 4. Lack of drinking water and sanitation facilities | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| 5. Lack of appropriate infrastructure for children with disabilities | √ | √ | √ | | |
| 6. Shortage of textbooks | | | √ | √ | √ |
| 7. Shortage of human resources | | | √ | √ | √ |

As portrayed above, the supply side barriers affecting DE1, DE2, and DE3 are mainly related to distance to school, lack of drinking water and sanitation facilities, and lack of appropriate infrastructure for children with disabilities. The supply side barriers that mainly affect children in DE4 and DE5 include insufficient sitting and writing place, poor conditions of school facilities, lack of drinking water and sanitation facilities, and shortage of textbooks and human resources.

It is apparent that increasing the supply of education has important economic effects which are beyond improving the skills and productivity of labour because it helps to improve health, hygiene, nutrition practices and child care (MOFED, 2010). Supply of education is expressed in terms of the availability of school places, physical infrastructure, quality of education, and human resources. When there is shortage of these resources, it is said that there is shortage of education supply. The physical infrastructure comprises the accessibility of school to students, the availability of sufficient number of school facilities such as running or tap water and toilets, and sufficient classrooms in terms of number and size (Lopez J. et al., 2009). The human resource part of education supply includes the availability of adequate numbers of trained male and female teachers.. The inadequate supply of schools, along with other necessary materials and human resource, will inhibit access to education (Colclough et al., 2000, cited in Hunt, 2008) and, consequently, it negatively affects the attendance and success of students, particularly girls (Lopez J. et al., 2009 and Guday E., 2005). In fact, lack of educational supply, most of the time, affects school enrolment rather than attendance. In other words, when schools are built too far from the village where children reside, the number of students that will be registered at the beginning of the academic year will be lower.

### 2.4.1 Physical Supply: School Infrastructure

- **Remoteness of Schools/Average Distance from School to Home and the Availability of Classrooms**

School infrastructure comprises school places and distance of school from home. Remoteness of schools or, in other words, the distance of school from home is one of other proxies usually used to measure school accessibility. When schools are far from children's homes, it does not only affect their initial access to school but it also creates barriers to their retention, completion and transition to higher levels of schooling (Hunt, 2008). Due to higher opportunity costs, which are expressed in terms of time and transport cost as well as potential risks for children to travel long distances on their own, the correlation between school attendance and enrolment becomes negative, particularly in rural areas.

The MoE recognizes that distance between school and pupils' homes is one of the major challenges and barriers for schooling for children, in particular for adolescent girls. Cognizant of this fact, MoE in its three ESDPs and the current ESDP IV has put a strategy to reduce the distance between schools and pupils' homes. The strategy was constructing primary schools in rural areas where there was no school. In fact, other researchers also explained that distance was one of the barriers for children to attend their education due to time and other opportunity costs (Al-Samarrai S., 2003). The Ethiopian Welfare Monitoring Survey clearly indicated that, at country level, about a quarter of the households will get the nearest primary school after traveling for less than one kilometer. In urban areas almost 44% of the households are supposed to travel less than one kilometer to access the nearest primary school. With regard to the rural households, only 22% of the population can get the primary school after they walk for less than one kilometer. In this same year, as shown in the Education Statistics Annual Abstract of 1997 (2004/05), there were 16,513 primary schools and 161,795 sections in the country and the GER was 79.8% (88% for males & 71.5% for females) (MoE, 2005). On the other hand, in 2002 (2009/10) the number of schools, their corresponding sections, the GER and the NER reached 26,951, 254,744, 93.4% (96.6% for males and 90.1% for females) and 82.1% (83.7% for boys and 80.5% for girls), respectively (MoE, 2010).

When these variables are seen with respect to regions, similar results were observed even though the disparities among regions were significant for different reasons. Table 24 illustrates the distance of schools from homes in each region and the percentages of the students that were supposed to walk to their nearest schools.

*Table 24: Distance in kilometre to the nearest primary school*

| Region | Distance in kilometre to the nearest primary school | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Less than 1 KM | 1-4 KM | 5-9 KM | 10-14 KM | 15-19 KM | 20 and over KM | Not stated | Total |
| Tigray | 24.59% | 50.17% | 19.21% | 3.29% | 1.61% | 1.09% | 0.04% | 100% |
| Afar | 34.28% | 42.29% | 15.81% | 4.07% | 2.75% | 0.56% | 0.25% | 100% |
| Amhara | 24.62% | 46.69% | 22.25% | 4.01% | 1.42% | 1.01% | - | 100% |
| Oromia | 22.93% | 48.09% | 23.95% | 3.52% | 1.18% | 0.30% | 0.03% | 100% |
| Somali | 26.76% | 30.83% | 23.30% | 7.54% | 8.26% | 3.25% | 0.05% | 100% |
| Benishangul-Gumuz | 31.27% | 40.09% | 17.77% | 5.27% | 1.85% | 3.51% | 0.24% | 100% |
| SNNPR | 25.71% | 55.50% | 15.58% | 2.05% | 0.82% | 0.34% | - | 100% |
| Harari | 53.75% | 41.38% | 4.74% | 0.13% | - | - | - | 100% |
| Addis Ababa | 45.78% | 51.21% | 2.56% | 0.33% | 0.01% | - | 0.11% | 100% |
| Dire Dawa | 39.56% | 53.7% | 5.75% | 0.60% | 0.17% | - | 0.22% | 100% |

*Source: WMS (CSA, 2004)*

The distance of schools adversely affects the enrolment children for pre-primary education because they are unable to travel beyond 1-2kms. As a result of this, parents do not send their children to school. Moreover, the distance to school influences parents' attitudes towards sending their children to school because of the issue of safety, particularly when there is no older sibling attending in the same school. Hence, parents wait until their children reach a mature age to walk the distance, which in turn results in overage enrolment. Research shows that over-aged children are more prone to dropout at a later stage of schooling. Late-age enrolment has also become a barrier to age-appropriate targets being met particularly at the primary level of education (DE2). Girls' enrolment in school is also negatively affected by school distance due to parents'/guardians' fear of sexual harassment, especially as they grow older.

The UNFPA study indicated that 16.9% (13.1% urban and 17.8% rural) of 8,384 children could not attend their education and 2.6% (2.1 urban and 2.3 rural) of 3,802 children were forced to leave their school due to the school distance (Population Council Inc. & UNFPA Ethiopia, 2010).

### 2.4.2 Insufficient Sitting and Writing Place

Insufficient and poor school infrastructure and limited classroom space affect access to schooling because parents do not send their children in such schools even if they are poor. It can also have a negative effect on retention, particularly if the infrastructure is damaged in the course of a child's education. Moreover, limited classroom space affects the sitting and writing places that discourage children to attend their education because there is congestion in classrooms, which creates discomfort to them.

The availability of sufficient sitting and writing places is measured using the pupils-section ratio (PSR). As the number of pupils in a section becomes fewer, students will have sufficient writing place, assuming that a sufficient number of desks is availed in each section. The pupils to class

ratio (PCR) is not the same as pupils to section ratio (PSR) because in Ethiopia 26.8% of the primary schools use double shift. According to the MoE Annual Abstract (2010), the PSR at national level is higher than the standard set by MoE, which is 50 pupils per section. However, at regional level, PSR in Oromia, Benishangul-Gumuz, SNNPR, and Gambella, was 60, 57.1, 65.4, and 61.8, respectively. As mentioned above, PSR is used in lieu of PCR to measure the existence of sufficient sitting and writing places.

Based on the above-mentioned data, it can be seen that there are shortages of sitting and writing spaces, which means that there is overcrowding in classrooms. Therefore, still more classrooms should be built in regions where PSR is high in order to alleviate the supply barrier. The qualitative data also confirm that schools in the six sample regions do not have comfortable rooms for their students due to shortage of classrooms, desks, tables, etc. Moreover, as indicated in MoFED (2010), assuming that 50 students will attend in a class, in order to fulfill the universal primary education/UPE, the government of Ethiopia needs to construct 60,000 additional classrooms.

### 2.4.3 Poor Condition of School Facilities

Poor condition of school facilities implies the existence of leaking roofs and structures that are unsafe in adverse weather conditions, cause irregular participation and attendance in schools, and result in the closure of schools during rainy or very hot seasons. Parents, teachers and community members judge the quality of educational delivery by the presence of a well-constructed schools and availability of appropriate school facilities.

School facilities include libraries, laboratories, teaching and other material inputs that are directly linked to the instructional processes. School facilities consistently influence pupils' achievement. The intensity of school library utilization also contributes to students' achievement. It is believed that the presence of quality teaching materials such as textbooks, teacher guides, desks, blackboards, etc. will not only improve the performance of students but also help inadequately-trained teachers to improve their teaching skills and upgrade their own knowledge. Researches show that poor conditions of school facilities negatively affect the school attendance of children, particularly that of girls (Guday E., 2005).

Cognizant of the fact that improving school facilities will help to keep children in school, the MoE has paid attention to creating conducive environment through improvement in school facilities and has planned in ESDP IV to increase the number of schools with standard facilities (MoE, 2010). Since it is difficult for the government to fulfill the facilities of every primary school, participation of the community is vital not only to contribute to the fulfillment of the facilities but also to create the feeling of ownership within them; and this strategy has already been included in the fourth ESDP.

*Table 25. Schools with basic infrastructure and facilities*

| Region | Electricity | Access to drinking water | No. of toilets for boys | No. of toilets for girls | No. of toilets for boys and girls | No. of schools | No. of libraries | % of schools that have library |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tigray | 10% | 545 | 1,246 | 1,198 | 430 | 1955 | 883 | 45.2% |
| Afar | 4% | 143 | 386 | 348 | 59 | 366 | 56 | 15.3% |
| Amhara | 3% | 2,317 | 4,941 | 4,743 | 1,015 | 6610 | 2743 | 41.5% |
| Oromia | 4% | 4,194 | 16,489 | 14,930 | 4,615 | 10742 | 3835 | 35.7% |
| Somali | 2% | 77 | 171 | 134 | 204 | 855 | 46 | 5.4% |
| Ben.-Gumuz | 3% | 124 | 633 | 620 | 20 | 365 | 81 | 22.2% |
| SNNPR | 3% | 1,760 | 8,245 | 7,423 | 1,733 | 4956 | 1710 | 34.5% |
| Gambella | 5% | 85 | 168 | 174 | 19 | 205 | 21 | 10.2% |
| Harari | 68.8% | 38 | 94 | 84 | 27 | 58 | 40 | 69% |
| Addis Ababa | 94.3% | 689 | 2,400 | 2,279 | 385 | 723 | 597 | 82.6% |
| Dire Dawa | 67.2% | 98 | 290 | 268 | 15 | 116 | 38 | 32.8% |
| **Total** | **5%** | **10,070** | **35,063** | **32,201** | **8522** | | | |

*Source: CSA (2008), EMIS/MoE (2002 EFY)*

Table 25 presents schools that have school infrastructure and facilities and percentage of pupils in schools with basic resources. As shown in the table, the numbers of libraries that are established in schools are not adequate. This clearly indicates that students do not have access to educational materials other than their textbooks, which makes them highly dependent on their textbooks if they are able to get them. This has a negative effect not only on the performance of students but also on their IQ and general knowledge. Moreover, the MoE statistical abstract reveals that there is shortage of classrooms, which is expressed in terms of high student section ratio. The qualitative data obtained from the six regions further disclosed that the schools do not have sufficient numbers of libraries and laboratories.

### 2.4.4 Lack of Drinking Water and Sanitary Facilities

The other important factors that determine the supply of education are electricity, drinking water, and separate sanitary facilities such as toilets (for boys and girls separately). The availability of these facilities affects school enrolment and attendance of children. Lack of potable water has a greater effect on young children due to their reduced ability to withstand thirst. Absence of separate toilets for girls is also one of the main causes of absenteeism and school dropout among girls at upper-primary and lower-secondary schools. This is due to the special needs of teenage girls for a private and safe environment, particularly during their menstrual period. According to Colclough et al. (2000), cited in Hunt (2008), out of 11 schools visited in Ethiopia, only five had latrines, of which only one had separate latrines for boys and girls. In most cases, these latrines were not suitable to use.

In addition to these, the availability of drinking water also has an impact on children's school enrolment as well as attendance because water is essential at any time and at any place for hygiene as well as for drinking. As reported by MoFED (2010), in schools where there is no water, children will be compelled to go out of school in search of it or carry it from their homes. Thus, in schools where there is lack of water, students cannot properly attend their education. The availability of water affects not only school enrolment and attendance of children but also the availability of teachers, particularly female teachers, because they are not motivated to teach in areas where there is serious water shortage (Guday E., 2005).

The research conducted by MoFED (2010) unveils that, among primary schools that are currently operational, only 34.2% and 90.5% have water and latrines, respectively. The MoE statistical abstract also indicates that only 37.4% (10,070) of primary schools have reported that they have water facilities (refer to Table 9 above). According to the educational statistics annual abstract, some schools have reported that they have two sources of water. Moreover, above 90% of all schools reported that they have latrines. These data show that those primary schools that are built in rural areas, particularly those that are far from towns, are suffering from lack of water.

Apart from drinking water and separate sanitary facilities, the presence of electricity in schools is the other important factor that determines the supply of education. Though it was difficult to get data regarding the number of schools that have electricity, the electric distribution census conducted by CSA during the national level census is used here as a proxy to estimate the number of schools that have electric power, assuming that those schools that are built in areas where there is electric power use electricity. Also, the proportion of electric power distribution obtained for regions is applied for schools. At national level, only 5% of the housing units used private electric meters, which implies that out of the total schools available in the country, only 5% use electric power from EEPCO (CSA, 2008). All these pieces of evidence indicate that those primary schools that are located in urban areas have the opportunity to have electric power for lighting whereas those that are located in rural areas do not. In schools where there is no electricity, students cannot learn in their classrooms during bad weather conditions or other reasons that need light. Moreover, they could not utilize laboratory equipment to practice what they have learned in their classrooms. In general, respondents from the six sample regions confirmed that their schools were suffering from lack of drinking water, latrines and electricity.

### 2.4.5 Lack of Appropriate Infrastructure for Children with Disabilities

According to Dang and Pelleriaux (2006), at the primary school level, various types of special needs education can be provided to children based on the types of disability they have, i.e., slight intellectual disability, moderate and/or severe intellectual disability, severe emotional and/or behavioral problems, physical disability, visual impairment, hearing impairment, etc. However, because of the disabilities that children have and the misconceptions of the society regarding people with disabilities, these children are excluded from educational opportunities. And even if

these children get enrolled somehow, the probability of their dropping out is high (Hunt, 2008). Even in some primary schools where some physical facilities were available, these facilities were not disability-friendly (World Bank, 2009). Moreover, those children with disabilities were not able to enroll and pursue their education due to lack of trained teachers to help them (Hunt, 2008).

Ethiopia has recently developed a strategy for special needs and inclusive education. Nevertheless, due to limited understanding of the concept of disability, negative attitude towards people with disabilities, and a hardened resistance to change, schools could not create easy access to children with disabilities. From the supply side perspective, the main barriers to learning are rigid and poor teaching methods, inconvenient learning environment, lack of identification processes, and inadequate assessment procedures. As a result of these, in Ethiopia, less than 3% of children with disabilities have access to primary education (ESDP IV).

The survey conducted by UNFPA - Ethiopia Country Office also unveiled that 0.8% (1% urban and 0.7% rural) and 5% (4.6% urban and 5.5% rural) of the children were not able to attend their education regularly and were forced to drop out of their education, respectively, due to sickness and disability. Moreover, respondents from the six sample regions expressed that primary and lower-secondary schools were not suitable for children with disability in their regions. Therefore, the MoE and other stakeholders should consider the problem of children with disabilities when they construct new school buildings. Besides, the existing school buildings should be renovated to solve the problems of children with disabilities.

### 2.4.6 Shortage of Textbook Supply

An adequate supply of textbooks and other teaching and learning materials is a pre-requisite for effective teaching and learning processes; however, children at primary and lower-secondary schools are in short of these books. The presence of appropriate teaching-learning materials can enhance positive parental judgments of school quality, thereby stimulating more interest in sending their children to school, particularly at the pre-primary and primary levels. Most importantly, the presence of these materials can enhance instructional practices and learning outcomes, particularly in under-resourced environments where trained teachers are not available. As the demand for quality education is not matched by appropriate teaching and learning materials, children are prone to dropping out of school.

The quality of teaching is, to a large extent, dependent upon teaching materials, particularly textbooks (MoE, 2010). Studies conducted on the role of textbooks in the teaching and learning process indicated that the role of textbooks in the achievement of students and improvement of the learning and teaching process is vital. Nevertheless, the shortage of textbooks is a serious problem in almost all primary and lower-secondary schools across the country. One recently carried out study indicated that, due to the prevailing shortage of textbooks in some instances, communities and schools had to take their own measures to address the problem, i.e., by borrowing textbooks from other schools (DfID, 2011).

Cognizant of this situation, as indicated in ESDP III, the government of Ethiopia has put a target to provide one textbook of each subject to each student or to make the primary school student-textbook ration 1:1 in 2010; nevertheless, the performance stands at 1:1.5. Though the target has not been met as planned, there has been an improvement as compared to the base year 2004/05 student-textbook ratio, which was 1:2. When students could not get textbooks, teachers put pressure on the students in different ways to have the required textbooks. As a result, those students who are not able to have the textbooks will be forced to drop out of their education. Even if schools tolerate such students to attend classes, their performance will be low. This shows that inadequate provision of school instructional materials (textbooks) and other support materials will push children away from their education, and this will be one of the push factors for students to drop out of their education.

### 2.4.7 Shortage of Human Resource Supply

The supply of human resources in this study refers to the availability of the required teachers (in terms of quality and quantity) in schools. It is obvious that shortage of teachers in schools leads to more children dropping out of school and also affects the quality of education as the students do not get sufficient attention and follow-up from their teachers. The supply of teachers is measured using different proxies such as pupil-teacher ratio, presence of female teachers, recruitment system of teachers, training and quality of teachers, teacher attendance, etc.

Moreover, teachers' presence in school as well as their attitude and behavior towards both the children and the community are found to contribute to children's entry and retention at school. On the other hand, absenteeism, irregular attendance, lateness and indiscriminate use of corporal punishment by teachers can be the main causes of irregular attendance and dropout among pupils. Teacher absenteeism can have a major impact on non-enrolment (DE1 & DE2) and dropping out of primary levels of schooling (DE4), particularly among pre-primary and primary school-age children. In general, teacher deployment and performance has a serious bearing on all the dimensions of exclusion in the 5DE model. In this sub-section, some of the above proxies for which data could be obtained are presented as follows.

- **Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR)**

This is one of the common educational indicators for efficiency and quality. There are two views regarding PTR: a) The lower the PTR, the better the opportunity for contact between the teacher and pupils, and the greater the support the teacher can provide to students individually, thereby improving the quality of education; b) A very low PTR may indicate an inefficient use or an under-utilization of teachers, resulting in low efficiency. Therefore, a low or a high PTR alone does not explain the quality of education because quality of education depends on other factors such as the mode of delivery, the commitment and qualification of teachers, the supply of educational materials, etc.

This indicator is, however, useful for setting minimum standards and ensuring a certain level of equality throughout the country. In Ethiopia, the standard set for PTR is 50 at primary (1-8) level. However, at national level, PTR for lower-primary level (1-4) is 56; for upper-primary level (5-8) it is 46, and for all primary education level it is 51. These data indicate that in the upper-primary level, the PTR is below the minimum standard, which implies that teachers can have more contact with their students and can follow up each student to provide the necessary assistance, particularly for those who are weak in their academic performance. Moreover, teachers will be able to know the life situation of their students and can help them to continue with their education by discussing with students' parents and other stakeholders. Particularly if teachers are trained in identifying students who are at risk of dropping out for various reasons, they can help such students not to drop out of school.

Table 26 presents PTR, by region and by level of education: lower-primary (Grade 1-4) and upper-primary education (Grade 5-8).

*Table 26. Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR)*

| **Region** | **Lower-primary level** | **Upper-primary level** | **All primary school level** |
|---|---|---|---|
| National | 56 | 46 | 51 |
| Tigray | 46 | 43 | 44 |
| Afar | 46 | 32 | 34 |
| Amhara | 48 | 43 | 46 |
| Oromia | 62 | 43 | 54 |
| Somali | 76 | 73 | 75 |
| Benishangul-Gumuz | 45 | 40 | 43 |
| SNNPR | 64 | 54 | 59 |
| Gambella | 50 | 47 | 33 |
| Harari | 45 | 39 | 31 |
| Addis Ababa | 24 | 25 | 25 |
| Dire Dawa | 31 | 32 | 28 |

*Source: CSA (2008), Education Statistics Annual Abstract, MoE 2002 EFY*

As indicated in the above table, the PTR in almost all regions is below the minimum standard set by the MoE. However, Oromia (for lower-primary level), and Somali and SNNPR (for both lower- and upper-primary levels) do not meet at least the minimum PTR. These show that there is no shortage of human resources from the supply side perspective or there are adequate numbers of teachers per class. And it can be said that, in any case, having more teachers at primary level has a positive effect on education. On the other hand, the PTR in Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa seems strange and would indicate overstaffing. The responses obtained from sample respondents also

corroborate the above finding, i.e., there is no problem of PTR. But they remarked that the use of the self-contained teaching method was not effective for two reasons: (a) students would be bored with the teacher if his/her teaching method was not attractive to them; and (b) one teacher cannot be competent in all subjects.

- **Proportion of Female Teachers**

As regards female teachers, Table 27 shows that, at national as well as regional level, the share of female teachers is very low.

*Table 27. Proportion of female teachers*

| Region | Number of teachers | | | % of Female |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Male | Female | Total | |
| National | 186,215 | 105,915 | 292,130 | 36.3% |
| Tigray | 14,159 | 7,996 | 22,155 | 36.1% |
| Afar | 1,748 | 851 | 2,599 | 32.7% |
| Amhara | 43,995 | 34,957 | 78,952 | 44.3% |
| Oromia | 66,574 | 34,727 | 101,301 | 34.3% |
| Somali | 4,518 | 960 | 5,478 | 17.5% |
| Benishangul-Gumuz | 2,451 | 1,116 | 3,567 | 31.1% |
| SNNPR | 40,194 | 16,487 | 56,681 | 29.1% |
| Gambella | 1,898 | 514 | 2,412 | 21.3% |
| Harari | 621 | 515 | 1,136 | 45.3% |
| Addis Ababa | 8,638 | 7,111 | 15,749 | 45.2% |
| Dire Dawa | 1,419 | 681 | 2,100 | 32.6% |

*Source: Education Statistics Annual Abstract, 2002 EFY*

As depicted in Table 27, at national level, the proportion of female teachers is 36.3%. The same proportion is also observed at regional level, except in Amhara, Harari and Addis Ababa, where the proportion of female teachers is over 44%. The extreme low proportion is observed in the Somali region where the proportion of female teachers is only 17.5%. This indicates that there is shortage of female teachers in our schools. Hence, the MoE, along with regional education bureaus, should make every effort to solve this shortage, as it has implications on the rate of enrolment of female students. The responses of the sample respondents from education and other social sectors also proved the existence of shortage of female teachers in schools though efforts are being made to increase their number.

- **Percentages of Trained Teachers**

Apart from the number of available teachers in both cycles of primary level, the other important parameter that should be considered is their training. According to the standard set by the

government (MoE), a teacher should be a diploma graduate from a College of Teacher Education (CTE) in order to teach in the first cycle of primary education. Accordingly, those teachers who have graduated from Teacher Training Institutes/TTIs are not considered as qualified to teach at the primary level. Table 28 presents percentages of qualified teachers in primary schools.

*Table 28. Percentages of qualified teachers in primary schools*

| Region | Lower-primary level | Upper-primary level |
|---|---|---|
| National | 15.5% | 77.8% |
| Tigray | 22.1% | 71.3% |
| Afar | 3.8% | 67.9% |
| Amhara | 2.8% | 69.4% |
| Oromia | 19.6% | 80.2% |
| Somali | 52.0% | 27.2% |
| Benishangul-Gumuz | 26.8% | 88.5% |
| SNNPR | 12.5% | 87.3% |
| Gambella | 30.7% | 66.1% |
| Harari | 43.6% | 74.1% |
| Addis Ababa | 45.3% | 80.1% |
| Dire Dawa | 34.9% | 83.3% |

*Source: Education Statistics Annual Abstract, 2002 EFY*

As can be seen from Table 28, the percentage of qualified teachers in the upper-primary level is higher as compare to the lower-primary level across all regions, except in the Somali region. On the other hand, the percentage of qualified teachers at lower-primary education level in the Amhara and Afar regions is much lower as compared to other regions. The data in the table indicate that more attention should be given to the lower-primary level (as it is the base for the next levels of education) so that problems related to inadequacy of teacher training and low quality of teachers/teaching will be solved in a systemic manner.

- **Lack of Capacity to Identify the Needs of Students at Risk of Dropping out**

Though it was difficult to obtain data regarding those students who were at risk of dropping out, the following points were obtained through interviews:

- ✓ There is no pre or in-service training of teachers with respect to identifying and assisting those students who are the potential out-of-school children of tomorrow. Therefore, such trainings should be given to teachers so that those students who are at risk of dropping out will get the necessary support before they drop out.

- ✓ PTAs and clubs have been established in schools to bring those students who have already dropped out back to school and to identify those who are at risk of dropping out and then address their needs before they drop out.

- **Insufficient Provision of Inclusive Education and Teaching Materials**

According to the sample respondents, there is an attempt to introduce inclusive education in Oromia and Addis Ababa but there is no such practice in SNNPR, Afar, Gambella, and Amhara. With regard to the teaching materials, the respondents noted that textbooks are prepared in such a way that they reflect the region's culture, geography and other relevant information. Moreover, they reported that, although teaching in the mother tongue is useful, the commitment on teachers' part to teach in the mother tongue is not up to their expectations.

- **Poor Quality of Schooling and School Organization**

As far as quality of schooling and school organization is concerned, the internal organization of schools in Addis Ababa is relatively more suitable for teaching and learning but school compounds are surrounded by different disrupting things that hinder the teaching-learning process. In the Amhara region schools are somewhat suitable for the teaching-learning process and there is a good practice of teachers in categorizing students into three groups so that more active learners can support the slower ones. Teachers also discuss with parents of students who are at risk of dropping out and, in collaboration with other concerned organizations, they assist them to continue with their education. Apart from this, respondents from all the six regions reported that teachers usually use continuous assessment for the promotion of primary (first cycle) students from class to class.

## 2.5 Governance, Capacity, and Financing Barriers

This section presents evidence related to the governance, capacity, and financial barriers and bottlenecks in Ethiopia based on the 5DEs conceptual framework. The barriers and bottlenecks discussed in this regard include inadequate/weak partnership with CSOs to address the problems of OOSC, education policy tensions between expansion and quality improvement, absence of comprehensive data on the profiles of OOSC, weak school management, and lack of equitable educational financing across regions as presented below.

| Barrier | Factor | Dimension of Exclusion | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | DE1 | DE2 | DE3 | DE4 | DE5 |
| Governance | 1. Inadequate partnership with CSOs to address the problems of OOSC | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| | 2. Education policy tensions between expansion and quality improvement | | √ | √ | | |
| Institutional capacity and effectiveness | 1. Absence of comprehensive data on the profiles of OOSC | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| | 2. Weak school management committees | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |
| Financing | 1. Inequitable resource allocation | √ | √ | √ | √ | √ |

### 2.5.1 Governance Barriers

Ethiopia's political system is based on federalism and decentralization. As a result, there are nine regional states and two city administrations. All offices and bureaus in each region and city administration work independently though they get budgetary support from the federal government. Given the federal nature of the Ethiopian political system, regions and *woreda*'s are the main implementers of the general education component of the education policy. On top of the income they generate from within, regional states receive the necessary budget directly from MoFED and they are free to allocate it within their own set of priorities so as to respond to the needs of their particular circumstances. In order to achieve a coherent implementation of the previous three ESDPs, the federal level MoE has worked closely with the regional education bureaus by providing them with technical guidance for the preparation of the regional plans to engage in joint operational planning and monitoring of the implementation of ESDPs. Moreover, the government has reviewed and improved the guidelines for community participation and school management. In general, the government of Ethiopia has shown its commitment and interest for the expansion of schools and the achievement of MDGs as well as EFA goals (MoE, 2010).

#### i) Inadequate/Weak Partnerships with CSOs to Address Problems of OOSC

Even though the aforementioned government efforts are valuable to enhance the political governance in relation to education and particularly addressing the education demand of OOSC, it is apparent that the government cannot do everything alone. In this respect, it is observed that the government of Ethiopia in general and the MoE in particular is working with different national and international organizations such as UNICEF, UNESCO, WFP, AED, etc. However, the partnership with CSOs is not that much strong. Hence, it is critically important to enhance such partnerships with CSOs, particularly with those organizations that are interested in addressing the problems of OOSC in order to return OOSC back to school and minimize the probability of those in schools from dropping out, thereby meeting the MDGs in 2015.

**ii) Education Policy Tension between Expansion and Quality Improvement**

It is apparent that the government of Ethiopia has built many schools and increased the education coverage at national level. As a result of this, the GER has reached more than 100% while the NER is above 85%. Even though this is an encouraging result, the quality issue should not be seen as second rate. It is clearly observed that the knowledge capacity of students who are promoted from one grade to another or from one level to another is declining from year to year. This issue is frequently raised in different forums and among parents. When education quality is improved, ceteris paribus, the number of OOSC of primary and lower-secondary levels is likely to decrease. Therefore, the Government (MoE) should also pay due attention to maintaining the quality of education.

### 2.5.2 Capacity

Currently, the MoE, REBs, WEOs, and schools are implementing a decentralized system of educational management. Accordingly, important responsibilities have been transferred to the *woreda* education offices, which are expected to exercise their mandate with the support of regional bureaus and within the overall framework of the education system developed at national level. Most of the WEOs, however, do not have the required capacity to fully exercise their responsibilities effectively. School functioning also needs further improvement, particularly concerning the provision of quality education. In addition to this, there is no comprehensive data regarding the profiles of OOSC at all levels of the education system. Since such data are vital to plan and achieve universal primary education (UPE and EFA goals), the EMIS case team, along with the concerned bodies, should revise the existing data collection tools so that the team can garner detailed data on the what and why of OOSC and include the disaggregated data in the educational statistics annual abstracts and other reports.

The other capacity barrier is related to weak school management committees, which were supposed to play an active role in enhancing community participation and strengthening capacity of schools to finance themselves and cover at least their recurrent expenditures. These committees can also contribute their part in reducing the number of students who are at risk of dropping out as well as in returning those children who are already out of school. Hence, school management committees should be strengthened through the provision of trainings as well as technical support.

### 2.5.3 Education Financing

Ethiopia has officially abolished school fees and implemented free primary education since the introduction of the Education and Training Policy of 1994, and it has incorporated this fee-abolition policy into its Poverty Reduction Strategy Program (PRSP) in 2002. The basic reason for the introduction of this policy was to reduce the prevailing high direct cost of education that deters poor households from sending their children to school and to reduce the probability of early dropout. Due to the introduction of this policy, the financial burden of parents has been reduced and this has encouraged them to send their children to school. This in turn has increased

enrolment in primary schools from year to year. When primary school fees are abolished, the government has decided to give block grants to schools in order to replace the forfeited revenue, as shown below:

- Birr 10 for Grades 1-4 (per year/student)
- Birr 15 for Grades 5-8 (per year/student)
- Birr 20 for Grades 9-10 (per year/student)

WEOs cover the capital and the salary component of the education expenditure, whereas the non-salary recurrent expenditure is covered by the schools *per se*. although schools receive block grants and annual budgets from the government, communities are encouraged to cover some of the costs of primary schools. The community can contribute in cash or in kind through the provision of materials or labour, especially during the construction of low-cost classrooms. In general, the education financing system in Ethiopia comprises government direct budget support that includes donors funding, regional states' budget allocation through *woreda*'s to primary schools, and community contribution.

### 2.5.4 Trends in Primary and Lower-Secondary Education Expenditure

The government of Ethiopia has given priority for education and this is revealed by the proportion of the budget allocated to education, as presented in the following table.

*Table 29. Education expenditure/spending*

| **Educational spending, general** | **2010** | **2009** | **2008** | **2007** | **2006** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP | 4.14% | 3.37% | 3.77% | 4.37% | 4.57% |
| Total public expenditure on education as a percentage of total government expenditure | 25.37% | 23.61% | 22.82% | 24.62% | 17.82% |
| Primary education expenditure as a percentage of total government education expenditure | 54.07% | 50.60% | 47.10% | 41.85% | 44.74% |
| **Total public expenditure per student** | | | | | |
| Spending per student as a percentage of GDP per capita - pre-primary | - | - | - | - | - |
| Spending per student as a percentage of GDP per capita - primary | 11.02% | 8.32% | 8.55% | 9.79% | 11.79% |
| Spending per student as a percentage of GDP per capita - secondary | 28.08% | 22.76% | 20.50% | 24.85% | 28.83% |
| Spending per student (PPP US$) - pre-primary | | | | | |
| Spending per student (PPP US$) - primary | 116.00 | 86.63 | 82.34 | 82.97 | 87.49 |
| Spending per student (PPP US$) - secondary | 295.65 | 236.93 | 197.54 | 210.69 | 213.89 |
| **Nature of education expenditure** (in millions) | | | | | |
| Expenditure on salaries, all staff - primary | 7,588.66 | 5,123.23 | 3,086.89 | 2,152.99 | 1,868.20 |
| Expenditure on total recurrent - primary | 7,904.85 | 5,336.70 | 3,225.00 | 2,265.8 | 2,008.80 |
| Expenditure on salaries, all staff - secondary | 1,595.21 | 1,116.49 | 532.94 | 358.19 | 217.69 |
| Expenditure on total recurrent - secondary | 1,833.57 | 1,283.32 | 614.0 | 410.40 | 257.60 |

*Source: MoE/EMIS, 2010*

As indicated in Table 29 above, even though total public expenditure on education declined from 4.57% in 2006 to 3.37% in 2009 , it increased again in 2010 to 4.14%. However, this indicates that it will require exerting much effort to achieve the 2015 target (19.8%) as projected in ESDP IV. Contrary to this, the share of education as a percentage of total public expenditure on education dramatically increased from about one fifth to more than one fourth of total government expenditure during 2006-2010. This shows that the government of Ethiopia has given high priority to education at all levels of the country.

As far as primary education is concerned, the past decade has witnessed a major expansion of the public education system, with primary enrollment rising from less than 5 million to over 15 million. Initial success has been achieved in bringing primary schools closer to where people live, thereby overcoming an important barrier to families' willingness to send their children to school. This massive enrollment compelled the government to allocate a significant amount of budget for primary education. As indicated in Table 29, the share of primary education expenditure as a percentage of total government education expenditure increased from about 45% in 2006 to more than 50% in 2010. With regard to the share of spending per student for primary schools, the expenditure decreased continuously from about 12% in 2006 to 8.32% in 2009, but in 2010 the expenditure increased again to 11.02%. For secondary students a similar declining trend was observed though it changed for the better in 2009 and 2010. This same spending in terms of PPP US$ had a similar trend as it continuously declined from US$ 87.49 to 82.34 in 2008 though it rose again starting from US$ 86.63 in 2009 and reaching US$ 116 in 2010.

The nature of expenditure, on the other hand, shows that staff salary accounts for more than 93% and 85% of the recurrent expenditure of primary and secondary education, respectively. This happened to overcome shortage of teachers that prevailed due to massive enrolment of children at primary school level. As a result of this, the share of non-salary recurrent expenditures had decreased from 7% in 2006 to 4% in 2010. Even though solving the problem of teacher shortage was a positive step to take, it had a negative effect on the provision of textbooks and had suppressed other non-salary operating costs that are essential for the teaching and learning process. As it can be understood, the implication of the reduction of recurrent expenditure is that the quality of education will decline and the dropout rate will increase due to the shortage of textbooks and other necessary teaching materials. This will happen because schools will be compelled to require their students to contribute money so as to cover the cost of uncovered materials. This, in turn, will mean that those children who are unable to contribute the required money will be forced to drop out of school. In fact, the Ethiopian education and training policy clearly states that no student should drop out of school due to inability to contribute money even to purchase the usual uniform. In addition to this, the MoE has set the target of raising non-salary share of recurring expenditure to 23.5% in the 3rd Education Sector Development Program (ESDP III).

So far, we have looked at government budget allocation to education at national level, but in order to have a clearer picture of education financing at country level, it is important to see this budget allocation at regional level.

*Table 30. Education budget, by region (in millions)*

| Region | Primary Education | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 2006 | | | 2007 | | | 2008 | | |
| | Recurrent | Capital | Total | Recurrent | Capital | Total | Recurrent | Capital | Total |
| Tigray | 176.09 | 19.72 | 195.81 | 145.82 | 22.58 | 168.4 | 207.12 | 37.83 | 244.95 |
| Afar | 18.44 | 6.30 | 24.74 | 22.65 | 7.4 | 30.05 | 37.82 | 24.81 | 62.64 |
| Amhara | 447.80 | 60.40 | 508.28 | 516.88 | 19.79 | 536.66 | 815.34 | 49.19 | 864.54 |
| Oromia | 711.48 | 9.98 | 721.47 | 868.09 | 14.17 | 882.26 | 1162.91 | 79.71 | 1242.61 |
| Somali | 3.08 | 4.3 | 7.38 | 7.65 | 21.7 | 28.75 | 5.60 | 6.80 | 12.40 |
| Ben.-Gumuz | 32.94 | 4.32 | 37.27 | 35.59 | 19.07 | 54.65 | 48.56 | 14.31 | 62.88 |
| SNNPR | 449.44 | 36.03 | 485.47 | 490.28 | 82.58 | 572.86 | 701.58 | 31.99 | 733.57 |
| Gambella | 4.94 | 0.53 | 5.47 | 13.08 | 1.40 | 1448 | 29.54 | 1.27 | 30.81 |
| Harrari | 14.26 | 1.73 | 15.99 | 14.14 | 3.62 | 17.75 | 17.72 | 0.34 | 18.05 |
| Addis Ababa | 133.41 | 3.13 | 136.54 | 132.66 | 2.01 | 134.64 | 164.8 | 8.37 | 173.17 |
| Dire Dawa | 16.86 | 1.85 | 18.7 | 19.56 | 0.82 | 20.38 | 33.96 | 2.48 | 36.44 |

*Source: Education Public Expenditure Review, 2010*

Table 30 shows that there was a high discrepancy among regions in the allocation of educational budget. For instance, the relatively more developed regions (Amhara, Oromia, SNNPR and Tigray) and Addis Ababa City Administration had allocated a large amount of budget for primary education, of which the lion's share was allocated for salary. This was due to the large number of children that enrolled in primary schools, which forced them to hire many teachers. On the other hand, in emerging regions like Somali, the capital budget was much higher than the recurrent one. The Afar region had also allocated a relatively big budget for capital expenditure in 2008 compared to that in 2006 and 2007. This implies that these regions are still constructing new schools in order to create more access to education for their population. Since the populations of these regions are mainly pastoralists, the regional education bureaus are required to put more effort into fulfilling the needs of their populations and enable their children to join schools.

In general, except for the differences in amounts, the trend of budget allocation between recurrent and capital budgets is similar. From these data one can conclude that primary education remains the highest priority for the government of Ethiopia both at federal and regional levels and receives the highest share from the total allocated budget. As far as regional spending per student (PPP US$) in primary schools is concerned, the data show that it is very low. In regions where the enrolment is low but the budget allocated is high, the spending per student in Birr as well as PPP in US$ is high, whereas in other regions, particularly in the more developed regions, the spending per student is very low as compared to the spending per student at the national level. This

indicates that at regional level schools are in short of teachers and lack basic supplies that facilitate the teaching and learning process due to shortage of budget. This fact was also revealed at the joint review meeting conducted on ESDP III. According to the report of the review, there were large variations in spending per student at different levels. Spending per student was the lowest in regions in which the education budget share was the highest (Oromia and Amhara).

### 2.5.5 Non-Government Financing (Community Contribution)

As mentioned earlier, community contribution is an important source of finance for schools. Even though data could not be obtained in this regard for this study, the joint review report of ESDP III indicated that the revenue generated by schools was significant compared to regional level budgets (8-10% in Amhara, SNNPR and Oromia) and *woreda* level budgets (e.g. equivalent to 33% of WEO budget in a *woreda* of Oromia region). At school level it is often the same order of magnitude, and in many cases it is greater than the (falling) level of non-salary inputs provided by WEOs. The joint review meeting (JRM) also found significant variations in the level of community contribution among regions and *woreda*'s, and in the schools' ability to raise non-government revenues (e.g. 0.55 Birr per student in a school in Oromia where, in the region as a whole, community contribution is high; but 23.21 Birr per student in a school in Benishangul-Gumuz).

Communities contribute massively to school infrastructure expansion in some regions (less so in the emerging regions); but their inputs and the schools' own revenues are also critical to financing the schools' operating costs. In a number of regions communities also hire teachers (there are rising trends in some *woreda*s in Oromia). This can be cited as evidence for the role of community contribution in reducing the non-recurrent budget constraint to improve the quality of education and the potential dropout rate. Notwithstanding all the above-mentioned remarkable achievements in expansion of schools and increased budget allocation, more than three million children are out of school and others are at risk of joining them.

### 2.5.6 Education Financing Bottlenecks

- **Lack of Equity-Based Budgeting**

The equity issue was also raised during the joint review meeting of ESDP III. In order to address the equity concern, the government has provided school grants to replace fee revenues to finance teaching materials. Moreover, to avoid inequitable budget allocation and resource distribution, WEOs, along with the *woreda* administration and the cabinet, should mobilize their resources to recruit additional teachers. It is clear that the above-mentioned budget inequity will affect the entire dimension of exclusion and out-of-school children. Therefore, when budget equity is considered, it should address the problems of OOSC.

- **Funding Gaps**

It is apparent that the government of Ethiopia cannot afford to solve all financial problems of the education system. This is clearly shown in ESDP IV as 'funding gap'. Therefore, the government should mobilize resources from communities using different modalities, ensuring that such initiation does not bring about burden on the poor, and lobby donor agencies to fill the funding gaps. Moreover, schools should be encouraged to generate their own income through different activities without affecting the teaching and learning process.

## 2.6 Analytical Summary

Education barriers and bottlenecks are expressed in many ways. These barriers and bottlenecks are directly or indirectly related to the demand for and supply of education. The demand for education can be affected by socio-cultural values and economic barriers. On the other hand, the supply of education is affected by the availability of finance to provide physical and human resources.

The socio-cultural demand is expressed in terms of violence against children/gender-based violence, harmful traditional practices, lack of awareness about the ultimate benefit of education, and wrong attitude towards children with disabilities and the future fate of female children. Among these, the major barriers that need the attention of policy makers are violence against children and gender-based violence, wrong attitude towards children with disabilities, and teenage pregnancy because these problems are still pervasive and can be major causes for not attending education regularly and for dropping out of schools.

On the other hand, the economic demand side comprises poverty, the cost-benefit of education, being orphan, seasonal factors, and migration. Among the factors discussed under economic demand side, the major ones that need policy makers' attention are household poverty, being orphan, indirect cost of education, seasonal factors, and child labour.

As far as the supply side is concerned, schools are already expanded and teachers are deployed but other basic services such as textbooks, separate latrines for boys and girls, easily accessible services for children with disabilities, etc. are not fulfilled.

With regard to governance, capacity, and education financing, it is apparent that the government is committed as it has introduced decentralization and devolved power to regional states; it has also expanded schools and increased the annual education budget. Financing education is another important aspect that this study has dealt with. It was observed that the country's education finance was higher by all measures though there is still a fund gap to achieve the MD and EFA goals. However, the existing inadequate partnership with CSOs in addressing problems of OOSC and ensuring the quality of education, absence of comprehensive data on the profiles of OOSC, and inequitable resource allocation are the major barriers that require the attention of policy makers.

# CHAPTER 3: EDUCATION POLICIES AND STRATEGIES

## 3.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews relevant documents such as the Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP), the Education and Training Policy (ETP), the Education Sector Strategy and Education Sector Development Programs (ESDPs) to address the barriers and bottlenecks of OOSC mentioned in Chapter 2. More specifically, the chapter focuses on examining the existence and appropriateness of strategies designed to address each barrier and bottleneck related to socio-cultural demand side, economic demand and supply side, governance, capacity, and financing identified in Chapter 2.

### 3.2 Socio-Cultural Demand Side

As it is discussed in Chapter 2, socio-cultural barriers and bottlenecks include gender-based violence, early marriage, wrong attitude towards children with disabilities, and the like.

| Socio-cultural barriers and bottlenecks | Strategies designed to address barriers and bottlenecks |
|---|---|
| Lack of awareness regarding the benefit of education | Community mobilization through *kebele* and training board members, parent-teacher associations and school committees |
| ▪ Gender-based violence<br>▪ Harmful traditional practices<br>▪ Wrong attitude towards the future fate of female children | Community awareness raising on gender issues using the following strategies:<br>▪ strengthening women's associations and organizations;<br>▪ creating conducive environment for women to actively participate in and benefit from development and governance programs through their associations and organizations; and<br>▪ effectively coordinating women's associations and organizations and all other actors. |
| ▪ Seasonal factors and migration<br>▪ Wrong attitude towards children with disabilities | The following strategies are developed to avoid stigmatizing attitudes towards marginalized children in the community and in the school:<br>▪ Sector plans focusing on marginalized groups;<br>▪ Poverty Reduction Strategy;<br>▪ Gender Education Strategy;<br>▪ Special Needs and Inclusive Education Strategy;<br>▪ Functional Adult Literacy Strategy;<br>▪ Alternative Basic Education Strategy;<br>▪ Early Childhood Care Education Strategy;<br>▪ Strategy for Education for Pastoralist Children; and<br>▪ HIV/AIDS Strategy, which is being finalized. |

### 3.2.1 Community Mobilization and Empowerment Strategies

Ethiopia's education and training policy (1994) calls for greater community engagement at the final, most localized level of the decentralized system and explicitly mandates participation in school operations and management. The policy change began with the 1994 Education Sector Strategy policy of the Transitional Government, which stated: 'Schools will be strongly linked with the community, which will take responsibility in its well-being and upkeep. They will be made to be responsive to the local needs and requirements and shall act as centers for all educational activities of the community. The management of each school will be democratized and run with the participation of the community, the teachers, the students and the relevant government institutions' (Transitional Government of Ethiopia, 1994, pp. 16–17, cited in Jennifer, 2006). The Education Sector Strategy (1994) also states that the participation of the community will be encouraged and enhanced in building schools and providing furniture on a voluntary self-help basis. The participation of the private sector shall be promoted in the provision and assistance of the educational service.

The program action plans of ESDPs I to IV echo this rhetoric and further underline the role of the community in the delivery and management of education. The program action plan of ESDP I gives specific examples of ways in which communities can participate, including "policy formulation, project implementation, and problem solving" as well as "construction of new school buildings…, school maintenance, and mobilization of parents to increase enrollment, especially that of girls" (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, 2002, cited in Jennifer, 2006).

ESDP II also greatly emphasizes the role of communities in helping to fund the education sector program, aiming to have "mechanisms designed so that community [sic] will voluntarily and directly contribute to the financing of education based on its capacity". This strategy also intends to "promote a sense of ownership and thereby raise [the community's] own role in the management of schools" (FDRE, 2002, cited in Jennifer, 2006). The action plan of ESDP III (FDRE, 2005) states that communities and PTAs are playing important roles in all aspects of education from generating resources to managing schools. PTAs are active in raising the awareness of the general community on the benefits of education and in encouraging parents to send their children to school so as to increase access and reduce dropout rates. Financial resources are generated by the community and used to purchase basic equipment and materials and to hire teachers on contractual basis. PTAs are involved in school management, annual plan preparation, and the follow-up of disciplinary cases. Moreover, communities are funding new school buildings, constructing teachers' houses, running non-formal education initiatives, and encouraging girls to go to school and stay in school until they complete a given educational level. However, PTAs and communities still need further capacity enhancement in carrying out quality support to help schools to function as desired.

The action plan of ESDP III (2010) also states that communities have contributed significantly to the development and the expansion of education, especially at primary level, during ESDP III implementation. However, the strong reliance on community involvement also has possible drawbacks. There are risks of increasing disparities, as the poorer communities may be asked to contribute more than they can afford.

It is also planned that during the implementation of ESDP IV, communities will continue to be strongly involved in education, especially at primary level. However, in comparison to ESDP III, some changes are introduced in this phase. Accordingly, community involvement will focus on areas which have less financial implications. This relates in particular to activities to increase enrolment and to decrease early dropout. Several strategies will aim at ensuring that community organizations and PTAs monitor absenteeism of children and intervene quickly to convince parents to continue sending their children to school. The school improvement program, which is one of the components of GEQIP, will involve communities and their representatives and will be guided by supervisors so that they include activities aimed at improving school management and student retention. While communities will be required to continue contributing labour and some finance to school construction, their expected involvement will take into account the level of economic development of each community so as to keep a balance between requested contributions and the potential of the community.

According to the research conducted by IREWOC (2007) in Oromia region, in Borena and Harerghe zones, among the numerous strategies drawn out to address enrolment and retention of children in primary schools are initiatives to enhance community involvement in educational matters, such as School Committees (SC) and Parent-Teacher Associations (PTA).

The findings of qualitative data further revealed that *kebele* and training board members and parent-teacher associations play a great role in mobilizing the community to participate in education. It is also reported that there is a strategy called 'education week' at the beginning of an academic year to mobilize and empower the society for education and enable them to send their children to schools. Respondents from the Afar region also stated that every year there is a community mobilization plan, community conferences (from region to woreda level), awareness creation programs by the ruling political party officials and administrative officials, etc.

### 3.2.2 Community Awareness-Raising on Gender Issues

According to the GTP (2010) document, three key strategies are identified with regard to women's affairs. The first concerns strengthening women's associations and organizations. Secondly, a more conducive environment will be created for women to actively participate in and benefit from development and governance programs through their associations and organizations. Finally, for the participation of and benefits to women to be effective and sustainable, effective coordination of women's associations and organizations and all other actors is critical. In this way, a monitoring mechanism with a clear line of accountability will be established so that

women's affairs are mainstreamed and accordingly executed in all sectors. Implementation strategies for children's affairs focus on preparing and implementing a comprehensive children's policy; promoting community-based care for vulnerable children and children at risk; and taking measures to reduce child abuse in the labour market, sexual assault and child trafficking.

One of UNICEF's CFS (2010) study report claims that during the past two decades, various policy measures and strategies have been taken with a view towards making primary education accessible to all children. The construction of new schools, the adoption of alternative strategies, the provision of free textbooks, the prohibition of school fees, the introduction of mother-tongue education, the elimination of gender stereotypes in textbooks and teacher training systems, awareness-raising campaigns (especially to encourage parents to educate their daughters), and the affirmative action taken to increase the number of female teachers are all examples of the efforts made to ensure the right of all children to primary education.

According to the Ethiopian Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MoFED) Report (2010) on the MDGs, the Government of Ethiopia has declared its commitment to gender equality, equity, and the empowerment of women by stipulating the rights of women in its Constitution, by issuing the Women's Policy of Ethiopia, and by revising the Family Law and the Criminal Law. In 2005, the government upgraded the Office of Women's Affairs in the Prime Minister's office to the level of a full-fledged Ministry of Women's Affairs (MoWA) with the mandate to ensure that due consideration was given to gender issues across all sectoral policies. Efforts continued to firmly establish gender as a cross-cutting issue through joint planning sessions between sectoral line ministries and MoWA. The government has also incorporated gender issues in different national policies including health, education and training; HIV/AIDS; population; and other sector policies. The formulation of the National Action Plan (NAP) on Gender and Development ensures that gender is fully considered and incorporated in all the annual work plans; and the establishment of a gender focal person in each of the regional bureaus is evidence of the government's commitment to gender equality.

The MoFED report also states that PASDEP has also recognized addressing gender issues as one of its eight pillars. To this effect, PASDEP outlines the following strategic measures: increasing girls' and women's access to education, improving water supply and sanitation as well as health services, and adapting agricultural training to the needs of women. Besides, safeguarding rights such as access to land and credit, and increasing the number of women that benefit from government programs such as the construction of low-cost houses in urban areas and the encouragement of micro and small scale enterprises are essential parts of the PASDEP strategy. Measures are also taken to reduce violence against women, including the enactment of protective legislations. In connection to this, a new Penal Code has been adopted, which contains strong measures in support of women's rights and curbing gender-based violence.

The qualitative survey conducted in Oromia and SNNP regions also indicates that girls' advisory committees in schools, community radios, the Women's Affairs Policy, etc. have contributed a lot in raising awareness on gender issues. Moreover, key informants from the Addis Ababa City Administration reported that the Gender Department in education bureaus plays a great role in creating awareness on gender issues. Similarly, respondents from the Amhara region reported that girls' clubs in schools play an important role in creating awareness on gender issues.

### 3.2.3 Addressing Stigmatizing Attitudes towards Marginalized Children in the Community and in the School

UNICEF's (2010) child-friendly-schools case study states that the MoE has developed a strategy for special needs education. Accordingly, all regions have attempted to include special needs education in their ESDPs, and some schools have already started to collect information with regard to children with special needs to encourage their enrolment. The research findings also indicate that there are colleges of teacher education that have opened special needs education departments.

However, ESDP IV (2010) states that, notwithstanding the significant progress in access and the improvements in some equity indicators (e.g. gender parity index in primary education), participation levels at the primary level remain much lower in some of the emerging regions and among pastoralist and semi-pastoralist groups. Overall, about three million primary school-age children are out of school in the country. ESDP IV addresses the need to design specific strategies to reach the millions of out-of-school children in the pastoralist regions and disadvantaged communities.

On the other hand, according to an undated pastoralist education research report, the major favorable conditions available for the expansion of education in pastoralist areas include:

- the implementation of a decentralized administrative and education system at the *wereda* level and the consequent reduction of the bureaucratic ups and downs; the acceleration of the decision-making process, the harmonization between government- and non-government-led development projects as well as the enhancement of community participation and a sense of ownership in developmental activities;
- the availability of clear policy directions and strategies for socio-economic development at the federal government level;
- the establishment of a federal, special support board composed of sector ministries including the Ministry of Education, a corresponding technical committee composed of experts drawn from sector ministries and sections within sector ministries that are responsible for providing special support to pastoralist and agro-pastoralist regions in their respective sectors including the education sector;

- the commencement of inter-regional cooperation in which pastoralist and agro-pastoralist regions receive support and benefit from the experiences of neighboring regions in various development sectors including the education sector;
- the designing and endorsement of five-year strategic plans in various development sectors including the education sector by pastoralist regions; and
- the presence of conducive policy directions that encourage local and international NGOs to be engaged in pastoralist education along with the government.

The strategies that are put in place to make primary education accessible to children in pastoralist areas include: using a variety of educational modalities (Alternative Basic Education, mobile schools, para-boarding schools, hostels, and formal primary schools), using a flexible academic calendar, addressing cultural barriers and wrong attitudes, and addressing environmental and economic constraints related to dropping out of school. A brief description of each of these strategies is presented below.

- Using a Variety of Educational Modalities
  - ✓ **Alternative Basic Education**: According to the ABE guideline (2009), targets of the ABE program are school-age children identified to be enrolled or already enrolled in the program. It includes the following categories of children (boys and girls) between the ages of 7 and 14 in rural and urban settings. The target children are those who:
    - do not have any chance of access to any other mode of education;
    - have special needs of education that prevent them from access to formal schools;
    - have access to education but are denied attendances by parents or guardians because of lack of awareness about the value of educating their children;
    - are denied access to education because parents or guardians require their labour;
    - act as income earners because their parents are not able to work due to old age or HIV/AIDS or poverty;
    - have lost their parents (are orphans), OVCs in wider terms;
    - live in single-household-headed (father or mother) families;
    - support themselves (and/or siblings) for survival;
    - are members of pastoral and semi-pastoral communities; and
    - have dropped out of the formal school system before completing Grade 4.
  - ✓ **Mobile Schools:** Provide alternative basic education through mobile schools (easily moveable tents and simple structures that can provide shelter, flexible blackboards, mats, etc.) in areas where the duration of mobility of communities in a year is more than 4 months;
  - ✓ **Para-boarding Schools:** Establish low-cost para-boarding schools that are in harmony with the life condition of pastoralists and in which the community makes active

participation in terms of providing locally-available building materials and labour as well as managing the schools, for second-cycle primary education (priority should be given to female students in cases of capacity limitation for admission);

- ✓ **Hostels:** Enable pastoralist children and youth who reside in areas where there are no second-cycle primary schools to continue their education by building low-cost hostels for them in areas where the schools are available; and
- ✓ **Formal Primary Schools:** Build low-cost formal primary schools in areas where settlement is sedentary and the size of population is sufficiently large.

- **Using a Flexible Academic Calendar**

The ABE guideline (2009) document states that parents in rural and urban areas require their children to engage in income-generating activities to support families' subsistence. Some are affected by seasonal migration, others by seasonal upsurges of survival activities that require the input of the children. Thus, ABE has to be flexible enough to respond to the different needs of the learners and parents who are influenced by ways of life and challenges at different times in local conditions. That is, class times are set by the community. Some classes are taught on Saturdays, and the ABE school year is sometimes longer than the regular school year in order to make sure that children have time both to attend school and to help with family chores. In this context, the flexible academic calendar enables parents to send their children to ABE centres while they can still contribute to family needs during the rest of the day.

- **Addressing Cultural Barriers and Wrong Community Attitudes**
  - ✓ raise the awareness of pastoral communities on such pertinent issues as gender roles, harmful traditional practices, early marriage, the value of secular education and co-education through continuous workshops, adult education programs, local radio programs, etc.;
  - ✓ mobilize the community at large to the attainment of the goal of universal primary education in pastoralist areas; and
  - ✓ utilize religious, political and community leaders as entry points to achieve the above-stated goals.

- **Addressing Environmental and Economic Constraints Related to Dropping out of School**
  - ✓ make water sources available at school/center sites;
  - ✓ provide separate latrines for boys and girls;
  - ✓ provide various types of support (stationeries, textbooks, clothing, etc.) to students, particularly female students who have difficulty to pursue their education because of abject poverty;

- ✓ expand school-feeding programs in areas of acute food shortage, alongside with government endeavors to make the community self-sufficient in food production, to deter students from dropping out of school while taking care that this does not lead to dependency syndromes; and
- ✓ promote conflict resolution and peace education.

### 3.2.4 Partnerships with Religious and Civil Society Organizations

The Education and Training Policy (1994) states that the government will create the necessary conditions to encourage and give support to private investors to open schools and establish various educational and training institutions.

According to the CfBT Education Trust (2008) survey report, a key element or requirement to ensure success in the implementation of the ESDP targets is the need to rethink and reformulate ways and means of financing education and to find a mix of public financing, private resources and direct contributions from firms, associations and individuals. The study report states that Ethiopia needs to be prepared to allow a greater scope for the private supply of education and training. This is also reflected in the overall strategy of ESDP II, which states: *"Therefore, to implement the program at a possible lower cost, the community and NGOs shall be encouraged to stand by the side of the government."*

The CfBT Education Trust study report further proposed the following seven specific recommendations for possible consideration to increase the role of the partnership:

- review all private school regulations, with a view to relaxing or abolishing those that are unnecessary to meet educational or other objectives;
- streamline the current land-zoning requirements to facilitate the establishment of private schools and allow private providers greater access to public land to establish private schools;
- include Non-State Providers (NSP), on a pilot basis, on a formula-driven, student-based funding system, with funding targeted on factors such as grade level and socio-economic status;
- improve the investment environment for private schools by instituting a program of soft loans to prospective private school operators who meet certain quality standards;
- establish a private education Task Force, comprising members from the public and private sectors and mandate this Task Force to prepare an innovative private education development strategy and policy investment framework;
- support the establishment of (an) association(s) to represent non-government schools; and
- consider the establishment of co-ordination committees within the central and regional education public sector departments that have responsibility for liaison with NSPs.

The data collected from the sample regions (Addis Ababa, Afar, Amhara, Gambella, Oromia and SNNP) also confirm that there is no clear policy about the partnership with religious and civil society organizations. But there are many NGOs and religious organizations that participate in pre-primary education. Civil society organizations such as youth and women's associations also play a great role in the education sector to increase access and equity.

### 3.2.5 Addressing Opportunity Costs, Especially for Working Children

According to a research report (Tasew *et al.*, 2006), although increasing educational access for all has been broadly successful, children from poor and/or highly indebted families still face significant constraints because they have to contribute to household survival through paid and unpaid work. It is, therefore, necessary to increase efforts to improve the livelihood options of the poor, including greater income-generation opportunities, particularly in rural areas and for women. The research survey finding conducted by People In Need - Ethiopia (PIN, 2009) also indicates that particularly children in rural areas work in farms either independently or to support their parents regardless of their sex.

## 3.3 Economic Demand Side

The barriers and bottlenecks, along with the corresponding strategies, are summarized as follows:

| **Economic barriers and bottlenecks** | **Strategies to address barriers and bottlenecks** |
|---|---|
| ▪ Household poverty<br>▪ Being orphan | Abolishing school fees and reducing indirect costs<br>▪ creating income-generating opportunities for women simultaneously accompanied by *community childcare systems* in order to prevent older children from shouldering their mothers' childcare burden; and<br>▪ making targeted interventions such as scholarships for girls, take-home food rations, girls' clubs in all schools, separate latrines for boys and girls, more gender-sensitive curriculum and teaching materials, a gender mainstreaming strategy, tutorial programs and affirmative actions, and girls' education forum by stakeholders. |

### 3.3.1 Abolishing School Fees and Reducing Indirect Costs

Ethiopia has implemented a free primary education policy as of 1994. The high direct cost of education to parents has been a reason for poor children not to enter school or to drop out early. Where schools/*woreda*'s/regions decide to levy fees in a form of community contribution, they will need to ensure that arrangements are in place so that no child is excluded from school because of inability to pay (ESDP IV, 2010).

According to Devereux (2006), in the Somali region costs of education are relatively low, but they are higher for formal schooling than for Koranic schools. Government schools are not supposed to charge fees, but parents in Jijiga town noted that they have to pay several indirect costs to send a child to school - registration fee, uniform, books - while the Koranic school charges only a nominal tuition fee. The estimated cost of sending a child to primary school in Jijiga is 125–175 Birr per term, while sending a child to a Koranic school costs just 15 Birr. Even where no fees are required, many parents cannot afford to send their children to school because the non-fee costs are too high. It is clear that this has an impact on student enrolment. GER and NER in the Somali region is low compared to that of other regions. To increase enrolment of children in this region support should be provided in all aspects.

Nowadays, girls' clubs and/or girls' education advisory committees are organized and work in many schools in Ethiopia. These programs are supported by different NGOs. The establishment of girls' clubs and the availability of separate latrines have had an impact on girls' enrolment, attendance and transition. Building separate latrines is also supported by the GEQIP program. There is a school grant which enables schools to use the grant to build latrines.

### 3.3.2 Targeted interventions to disadvantaged children

According to a document entitled 'Reaching the Marginalized: Reflections from Ethiopia' (MoE, n.d), there is a progress in getting and keeping girls into school. That is, there are girls' clubs in all schools; there are separate latrines for boys and girls; female scholarships are given for the needy and the high achievers; there are more gender-sensitive curriculums and teaching materials; there is a gender-mainstreaming strategy; there is a girls' education forum organized by stakeholders; there are tutorial programs; and affirmative actions are being taken.

The 1994 Education and Training Policy clearly states that scholarships will be given to deserving (outstanding) students. The field survey findings from the Afar, Oromia and SNNP regions also indicated that there is a policy regarding scholarships for girls, take-home food rations, etc. The respondents from these regions mentioned that there are some local and international NGOs such as UNICEF, WFP, PACT/Ethiopia, etc. that support girls to continue their education. The respondents from Gambella also reported that some students get scholarships from UNICEF to enable them to continue their education.

## 3.4 Supply Side

The barriers and bottlenecks, along with the corresponding strategies, are summarized as follows:

| **Supply side barriers** | **Strategies to address the barriers and bottlenecks** |
|---|---|
| Remoteness of schools/Average distance from school to home and the availability of classrooms | increasing the number of primary schools and ABECs; |
| Lack of appropriate school infrastructure, drinking water and sanitary facilities | implementing the WASH project; |
| Shortage of teachers | increasing teacher supply, reducing class size, increasing female participation in teaching; and |
| Shortage of textbooks and teaching materials | providing, under GEQIP, special support to the development and supply of textbooks and teaching materials. |

### 3.4.1 Increasing the Number of Primary Schools and ABECs

According to ESDP IV (2010), the first set of strategies include increasing the number of primary schools with special emphasis on reducing the distance between schools and pupils' homes, particularly at second cycle primary level, transforming the existing ABECs into regular schools, and establishing more ABE centers when and wherever necessary. ABECs are considered a temporary solution to providing access for hard-to-reach children. The strategy is to phase out ABECs and use other solutions to address those children who still cannot access formal schooling for a variety of reasons.

### 3.4.2 School Infrastructure: Improving School Facilities; Water and Sanitation; Adaptations for Children with Disabilities

The Education Statistics Annual Abstract (MoE, 2009/10) indicates that 26.5% of primary schools (Grades 1-8) use a shift system; 37.4% (10,070) of primary schools have water facilities and some schools have two sources of water; more than 90% of all schools have latrines; of all schools, 14.5% have clinics for students; 50.7% of the primary schools have pedagogical centers that teachers use for producing teaching aids, and 37.3% of all primary schools have library facilities. Regarding secondary schools (Grades 9-12), 34.9% of them have reported that they use the shift system; 69.9% (947) of secondary schools have water facilities; all secondary schools have latrines; 33.4% (452) of them have clinics serving students; 86.42% (1171) of them have library facilities, and 74.0% have electricity.

According to ESDP IV (2010), the status of water, sanitation and hygiene services in schools is a major problem in many countries, contributing to high disease prevalence, poor learning environments and impacting on girls' education. Children should be seen as agents of change for the WASH (water, sanitation & hygiene) project within their schools, communities and homes. Water supply and sanitation facilities in schools, coupled with the promotion of hygiene, have a great influence on the quality of education. The Education Statistics Annual Abstract shows only the latrine and water supply coverage in primary schools. However, the abstract doesn't show the functionality or level of service provided by the schemes.

The implementation of the WASH project will definitely contribute to the improvement of the water supply, sanitation and hygiene situation of schools, thereby improving educational access, equity, efficiency and quality and accelerating the attainment of the Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP). This, in turn, greatly contributes to reducing child and maternal morbidity and mortality arising from poor water, sanitation and hygiene services. The intervention directly helps to achieve the water and sanitation MDGs, which aim to halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation, which is vital in itself but also a key prerequisite for reducing child and maternal mortality (MDGs 4 & 5) and combating major communicable diseases (MDG 6).

As indicated in the Education and Training Policy (1994), special needs education and training will be provided for people with special needs. A special needs education strategy has also been developed by the MoE. However, the following main challenges are listed in ESDP IV:

- The drinking water coverage at primary school is estimated to be 32.3%, which is very low compared to the national one.
- The quantity of water in schools, where there is a supply, was found to be inadequate, not satisfying even the minimum needs, at least, of 5 liters per day per capita.
- The physical accessibility of water sources is a concern as about 50% of schools were within more than 1 km of travel time.
- The latrine coverage for primary school is 90.6% and predominated by traditional pit latrines. The overall latrine seat to student ratio is 1:170, which is low and discourages the actual use of latrines; the physical structure of latrines was not acceptable as it did not fulfill the required standard to maintain privacy and safety. standing
- Separate latrines by standing-alone blocks are very limited, in which case girls are forced to use the same block as boys.
- Hand-washing facilities, including water and soap, are not available in schools.

### 3.4.3 Teacher Supply: Increasing Teacher Supply, Reducing Class Size, and Increasing Female Participation in Teaching

According to the GTP (2010) document, the qualification of teachers at every stage and for every type of education will be upgraded as described in the teacher development blue book through pre-service, in-service and continuous professional development schemes.

Ethiopia: 2010 MDGs Report states that there is an overall increase in the enrollment ratios in Ethiopia though this seems to come at the expense of educational quality. Given the importance of education in indirectly addressing the other development goals, the issue of quality is of paramount importance. Towards this end, the GoE initiated a General Education Quality Improvement Program (GEQIP), which is being implemented starting from 2009. This included upgrading the quality of teachers and increasing the number of teachers through on-the-job training and summer training, as well as reducing the pupil-to-teacher and pupil-to-textbook ratios.

The Education and Training Policy (1994) shows that teachers at all levels (from kindergarten to higher education) will be required to have the necessary teaching qualification and competency in the media of instruction through pre-service and in-service training. It also states that special attention will be given to the participation of women in the recruitment, training and assignment of teachers.

The new initiative of the Ministry of Education, i.e., the General Education Quality Improvement Program (GEQIP), particularly the Teacher Development Program (TDP) and the Management, Administration and Planning (MAP) initiative, focus on improving the professional capacity of teachers and education leaders.

However, as the government strives to expand education, it also faces the challenge of ensuring quality. Currently, the traditional lecture method, in which teachers talk and students listen, dominates most classrooms. The common obstacles to the employment of innovative methods of teaching, as found out by one study, are: the Ethiopian tradition of teaching and child upbringing, lack of institutional support, lack of learning resources, teachers' lack of expertise, inappropriate curricular materials, and students' lack of prior experience to actively participate in the teaching and learning process (Derebssa, n.d).

The Education Sector Strategy (1994) states that the training and professional competence of teachers shall be upgraded with the view to improving the quality and standard of education. To this end, the teacher training program and curriculum will be made relevant to the new educational objectives and responsive to the different curricula of general education. Teacher training institutions shall also be upgraded, diversified and expanded in line with the requirements of the new educational system and services. That is, an expanded program of in-service training will be instituted in order to continuously upgrade the level and qualifications of teachers.

However, education officers that have participated in the focus group discussion and interview reported that pre- and in-service teacher trainings are not aimed at assisting students at risk of dropping out. But at school level, teachers are provided orientation on how to support such students. It is reported that there is no clear structure and policy that supports teachers to address the needs of such students.

### 3.4.4 Textbooks and Teaching/Learning Materials

The GEQIP (2008) document states that in the context of available resources and capacity, priority will be given (in that order) to: the development and provision of textbooks and teachers' guides for Grades 9-12 in mathematics, biology, chemistry, and physics, which national and international publishers can readily adapt from their market-tested series; the provision of Grades 9-12 textbooks and teachers' guides in the other subjects; and the provision of textbooks and teachers' guides for Grades 1-8. Where the required quantities are small, as in cases of books for certain languages of instruction at the primary level, the project would seek alternative methods of provision, including negotiation with contracted publishers for translation and publication in those languages. The acquisition of books would be made using open and competitive procurement procedures. The books would be delivered to MoE-designated *woreda*'s.

## 3.5 Management and Governance

### 3.5.1 Accelerating and Scaling up Successful Pilots

According to the GTP (2010) document, the implementation of best practices referred to in the GEQIP will be scaled up in every school. Scaling up of education quality will be encouraged by building communities' sense of ownership of educational quality by initiating integrated community mobilization, at all levels, using every media.

Alternative modes of education delivery to be scaled up include: rapid scaling up of Alternative Basic Education Centers for pastoralists; flexible academic calendars; relevant and compressed curriculums; mother tongue education; recruitment of facilitators from the localities; mobile schools for pastoralists; girls' hostels in towns for those girls coming from rural areas; and special schools for children with special needs whenever necessary.

### 3.5.2 Provision of Mixed and Inter-sectoral Packages

One of the sub-components of GEQIP is Program Coordination. GEQIP is implemented at the federal, regional and *woreda* levels as well as at the participating public universities and teacher training institutions that are responsible for pre-service and in-service teacher development programs. It is coordinated by the Ministry of Education. At the federal level, the Planning and Policy Analysis Department of the MoE will coordinate the implementation of the GEQIP, reporting directly to the State Minister for General Education, with inputs from relevant departments and institutions.

The technical support for implementation includes a team of short- and long-term consultants, specializing in project implementation (including project management, financial management, procurement, and monitoring & evaluation. The team residents in the MoE and provides regular support to regions. The MoE will play a key role in technical and procurement aspects of the project, whereas MoFED will be responsible for financial management aspects. At the regional level, it was agreed that each region will have similar institutional arrangements as at the federal level, and the Planning Department of the REB in each region will coordinate the implementation of the regional GEQIP, reporting directly to the Head of the REB. Funds would flow from MoFED to BoFED to WFED as directed and then directly to the implementing institutions (i.e., Colleges of Teacher Education and schools) while keeping the REBs informed about the transactions (GEQIP, 2009).

### 3.5.3 Development of Institutional Arrangements and Technical Capacity within the Ministry of Education to Address the Needs of the Excluded

As indicated in one official document entitled *Reaching the Marginalized: Reflections from Ethiopia* (MoE, n.d), the Ethiopian government has developed the following policies and strategies to address the marginalized community and children. There are sectoral plans focusing on marginalized groups: Poverty Reduction Strategy; Gender Education Strategy; Policy and Strategy on Special Needs and Inclusive Education; Functional Adult Literacy Strategy, Framework, Implementation Guideline and Ten Years' Master Plan; Alternative Basic Education Strategy; Early Childhood Care and Education Strategy; Strategy for Education for Pastoralist Children; and HIV/AIDS Strategy. Besides, the following activities are carried out: the Special Support and Inclusive Education Department has been set up in the Federal Ministry of Education; special needs children have been mainstreamed into formal schools; learning materials, e.g. free textbooks, have been provided; plans for special needs expertise have been put in place; there are school-feeding programs in drought-affected areas; there are boarding schools for girls in Afar and Benishangul-Gumuz; and teachers are being trained (1st, 2nd & terminal degree programs for Special Needs Education Instructors).

### 3.5.4 Development of Effective Regulations and Monitoring Mechanisms Affecting the Children's Timely Access and Transitions

GEQIP also has a Monitoring and Evaluation (M&E) sub-component. This sub-component supports the establishment of a robust M&E system at the federal, regional and *woreda* levels to monitor and evaluate project outcomes and broader educational trends to provide feedback and improve performance. Most of the data for monitoring project outcomes will come from existing sources such as EMIS, or regular project reports, supplemented by project preparatory studies and a baseline survey undertaken prior to implementation.

It is stated in the GEQIP document that in Ethiopia the management and financing of primary and secondary education is the responsibility of regions and *woreda*'s based on the national policy

and standards developed and approved by the Ministry of Education. However, some regional and *woreda* governments have weak capacity to gather and report on key performance indicators on time in order to manage and monitor the implementation of education reforms effectively. The key issues related to policy making, management and monitoring capacity include: (i) weak institutional capacity for the delivery of general education, which hampers the implementation of a consistent and effective education policy; (ii) inadequate strategic planning and management capacity to support tasks such as policy development and medium- to long-term planning; and (iii) limited monitoring and evaluation systems, which makes the reform process difficult to operationalize. Compounding these capacity gaps is the constant turnover of key staff in the sector at different levels of the system, as well as the insufficient number of qualified staff.

### 3.5.5 Developing Capacities in Policy Analysis and Building Effective Data and Monitoring Systems

According to the GTP (2010), to ensure quality and efficiency of general education, capacity development activities will be undertaken to enhance the performance of leaders and implementers to the standard indicated in GEQIP, at all levels.

CfBT Education Trust (2008) states that capacity building for planning, management, monitoring and evaluation is vital, particularly in the *woreda*'s, which lack planning and management capacity or the skills to interpret policies and collect and analyze data, and indeed they are often seriously under-staffed.

### 3.5.6 Developing Accountability Structures

The Education Sector Strategy (1994) states that the administration of elementary and secondary education and training shall be decentralized in line with the ongoing rationalization process. Schools will be strongly linked with the community, which will take responsibility for its well-being and upkeep. They will be made responsive to the local needs and requirements and shall act as centers for all educational activities of the community. The management of each school will be democratized and run with the participation of the community, the teachers, the students and the relevant government institutions.

It is also indicated in the CfBT Education Trust (2008) document that the decentralization policy is not only a reflection of the cultural diversity of the country's ethnic groups but it also acknowledges the practical difficulties inherent in administering an education sector in a populous and geographically large country with sometimes unreliable communications facilities. The relationship between the centre and the regions is not hierarchical, as the federal MoE does not have line authority over the REBs. Perhaps the highest profile indicator of the drive for localization of education has been the policy of providing education to children in their early years in their own languages. This policy has, in spite of inevitable practical difficulties, demonstrated the government's commitment to democratic educational structures.

### 3.5.7 Local Support to Schools (School Grants)

The GEQIP document points out that the provision of school grants already exists in Ethiopia. The MoE bluebook also specifies the amount that schools should receive: 10 Birr per year for every Grade-1-to-4 child that is enrolled in school, 15 Birr per year for every Grade-5-to-8 child, 20 Birr per year for every Grade 9-to-10 child, and 50 Birr per year for every Grade 11-to-12 child (see JRM, 2006; MoE, 2008). In addition, several development partners (e.g., USAID) have also provided school grants to some regions, but often using guidelines that are inconsistent from one program to another and not aligned with the government's existing school-grant programs. However, the use of the grant policy varies considerably across the country.

The grant will be used to finance elements of the School Improvement Program (SIP). To assist with the implementation of the school-grant sub-component, the School Grants Guidelines (SGGs) have been developed. These guidelines provide guidance on all aspects of implementation at federal, regional, *woreda* and school/community levels and are cross-referenced with the SIP guidelines. The SGGs document is consistent with the government's bluebook guidelines document, but it will be implemented as a stand-alone document to ensure that key responsibilities and outputs are understood at different levels.

According to the MoE bluebook guidelines, *woreda*'s are expected to provide an unspecified block grant to schools to cover non-salary costs. The 2006 JRM Report further indicated that if schools received this grant at all, it is typically below the amount stipulated in the guidelines.

### 3.5.8 Participatory Management Mechanisms in and around Schools

The 1994 Education and Training Policy states that educational institutions will be autonomous in their internal administration and in the design and implementation of education and training programs, with an overall coordination and democratic leadership by boards or committees, consisting of members from the community (society), development and research institutions, teachers, and students. However, one of the sample respondents from Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau remarked that some school principals are not assigned to the position by their merit/performance. This kind of assignment will create problems in running schools smoothly and efficiently since such school principals do not focus on instructional leadership issues.

## 3.6 Budgeting and Finance

### 3.6.1 Budgetary Allocations to Education

The Education Sector Strategy (1994) states that the financing of the educational system shall be improved by increasing the government budget allocation, particularly for infrastructure building and provision of educational materials. The focus will be on elementary and secondary education.

According to the GEQIP document, in Ethiopia the regions and *woreda*'s are responsible for providing primary and secondary education. In 2006/07, 31.9 percent of regional spending focused on the education sector. Since 2004, the amount of money spent on education at the regional and *woreda* levels has increased at an average rate of over 24 percent per year. Within this allocation, primary education has accounted for over 73 percent of the total expenditure.

The majority of regional and *woreda* level financing for education is spent on recurrent costs. In 2006/07 recurrent expenditure accounted for 90 percent of the expenditure, with only 10 percent going to capital expenditure. Of the recurrent expenditure, the majority is spent on teachers' salary. Only about 6 percent of *woreda* recurrent budget was available for quality interventions and operating expenditures in 2006/07, and the figure has been falling below the Fast Track Initiative (FTI) benchmark for recurrent non-salary expenditure, which is 33 percent.

### 3.6.2 Effective Use of Resources for Reaching the Poor, including within Resource-Constrained Environments

As indicated in the 1994 Education and Training Policy, special financial assistance will be given to those who have been deprived of educational opportunities, and steps will be taken to raise the educational participation of deprived regions.

The GEQIP document also states that the Teaching and Learning Materials sub-component of GEQIP supports the provision of educational materials. In the context of available resources and capacity, priority will be given to the development and provision of textbooks and teachers' guides for Grades 9-12 in Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, and Physics, which national and international publishers can readily adapt from their market-tested series; the provision of Grades 9-12 textbooks and teachers' guides in the other subjects; and the provision of textbooks and teachers' guides for Grades 1-8. Where the required quantities are small - as in the case of books for certain languages of instruction at the primary level - the project will seek alternative methods of provision including negotiation with contracted publishers for translation and publication in those languages.

According to the CfBT Education Trust (2008), it is generally agreed that there has been a deterioration of quality in education as a result of the rapid rise in enrolments. The three *National Learning Assessments (NLAs)* conducted in ESDP I and EDP II (2000, 2004 and 2007) revealed low student achievement, which was attributed to overcrowded classrooms and the poor quality of textbooks, as well as the absence of teachers' guides and, hence, inappropriate use of textbooks by teachers. ESDP II revealed serious under-investment in teaching and learning materials, and demonstrated that a lack of adequate textbook management systems had resulted in inefficient ordering and distribution of textbooks.

Great steps forward have already been taken through ESDP I, ESDP II and ESDP III, with emphasis upon ministerial capacity building and improvements in the provision of textbooks and learning materials. And these steps are expected to accelerate the reform process.

## 3.7 Analytical Summary

From the survey conducted in the sample regions and the analysis of policy documents, it is possible to provide the following summary regarding the policies and strategies of education of the country.

The issue of out-of-school children (OOSC) in terms of the five dimensions of exclusion (5DEs) is not emphasized in the existing policies and strategies of the Ethiopian education system. Even the recently launched Education Sector Development Program (ESDP IV) does not consider particularly Dimension 4 (children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out) and Dimension 5 (children who are in lower-secondary school but at risk of dropping out) as one of the challenges of the education system, though it discusses in detail the issue of improving equity and access in general education. Though the country has had its own education and training policy since 1994, it lacks educational law which serves to enforce education-related policies, standards, rights, authority, responsibility and accountability of all stakeholders. Although Building Code No. 24/2009 has been put in place recently, the construction of schools does not still take into consideration the needs of children with disabilities.

Despite the rapid expansion of the education system, Ethiopia's education sector faces the following four key challenges (World Bank, 2005; cited in GEQIP): a) access to education opportunities continues to be an obstacle, especially for females and other "most vulnerable children'' (UNICEF, 2008; cited in GEQIP), poor students, and pastoral areas (e.g., Somali and Afar); b) inequities in access to quality education are widespread, as better-resourced schools are generally located in urban areas and in the non-emerging regions; c) there are socio-cultural barriers to participation (especially for girls in rural areas); and d) there are financial constraints with households paying a large share of non-salary recurrent education expenditures.

Similarly, the ESDP IV (2010) document states that, notwithstanding the significant progress in access and the improvements in some equity indicators (e.g., gender parity index in primary education), participation rates at primary level remain much lower in some of the emerging regions and among pastoralist and semi-pastoralist groups. Overall, about three million primary school-age children are out of school in the country. Rural populations in general face serious accessibility constraints at secondary level. Alternative Basic Education has developed rapidly and has helped increase enrolment but problems of low quality and of transition between Alternative Basic Education and the formal school system still prevail. These problems need to be addressed in order for Ethiopia to achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) and to work towards the universalization of secondary education, which are the foundation on which to build a competitive economy and a society characterized by justice and fairness.

As suggested in the ESDP IV document, strategies to increase quantitative supply include those aimed at further developing the formal school system. These are: a) transforming the existing ABE centers to formal/regular schools in the relatively densely populated areas of pastoral/agro-

pastoral regions; b) constructing new schools, especially second cycle primary schools; and c) expanding the existing primary schools – by constructing new classrooms. Some strategies that have the objective to further develop alternative models include establishing new/more ABE centers and introducing or strengthening the alternative education modalities such as mobile schools, multi-grade classes, and para-boarding schools for second cycle primary schools.

It is also important to note that the quality of education in the emerging regions can improve through: a) providing learning materials (such as exercise-books, pens, pencils) and uniforms for the needy students, and b) upgrading academic and professional facilitators. Strategies to incite more demand for education will include strengthening and/or introducing special support programs such as school feeding and scholarship programs, with special attention to the indigenous children, girls and the vulnerable children. Finally, some strategies focus on strengthening the management of the education system through capacity building of officials and professionals at different levels of the education structure, and through developing and implementing different implementation manuals and standards of alternative educational modalities.

The 1994 Education and Training Policy of Ethiopia states the commitment of the government to offer special support to the marginalized areas that were deprived of education services in the past. However, realizing an equitable provision of quality education services in the pastoral or semi-pastoral and emerging regions (namely, Somali, Afar, Gambella and Benishangul Gumuz) has remained challenging because of the socio-economic problems that emanated from a long period of neglect and marginalization and the natural environment they inhabit. Pastoralists have been leading a mobile lifestyle because of the absence of basic infrastructures and social services (including education and health), frequent drought, poverty, lack of water and pasture, etc. It is difficult, if not impossible, to satisfy the educational needs of pastoralists by using conventional ways of schooling as the sole means of education delivery. Therefore, it is necessary to develop and put into effect the alternative strategies discussed in this chapter so as to satisfy the education needs of these regions and, thereby, enable our country achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) by 2015.

# CHAPTER 4: SOCIAL PROTECTION SYSTEMS IN ETHIOPIA

## 4.1 Introduction

This section of the report focuses on the analysis of social-protection-related interventions existing in the education sector and beyond that would contribute to mitigating problems of out-of-school children in the country. The section also attempts to assess the progress made in the provision of social protection both by the government and non-governmental organizations, and to identify the limitations of these interventions. The status of coordination and multi-sectoral participation in the implementation of the available programs are also areas of concern in the analysis.

According to Devereux and Sabates-wheeler (2004), cited in UNICEF (2008), social-protection interventions can be broadly categorized into four: protective, preventive, promotive and transformative measures/programs. A brief description of what these four programs intend to address is presented hereunder.

**Protective programs** refer to programs put in place to offer relief from socio-economic deprivations, including social assistance for the most vulnerable, mainly for those who are not in a position to earn their livelihood. These types of intervention include targeted resource transfer schemes and social service schemes for those who are in dire need of special care and protection.

**Preventive programs** refer to programs put in place before the occurrence of the shock to avert deprivations, and also to mitigate the impact of an adverse shock. These are programs designed to assist those people who have fallen or might fall into poverty so that they may be able to manage their livelihood shock. These types of intervention include social insurance for economically vulnerable groups and non-contributory pension schemes.

**Promotive programs** aim at enhancing income and capabilities which can be achieved through capacity building schemes like targeted skill training at household or individual levels for the poor and marginalized sections of society.

**Transformative interventions** deal with power in-balance to address issues of social equity and exclusion. Relevant measures under this category include reforms in regulatory frameworks to protect socially vulnerable groups, budgetary analysis and reform, and policy review and monitoring. These interventions also deal with issues of sensitization campaigns to transform public attitudes and behaviors.

The current analysis of social-protection intervention in Ethiopia, thus, followed this pattern of categorization of existing social-protection interventions/programs.

## 4.2 Mapping of Social Protection Programs

### 4.2.1 Social Protection Programs in Ethiopia

Today, social-protection policies and strategies are considered as the best instrument that could respond to the changing life cycle patterns of the population in light of increasing pressures such as poverty, unemployment, ageing, mobility, changing social structures, and increasing expectations of different segments. It has been clearly stated in the African Social Policy Framework that social protection is an instrument that would break the inter-generational poverty cycle and reduce the growing inequalities that constrain economic and social development. Therefore, there is a high need for comprehensive social policy measures that could address these needs of the different sections of the population in any country including Ethiopia. This, of course, depends on the economic capacity and social commitments of a particular nation. That is why we are currently observing social protection systems in many developing countries that are targeted at particular groups, and in the developed counties that are aimed at the provision of multifaceted services for their citizens.

It is true that Ethiopia does not have a comprehensive, structured, organized and integrated social-protection system. However, there are programs, policies and strategies initiated by the Government, non-governmental organizations and communities that are serving social-protection purposes, aimed at reducing social and economic risks, vulnerabilities, contingencies and chronic poverty (Daniel, 2010). There have also been many initiatives for decades that have been designed and implemented to promote the livelihood and welfare of people exposed to socio-economic risks, vulnerabilities and shocks. Different attempts have been undertaken at different times by all governments that came into power in the country (MoWA, 2009). Nonetheless, all the attempts undertaken mainly by the past two governments (the Imperial and the Military regimes) focused on specific sections of the society and emphasized economic growth without considering the vital importance of social capital. It is commonly understood that, though economic growth is necessary for the advancement of the well-being of the people, it cannot be the only determinant factor to reduce poverty and address inequality. Economic measures need to be complemented by social interventions and changes in regulatory frameworks. Interventions in health and education create a sustainable ground for a healthy, literate and secure society that plays a vital role in creating a suitable situation for a smooth economic progress (ILO, 2003).

Over the past few years, within the domain of the overall policy, strategies and program frameworks, Ethiopia has taken steps to reform policies and legal frameworks so as to lay a firm ground for the protection of its citizens, especially for children and women who are vulnerable to any shock and contingencies. As a result of these measures, the policy and strategy environment of the country appears to be favorable towards attaining the welfare and the well-being of the vulnerable groups, including women and children. The National Youth Policy, which addresses the problems and concerns of the youth between the ages of 15 and 29; the Ethiopian National

Plan of Action for Children (2003-2010 and beyond); the Orphans and Vulnerable Children National Plan of Action (2004-2006); the National Action Plan on Sexual Abuse and Exploitation of Children (2006-2010); the Educational and Training Policy (1994); the Health Policy (1993); the HIV/AIDS Policy and Strategy; the National Food Security Strategy; the Nutrition Strategy; the Developmental Social Welfare Policy; and different interventions implemented at various levels are relevant policies, strategies and programs that contain protection strategies of various sections of the society, especially that of the marginalized groups.

All these policies targeted at reducing factors that hamper access of children to education at all levels, especially at pre-primary and primary levels, lay a solid ground for the expansion of pre-primary and primary education. For instance, the Ethiopian National Plan of Action for Children says that poverty-stricken children should be supported in the form of nutrition, health care, educational materials, etc. These policies and strategies are also aimed at reducing educational wastage, particularly dropout and repetition rate. Elimination of regional and gender disparities in raising the enrolment rate is the area to which these policy and strategy documents have given top priority. The share of education from the total national budget has also been targeted in some of these policy documents.

The Developmental Social Welfare Policy, which was issued in 1996, is aimed at the creation of a social condition conducive to a healthy life and a sustainable social development. Though it includes all segments of the population, it mainly focuses on the most vulnerable sections, including children, women, the youth, people with disability, the elderly, etc. Recognizing the dire needs of children, women, people with disabilities, the elderly, and others, this policy prioritized ten areas of intervention in order to bring about changes in their livelihood. The policy outlined activities that have to be undertaken to realize the welfare of these groups so as to enable them to enjoy the rights enshrined in international and national laws and policies. Even though MoLSA is the leading agency in the area of social welfare and particularly given clear responsibilities to coordinate the implementation of this policy, the attempts made over the last years were weak, to put it mildly. The issues included in the developmental social welfare policy are multi-sectoral and targeted at different sections of the society. Therefore, the implementation of this policy to address these issues requires the collaboration of different government ministries and organizations. However, the coordination effort in due course of its implementation was not strong and the forum that was supposed to be established for proper coordination was not put in place.

The Government of Ethiopia has taken important steps to address the issues of social inequality and exclusion, and to harmonize national laws with international conventions and the new Constitution. In view of this, the Ethiopian Constitution guarantees all Ethiopians equality before the law and their equal access to protection and services. It also addresses the rights of all citizens

in general and the vulnerable groups in particular. Moreover, according to Article 9, sub-Article 4 of the Constitution, any international agreement ratified by Ethiopia is an integral part of the law of the land. It has been stipulated that fundamental rights and freedoms enshrined in the Ethiopian Constitution are to be interpreted in a manner conforming to the principle of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the International Covenants on Human Rights (The Ethiopian Constitution, 1995). The revised family law also has provisions that protect the rights of children and women and, as a whole, the cohesion of the family. It obliges the guardian to look after the health of the child, to educate him or her and oversee the entire social relationship of the child so as to ensure his/her healthy development. The code contains issues such as marriage, adoption, affiliation, maintenance, and succession. It does away with the discriminatory marriageable age for boys and girls and prescribes age 18 as the marriageable age for both sexes (Revised Family Code, 2000).

#### 4.2.1.1 Poverty Reduction Strategies

The Plan for Accelerated and Sustained Development to End Poverty (PASDEP) has been Ethiopia's MDG-based plan implemented throughout the nation since 2005. It is a comprehensive intervention in which government commitment has been expressed to the achievement of equality and equal benefits to men and women from the expected progress. It is the main development policy document in which the government declared its unreserved effort to meet the Millennium Development Goal. The PASDEP, as a vehicle towards achieving Ethiopia's MGD's plan, presents Ethiopia's vision of becoming "a country where democratic rule, good governance and social justice reigns, upon the involvement and free will of its people; and once extricating itself from poverty, becomes a middle-income economy." The strategy has over-arching policy effect in addressing the multi-social issues currently facing different segments of the population, mainly those who are suffering from chronic poverty and vulnerability (PASDEP, 2005-2010).

This shows that Ethiopia is committed to bring about social justice to its citizens through accelerated socio-economic progress that benefits all segments of the population. Among other things, this would involve a big push on education to create human resource capacity for sustainable development that would also result in fewer out-of-school children, as family income would increase through different interventions. The realization of this grand vision would secure access to education and health care, social welfare, livelihood, stable income, social justice, equity, as well as employment.

Ethiopia's first-generation Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP), known as the Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program (SDPRP 2002/03-2004/05), was the first attempt in formulating a program of a national coverage with massive participation at different levels; different segments of the population played a vital role in identifying poverty reduction measures that need priority attention. The strategy is considered to contribute to the country's effort to put an end to poverty and ensure social justice, to build human capital and sustainable progress,

which would improve economic development and living condition of the people. Job creation to address unemployment and full participation and equal benefit to address gender equity are some of the elements of social protection which are given due attention in the plan. Education, health and other social-protection-related cross-cutting issues treated under different sectoral policies are also given considerable attention in the strategy.

#### 4.2.1.2 Productive Safety Net Programme

The Ethiopian productive safety net program was developed in 2004, as a collaborative effort between the Government and a joint donor group including the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), the UK Department for International Development (DFID), Development Co-operation Ireland, the European Commission (EC), the US Agency for International Development (USAID), and the World Bank. This program has a wide range of targeted beneficiaries in the country. The prior objective of the program is to create a fertile ground to move from relief-oriented safety nets to a development-oriented approach. The program has been designed to bridge the income gap for chronically food-insecure households and engage such households in public work programs to earn income. It targets the chronically food-insecure and transfers a combination of cash for those who are unable to work and earn their livelihood and/or vouchers through a cash-for-work scheme, with direct grants being given to those ineligible. There is evidence that 30 per cent of the safety net program continued to transfer food (UNICEF, 2008). According to the above-mentioned assessment, the program was designed to reach 5-6 million direct beneficiaries through cash-for-work and cash relief components envisioning to raise the number of beneficiaries to 15 million people in an inter-year emergency program.

The target groups of the productive safety net include rural food-insecure households in any of the 262 chronically food-insecure *woreda*'s; those who are usually known to have faced continuous food shortages for at least three month in the last three years and have received food assistance; those who do not have labour to participate in public works and who cannot participate in, or contribute to, other community-based activities or initiatives (e.g., lactating and pregnant mothers, orphaned teenagers, labour-poor households); those households without family support or other means of social protection; those households who suddenly become vulnerable due to a drastic loss of assets and have been unable to be self-supportive in the last two years (Devereuxs and Bruce, 2009).

Some research findings showed that the program is currently benefiting 8 million people in a year and operating in about 300 *woreda*'s. The lion's share of the program budget comes from multilateral donors ($500 million) and the Government contributes Birr 2 billion per annum. Eligibility for the unconditional cash component depends on a person's ability to work. The government has set an 80-to-20 ratio for cash-for-work to gratuitous relief, but it is likely that fewer than 5 per cent receive the gratuitous relief. The value of the cash transfer amounts to about

30 Birr per person per month. During the hungry period, the transfer is a (100 per cent) cash/coupon payment for immediate redemption. During the post-harvest period, 50 per cent is for immediate payment, while 50 per cent (cash) is deferred payment (in the form of a coupon) for redemption in the hungry period. Support for cash transfers has waxed and waned according to changes in development practices, and there is currently a renewed interest in cash transfers within the non-governmental sector (UNICEF, 2008). Though there are no available data that indicate the impact of this program on education, one can say that those families who are benefiting from the program are in a position to send their children to school, since they can currently afford to fulfill school supplies for their children.

#### 4.2.1.3 Cash Transfer Schemes

In Ethiopia, there are also International NGOs like Save the Children UK who have been operating in the area of cash transfer schemes in some of the northern parts of the country. This organization implemented the Livelihood Development Project for Meket Woreda (MLDP) in North Wollo Zone, Amhara National Regional State, which began in 2003. The program was designed to provide cash transfers to vulnerable households to meet 'essential food expenditure' in bad years and invest in assets in better years; to learn lessons and advocate for change of policy, funding, and practice in the linking of relief to development and child nutrition development; and to stimulate local markets and the economy through cash distribution and other related interventions. Targeted at able-bodied and vulnerable food-insecure households, it had benefited 46,600 beneficiaries, around 11 per cent of whom received the unconditional cash transfer, having been identified as vulnerable and unable to work (Save the Children, 2005).

There are also other small-scale cash transfer initiatives among local and international NGOs, notably SOS Sahel, ACCORD, Help Age International, and World Vision. One example is a child sponsorship project that provides welfare assistance to orphaned and destitute children, without separating them from their extended family or native community. A pioneer local NGO, known as *Abebech Gobena Yehetsanat Kibikabenna Limat* Mahiber, is currently providing different types of educational and social support for about 14,000 orphans and vulnerable children in the community as well as in orphanages. (The majority of the children who have access to the program are those children who, at some point, dropped out of school or may not have entered at all, but are now attending school as a result of the support provided through the program). Another local NGO, known as Integrated Family Service Organization, is also implementing a support project which is benefiting 1,128 orphans and vulnerable children. The monthly cash transfer to be spent on basic needs under this project is between 130 and 150 Birr. There are also other organizations like FHI and SOS Sahel, which focuses on traditional social organizations like *idir*'s to handle community-level orphan support, home-based care and income-generating activities (USAID, 2004). The same report describes that there is little information on small transfer schemes in the Ethiopia Rapid Assessment, Analysis and Action Plan (RAAAP), which was launched in April 2005. No information was available in the plan as to whether there would

be any direct cash component. A similar situation prevails with the multi-sectoral HIV and AIDS program that has just been drawn up to deal with prevention, treatment and care. (Beneficiary families started sending their children as a result of assistance they get through the schemes.)

#### 4.2.1.4 School-Feeding Program

The school-feeding program is one of the interventions designed to address the problems of children who are in dire need of assistance. It is intended to enable vulnerable children to attend school and continue their education without seasonal interruption to higher level. This program is implemented in 1,200 schools selected throughout the country for having low enrollment and for being in high-food insecure areas to reduce student dropouts and boost school performance. Parents in the pastoral areas are also provided with incentives such as food and edible oil to send their daughters to schools and attend at least 80% of the school days. Official records show that the school-feeding program has contributed to the high enrolment rates and retentions in areas where the program is properly implemented; however, there is a shortfall in responding to the demand. It is also observed that there are challenges to fulfill the demand, which is much higher than the available resources. Official reports further revealed that the Government, together with the WFP, gives priority to “hot-spot areas” and, as a result, only 25% of the demand is covered. To begin with, the school-feeding program is implemented in very few schools, as mentioned above. Nonetheless, general observations and school-based assessments reveal that school enrolment has gone up and dropout rates have declined as a result of the school-feeding program in areas where the program is functional. However, there is no nationally conducted impact evaluation that came out with a national representative data on school-feeding programs.

#### 4.2.1.5 Assistance to Vulnerable Groups

Ethiopia has a National HIV/AIDS Policy that was adopted in 1998. The Policy deals extensively with prevention, control as well as treatment aspects of HIV/AIDS. The National HIV/AIDS Policy states that people with HIV/AIDS "shall not be subjected to special restrictions on employment, education, access to public facilities, or housing". But the Policy does not embrace specific guidelines regarding the problems of stigmatization and discrimination of children on account of their HIV/AIDS status, that of their parents, or on account of their being orphaned by AIDS. Though the general protection against gender-based discrimination in the Constitution and other laws are noteworthy, there is a general lack of laws dealing with the treatment of child victims specifically, and laws targeting non-discrimination aspects of children are also not put in place (MoWA, 2009.)

There are 1.1 million people who are living with HIV/AIDS in Ethiopia, of which 14,140 are children. Out of the total number of people living with the virus, 30% (336,160) require treatment with ART. Furthermore, it is estimated that about 84,189 pregnant mothers are infected with HIV/AIDS (HAPCO, 2010). Unlike other policies, the HIV/AIDS Policy has been mainstreamed into the main activities of all ministries and government agencies at all levels, starting from the

federal level down to *kebele*'s. Therefore, the policy and strategy of HIV/AIDS is implemented throughout the country by all government structures starting from the federal level down to the grass-roots level, including private organizations and faith-based institutions. This is beneficial for people living with the virus including children. Domestic and inter-country adoption is has also been a coping mechanism through which orphans and abandoned children are supported. Domestic adoption is an age-old tradition, known as *Guddiffachaa,* particularly among the Oromo. In the traditional practice, a *guddiffachaa* child has all the rights to property inheritance, name and other benefits, as a natural born child, and the practice is accepted socio-culturally for the common benefit of the child and the *guddiffachaa* family. Currently few children are getting this kind of service. Domestic adoption is practiced at a very minimal level and there is no guideline that regulates domestic adoption and ensures whether it is in the best interests of the child or not.

According to the 2010 annual report of HAPCO, there are 5.4 orphans in Ethiopia, of which 855,720 are estimated to have lost their parents due to HIV/AIDS. The report further explains that provisions of necessary supplies like school materials to enable them to go to school, food and shelter, income-generating activities (IGAs) and training in IGAs are required. The same report further depicts that it was planned (2009/10) to provide 444,648 children with school materials, of which 325,201 (73.1%) were beneficiaries. Similarly, 229,287 children (72.1%), out of the planned 371,949, were provided with food and shelter; 43,843 (48.0%), out of the planned 91,264, were provided with IGAs, and 40,872 (35.6%), out of the planned 114,844, were provided with IGA training. It can be concluded that, though there is an attempt to reach the vulnerable children, some are not accessing the support for various reasons. For instance, about 6% (325,201) get school-material support and 4.2% (229,287) get support for food and shelter, from the total of 5.4 million. Official records indicate that there are also many orphans and other vulnerable children who are supported by the PEPFAR initiative through USAID.

Considering the total number of children who are in need of assistance, there are few children who are currently getting residential care in Ethiopia. Only 6333 children of different ages are beneficiaries of the residential care given by government, non-government, and faith-based organizations in 87 child-care institutions. More than 2/3 of these institutions are run by non-government organizations (FHI, 2009). On the other hand, the head-count assessment of street children in Addis Ababa revealed that there are 11,830 children living in the streets of Addis Ababa (UNICEF, 2011). The same document indicates that, according to the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, 150,000 children are living on the streets in different parts of the country, about 60,000 of whom are found in Addis Ababa. Non-governmental actors estimate the number of street children to be nearly 600,000 country-wide. At the level of non-governmental actors, there are numerous NGOs, both of national and international origin, working on the promotion and protection of the rights of children in the country. Given the limited resource the governmental has, the role of NGOs in filling the gap in this regard proved to be significant,

particularly in awareness creation activities, the provision of essential services, and the training of implementing partners at various levels. There are a lot of NGOs which support orphans and other vulnerable children in different intervention programs: educational, psychosocial, health, livelihood, food and nutrition, early childhood development, housing and shelter. However, there is proper documentation as to the size of the available forms of support. One assessment done in Addis Ababa and its surrounding showed that the major share of the intervention in the area of OVC support, 23%, goes to educational support (HACI Ethiopia, 2006). The same assessment identified OVC problems as being social, psychological, economic, institutional, and bottlenecks related to policy issues.

*Table 31. Distribution of organizations and children, by type of educational support*

| Educational support | No. of org. (N=115) | % of org. | No. of children (N=51114) | % of children | Children per org. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| School uniforms | 99 | 86.1 | 40,037 | 78.3 | 404 |
| School fees | 94 | 81.7 | 37,024 | 72.4 | 394 |
| Tutorial support | 62 | 53.9 | 21,258 | 41.6 | 343 |
| Lab and resource center | 31 | 27.0 | 10,648 | 20.8 | 444 |
| Non-formal education | 26 | 22.6 | 10065 | 19.7 | 387 |
| School feeding | 24 | 20.9 | 3,873 | 7.6 | 161 |
| School materials | 21 | 18.3 | 5,182 | 10.1 | 247 |
| Sponsorship | 2 | 1.7 | 158 | 0.3 | 79 |
| Pocket money for college students | 1 | 0.9 | 6 | 0.0 | 6 |

*Source: HACI Ethiopia, 2006, p. 16*

As can be seen from Table 31 above, 51,114 orphans and other vulnerable children are provided with different types of educational support. Some children are getting more than one type of support. Such support enables the children to attend school and reduces the number of children who are out of school due mainly to luck of financial and educational support. As the table shows, 72.4% of the children are provided with school fees, while 78.3% are getting school uniforms. Provision of tutorial sessions for such children has a great impact on their educational performance and helps them to keep up with other children. Though there are no available data that show existing educational support in different parts of the country, it can be assumed that many children are provided with multi-faceted support that would contribute to the efforts underway to solve the problems of out-of-school children and exercise inclusive education.

## 4.3 Impacts of Social Protection Programs on Education in Ethiopia

Education is a basic development indicator, and both national and international instruments give due attention to the enjoyment of equal access to education by boys and girls, and by rural and urban residents. According to Article 28 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child, to which

Ethiopia is a signatory, parties recognize the rights of the child to education, and with the view to achieving this right progressively and on the basis of equal opportunity, they shall, in particular, make primary education compulsory and available free for all. Similarly, the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child underlined that parties to the present charter shall take all appropriate measures with a view to achieving the full realization of the right to education and shall, in particular, provide free and compulsory basic education. In both conventions inclusive education and the removal of financial obstacles are considered as crucial factors in order to achieve free and compulsory education and ensure that all children have access to primary education.

The need to eliminate stereotypes in education, the reduction of dropout rates, and tackling all legal and other measures necessary to provide effective protection against gender-based violence in schools are areas that received attention in all national policy documents intending to address issues of education at all levels. It goes without saying that laws, policies, and programs initiated to improve the livelihood of citizens would have impacts in different sectors based on the nature of the issues dealt with by each sector. Social protection programs usually aim to improve child welfare through positive effects of increased household income, which, in turn, increases school participation and reduces child labour. However, public work programs through which poor families earn income may sometimes increase the demand for child labour in the household. In case of Ethiopia, however, public work in the PSNP increased school attendance of children. The PSNP had positive effects on the schooling of boys for households that received Birr 90 (as initially planned) per household member from participating in public work regularly. Official records indicate that, as a result of the public work, households income has moderately increased and, in effect, agricultural labour hours and domestic labour hours have moderately reduced for boys, while the result is not satisfactory for girls, especially for younger girls. Restricting the beneficiary sample to those that earn at least 90 Birr per house member shows that the program is much more effective in improving child welfare when payments are near the level intended in the program design. As a result, school attendance rates increased substantially for boys and girls aged 11-16 years (John, Daniel, and Alemayehu, 2009).

Ethiopia's progress in education demonstrated the sustainable government-led efforts to reduce poverty and expand the public education system equitably, backed by relatively huge resources and improved service delivery systems both at federal and regional level that dramatically resulted in school expansion and increase in enrolment. In 1992, four out of five primary-age children were not in school, but this figure dramatically reduced to one in five in 2010. The improvement in education is real in most regions, except for the two pastoralist dominated regions of Afar and Somali (Jakob and Rose, 2010). The same report confirmed that educational progress in Ethiopia has coincided with substantial reduction in poverty and rapid improvement in food security, health and nutrition. The priorities given to education are expected to be translated into a number of strategies targeted at increasing access to schooling for all Ethiopians and particularly

for marginalized groups such as girls, orphans, the rural poor, and children of pastoralist communities. It is true that there is a close correlation between poverty among families and low level of education among children.

The school-feeding program which is currently implemented in 1200 selected schools throughout the country has had a remarkable impact on getting children to school and retaining them there. As a result of the implementation of the school-feeding program, enrolment rate of children is on the increase. However, due to resource constraints, the program is not in a position to respond to the existing demands, which is so high in many parts of the country. Major steps taken to encourage child enrolment like abolishing school fee for primary and secondary schools; supply-side measures such as availing the necessary infrastructure, especially in rural area; alternative basic education for out-of-school children in remote areas; mobile schools in pastoralist areas; and school-feeding programs are of great importance in addressing the problem of out-of-school children of different dimensions. Different types of support provided by non-governmental organizations in different parts of the country are also of paramount importance in reducing the number of out-of-school children and maintain them in school. As it is mentioned in the preceding chapters, the progress made in the provision of social services such as education, health and other pro-poor sectors by spending huge amounts of the government budget, no doubt, had impacts on school enrolment and attendance rates as well.

Fast economic growth over the last five years has contributed much to the reduction of the incidence and severity of poverty in the country. Poverty is declining to an estimated 29.2% in 2009/20109 (Ethiopia - United Nations Development Assistance Framework, 2011). The same report revealed that, as a result of the overall reform made in the country, the gross enrolment rate (GER) for primary school (1-8) reached 95.9 and the net enrolment rate (NER) reached 89%. The increase in coverage was also accompanied by an increase in retention and a decrease in dropout rates.

The Labour Law Proclamation, No. 377/2003, Article 89, has also provisions which tend to promote the best interests of the child. It prohibits employment of children below the age of fourteen. Such prohibition is intended to provide an opportunity for such children to complete their primary education prior to joining the labour force. Since, in a modern society, education is believed to be a source of career development, it is in the child's best interest to undertake such protective measures. Moreover, even for employees within the age range of fourteen and eighteen, they are not allowed to work at night, on public holidays, on weekly rest days, and overtime. They are not also to be assigned in weight-lifting, underground work and other hazardous activities, and their regular daily working hours are set to be one hour less. The employment of children between ages 14 and 18 is subject to various safeguards and conditions (Tilahun and Yonas, 2010).

Despite all such efforts and achievements, government intervention in education is not effective enough to reach the most vulnerable sections of the society. For instance, orphans and children

coming from poor families could not attend classes because of their inability to purchase school uniforms, books and also for the reason that many do not even get adequate food (MoLSA, 2011). The same report states that in most cases there are no educational facilities for children in special circumstances (children with various disabilities and special needs). However, it is very encouraging to observe that alternative basic education strategy has been put in place for out-of-school children. This strategy is being implemented to address the problem of children who have no chance of joining formal school. All these initiatives have had observable impacts though the success is limited for various reasons including poor coordination and integration, and inadequate funding which hamper the effort to reach all intended beneficiaries as required, especially in the marginalized areas.

## 4.4 Cross-sectoral Approach in Program Implementation

Many of the policies and programs in which social protection issues have been incorporated have stated the need for multi-sectoral participation in realizing the goals of the policies/programs. However, this has not been done and responsible government ministries lacked a legally defined mandate to coordinate other line ministries as required. Similarly, the duties and responsibilities of other concerned ministries and structures at different levels were not clearly defined as far as coordination is concerned. Effective implementation requires the involvement of a lot of actors at federal or regional levels and of public or private nature. To the extent that the activities of all these actors are not coordinated, the intervention will be fragmented and will fail to bring about the intended results. At times there could be duplication and wastage of resources. Thus, a coordinated and holistic approach is the recommended fashion of operation. The establishment of an autonomous organ with the necessary capacity and power of coordination would be an asset in undertaking programs designed to address public concern (MoWA, 2009).

Coordination is essential to create synergy in service delivery, to avoid duplication, and to bring about effectiveness. It is an essential part of making government work for citizens because invariably many departments provide services for different targets and have an impact on the realization of policies and/or programs. The obligations inherent in social protection as a multi-sectoral issue are, however, not well recognized by relevant sectors that have a substantial impact on education, health, welfare and so on. This coordination problem is confirmed by one third of the key informants in the sample regions. The mandate of the coordination mechanism should, thus, be well defined to address all relevant areas affecting all issues of protection programs. It is also essential to define or redefine the purpose of coordination and collaboration between the different government ministries and departments. The purpose will, in turn, indicate which government ministries are most needed and appropriate to make the implementation effective. It is also important for the coordination mechanism to raise consciousness of common interests, develop opportunities for collective action, and create unity of purpose. However, the sample key informants underlined that there is lack of understanding and awareness among concerned actors

as to the importance of coordination and coordinated efforts to make social-protection-related policies and strategies a reality in the country.

## 4.5 Financial Expenditure for Social Protection Programs

According to the Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, there are 3 channels of government expenditure on SP. Detailed fiscal data is not available on channels 2 & 3 for SP expenditure. Therefore, the analysis focused only on channel 1. Channel 1 resources are raised from the national treasury and are core components of the national budget for SP.

*Table 32. Channel 1 expenditure on social-protection-related interventions*

| Fiscal year | Basic social services | | | | Social welfare | Humanitarian Response | All other Expenditures |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Education | Health | Water | Justice | | | |
| 2001/02 | 2714.32 | 797.67 | 419.55 | 333.28 | 311.48 | 1344.00 | 4418.02 |
| 2002/03 | 3776.20 | 891.74 | 74.50 | 235.93 | 817.69 | 557.17 | 12071.42 |
| 2003/04 | 4448.97 | 837.77 | 316.87 | 408.84 | 142.98 | 373.25 | 15997.65 |
| 2004/05 | 4527.69 | 1944.44 | 149.98 | 471.88 | 307.78 | 220.52 | 18313.33 |
| 2005/06 | 6148.72 | 1418.70 | 1164.80 | 329.75 | 278.69 | 120.83 | 20678.37 |
| 2006/07 | 8069.02 | 1338.64 | 554.29 | 448.08 | 145.89 | 68.07 | 22664.67 |
| 2007/08 | 9715.92 | 2050.35 | 1216.58 | 747.52 | 204.02 | 75.83 | 29298.2 |

*Source: Daniel, 2010, p. 22*

As it can clearly be seen from Table 32, the budget allocated to social-protection-related sectors has been increasing throughout the identified fiscal years. Although the expenditures are distributed to different sectors, it is difficult to identify the share of social protection programs as there is no social protection expenditure as such. While social protection programs are run at different levels by different institutions including both government and non-governmental institutions, from the data in the above table, it is only possible to describe the budget and expenditure of the different sectors like education, health and other national programs. The funds for the existing programs that serve social protection purposes have been obtained from diverse sources including government budget and support by civil society organizations and international funding agencies. The productive safety net program is funded by different international donor groups, with the lion's share coming from the World Bank,.

Generally, the social protection programs and policies/strategies mentioned in this part of the report are not coordinated and, hence, are left to several government ministries for their implementation. So far, there has not been a solely responsible coordinating body as far as social protection is concerned, though MoLSA is considered in various ways to be a leading ministry in the area of social protection.

## 4.6 Analytical Summary

Though there are policies and program initiatives that are implemented to help people not to fall into poverty but rather to escape from it, Ethiopia has not yet developed comprehensive and integrated social protection systems with adequate implementation strategies and plans of action. Fragmented efforts that the government has made so far through different pro-poor interventions including legal and policy reforms have not yet reduced vulnerability and poverty. According to the 2008 UNDP report, 39% of the people are unable to meet basic nutritional and non-food needs.

Official documents reveal that the head count, poverty gap, and poverty severity indices in 2004/2005 for rural areas were lower than the levels five years before. Of course, there were a lot of efforts made through different reforms and initiatives to improve the livelihood of all citizens including vulnerable segments of the population, i.e., children and women, although issues of gender and children, which, by their nature, demand for multi-sectoral participation, have not been mainstreamed into the plans and strategies of relevant institutions operating at different levels (MoFED, 2011). This absence of synergy between policies has jeopardized the implementation of programs and has resulted in insignificant improvements of people's livelihood.

The leading agency in the area of social protection is assumed to be the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA) at a federal level and similar departments of the regional bureaus of the same sector. But the sector has no appropriate structure down to the grassroots where social protection programs are actually implemented. On the other hand, some of the policies that happen to address social protection issues of the vulnerable sections of the society are out-dated and need to be revised in order to incorporate emerging issues in the sector. For instance, the Developmental Social Welfare Policy, which is currently under revision, had no appropriate provision for HIV/AIDS, which is a serious problem not only for Ethiopia, but for all developing nations as well. Furthermore, as a result of the ineffective coordination mechanism, the policy became out-dated without bringing about any tangible results in the lives of the target groups expected to benefit from the policy. Therefore, the coordination of policies and strategies is required for common efforts by various government and non-government organizations to bear fruits in realizing protection programs in all sectors. This, however, requires an immediate response by the concerned institution of the Government.

The non-existence of birth registration has also become one of the challenges in the realization of the rights and protections of the child in Ethiopia. It is understood that birth registration is the first ticket of the child to existence and is considered under Article 7 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The 2000 Revised Family Code called for the establishment of a birth (and marriage) registration system to be started within six months, but to date this has not materialized. Another point that needs due attention to ensure the rights of vulnerable children is the issue of inter-

country adoption. In order to make inter-country adoption work to the best interests of the child, Ethiopia should consider accession to the Hague Convention on Protection of Children and Cooperation in respect of Inter-country Adoption. Membership in such conventions will enable the country to have regular access to reliable information not only about the would-be adoptive parents but also about the adopted child once it entered the territory of the receiving state. As soon as Ethiopia accedes to the said Convention, it is recommended that "inter-country adoption arrangement, if at all to be undertaken, be limited to countries which are signatories to the same Convention only" (MoWA, 2009 p. 48).

Though the country has taken remarkable steps in enacting laws and issuing relevant policies and strategies that have a bearing on the plights of all citizens in general and vulnerable sections of the society in particular to build resilience and respond to shocks and emergencies, there are still gaps with regard to consolidating child law and child protection policies. As Daniel (2010) noted, it is widely recognized that the pro-poor strategies adopted by successive PRSPs have significantly reduced the urban/rural, rich/poor, male/female divide that has existed in relation to basic social services. However, there is a need to establish the extent to which available demand side interventions have enabled the poorest of the poor to have equitable access to basic social services.

Experience has shown that the Ethiopian social protection strategies mainly focus on protection interventions rather than preventive programs, which aim at creating conditions that would enable the target to cope with the incidence before they fall into shock and vulnerability. Therefore, there is a need to put in place interventions of all types of the broad categories of social protection, including educational support, so as to build the capacity of families so that they would be able to send their children to school and keep them there. If social protection is to be implemented in its true sense, the current approach of reactive and localized poverty reduction, which is poorly coordinated, except for the productive safety net program, has to be changed to pro-active, predictable and nation-wide poverty reduction initiatives led by a designated ministry.

# CONCLUSIONS

Based on the major findings of this study, the following conclusions are drawn and recommendations forwarded.

The analysis of the profiles of excluded children in Ethiopia revealed that only about 11% of pre-primary school-age children attend education at pre-primary and primary schools. The findings further indicated that, even though high gross and net enrolments are recorded at national level, over three million children of primary and lower secondary age are still out of school.

As far as education barriers and bottlenecks are concerned, violence against children and gender-based violence, early marriage, and wrong attitudes towards children with disabilities, household poverty, being orphan, indirect costs of education, seasonal factors, child labour, inadequate supply of basic services such as textbooks and teaching/learning materials, absence of separate latrines for boys and girls, absence of easily accessible services for children with disabilities, weak partnership with NGOs and CSOs in addressing problems of OOSC, lack of quality of education, absence of comprehensive data on the profiles of OOSC, and inequitable resource allocation are found to be among the major socio-cultural, economic demand side, supply side, governance, and capacity barriers and bottlenecks that require the attention of policy makers.

Review of the available policy documents and strategies unveiled that the issue of out-of-school children in terms of the five dimensions of exclusion (5DEs) is not emphasized in the Ethiopian education system. Although the recently launched Education Sector Development Program (ESDP IV) includes a detailed discussion on improving equity and access in general education, it does not consider particularly those children who are in primary and lower-secondary schools but are at risk of dropping out of schools (Dimensions 4 and 5) as one of the challenges of the education system. This indicates that the issue of excluded children is not fully addressed in our education system. It was also observed that, although the country has had its own education and training policy as of 1994, it lacks an educational law which serves to enforce education-related policies and standards; authority, responsibility and accountability of stakeholders; and rights of children excluded from educational opportunities.

With regard to social protection systems, it was uncovered that Ethiopia has not yet developed comprehensive and integrated social protection systems with adequate implementation strategies and plans of action though there are policy and program initiatives that are implemented to help people not to fall into poverty but rather to escape from it. Fragmented efforts that the government has made so far through different pro-poor interventions including legal and policy reforms have not yet reduced vulnerability and poverty.

## Recommendations

Policies and strategies for supporting out-of-school children in Ethiopia and closing the remaining net enrolment gaps will require making hard decisions by policy makers, particularly given the current context of inequity and inefficiencies. Addressing the five dimensions of out-of-school children (OOSC) will also require a much stronger policy framework for bridging the resource divide, which has primarily focussed on supply side policies without adequate attention to the demand side barriers and bottlenecks to OOSC. New approaches to addressing the 5DEs will also require short-term and longer-term policies which attempt to address the structural inequities which characterise 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 country study team:

1. A concerted nation-wide effort should be made to identify those children who have dropped out and those who are at risk of dropping out and search for the means to help these children continue their education.
2. Due attention should be given to providing children with textbooks and other learning materials; fulfilling basic facilities such as drinking water and separate latrines; and making schools suitable for children with disabilities.
3. The current increasing enrolment trend must be maintained by encouraging two targets of the population. Firstly, those children at the primary age group should be able to attend formal education continuously. Secondly, those children above the age of 14 need to be enrolled in school as much as possible by age 17. Side by side, strategies ought to be designed to decrease dropout and repetition rates. Moreover, appropriate strategies must be designed to address the needs of the pastoralist/semi-pastoralist communities in general and vulnerable children in particular.
4. Pre-primary education need to be expanded both in the formal and non-formal school readiness programmes as it has a contribution to decreasing dropouts and improving learning achievements in primary. It will also minimize the late entry into the first grade of primary school, which is a major barrier to achieving universal primary education, as children who start school late are more likely to drop out before they complete the cycle.
5. Alternative modes of delivery of education need to be initiated in order to address the education of late entrants

6. A series of discussions should be held with the community regarding the benefits of education and the rights of children. The issue of OOSC should also be advocated in such discussions.
7. Back to school campaign need to be intensified in a sustainable and systematic way so that who dropped out of school re-enter and continue their education. Committees that will work on returning OOSC to school should be established in all schools and these committees should be supported.
8. Solutions for addressing the problems of those children who are already out of school will need to be integrated with the issue of addressing the needs of children at risk of dropping out of primary and lower-secondary schooling over the next four years.
9. In order to remove gender-based violence and bring about behavioral change in schools and communities at large, advocacy work should be done consistently. Moreover, sensitization and other behavioral change communication training should be given to teachers, students and community members on laws, rules and regulations issued by the government in relation to violence against children.
10. Teachers should be trained on how to handle children with disabilities and the society should be sensitized to avoid stigma and discrimination in this regard.
11. Partnership with national and international NGOs and CSOs should be strengthened in order to address the problems related to OOSC.
12. Tracking the dimensions of exclusion requires new systems of capturing OOSC data, along with better tracking systems of those who are likely to drop out. Hence, EMIS data collection formats should be upgraded to capture data on the profile of OOSC, the marginalized and the disadvantaged to facilitate monitoring on their access and integration in mainstream schools and progress.
13. There should be stronger relationships between the Ministry of Education, the Central Statistics Agency, the Ministry of Health, and other relevant institutions to ensure that vital data on the OOSC profile is collected through the census, the demographic health survey, and poverty-related studies. This collaboration will also help to coordinate work and refine indicators on OOSC in the country.
14. Political, religious and community leaders should work closely with the respective government officers in order to reduce the number of OOSC.
15. Better strategic approaches and much closer collaborations among the Ministry of Education and similar ministries in other African countries with high rates of OOSC are needed to learn from their best practices and address the problems of OOSC in the country.
16. There is a need to put in place comprehensive and integrated social protection systems with adequate implementation strategies, plans of actions, and budgets so as to fully address vulnerability and poverty.

17. A national orphan support program with an adequate budget should be put in place so as to address the problem of this section of the society.
18. Re-activating socio-cultural values that promote support in times of crisis and shock would play a crucial role in building resilience to emergencies. This type of community support mechanisms have to be brought on board in a new approach.
19. Abolishing primary school fees has helped reduce costs, but has not removed the cost barrier to enrolment for the poorest. Non-fee costs, such as school uniforms and supplies, can be substantial, particularly for poor households, and require additional solutions. In this regard, it may be essential to initiate and strengthen social protection policies to help households send children to school. This includes targeted scholarships to offset education costs; conditional and unconditional cash transfers by way of providing cash grants to poor households that meet criteria such as school attendance; or unconditionally for certain population groups.

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## Annex 1: Tables

*Table 33: Education expenditure in millions Birr by year*

| Year | Education expenditure | All Gov. expenditure |
|---|---|---|
| 1998 (2005/06) | 5,999.6 | 33,615.9 |
| 1999 (2006/07) | 7,632.1 | 30,998.2 |
| 2000 (2007/08) | 9,372.9 | 41,070.9 |
| 2001 (2008/09) | 11,340.7 | 48,036.2 |
| 2002 (2009/10) | 15,719.3 | 61,958.9 |

*Source: EMIS, 2010*

*Table 34: Number of schools and sections in Primary Schools (grades 1-8)*

| Region | 2004/05 | | 2009/10 | | Change in % | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number of Primary School | Number of Sections | Number of Primary School | Number of Sections | Number of Primary School | Number of Sections |
| Tigray | 1,232 | 14,031 | 1,955 | 21,532 | 59% | 53% |
| Afar | 205 | 1,021 | 366 | 2,106 | 79% | 106% |
| Amhara | 4,059 | 41,584 | 6,610 | 72,550 | 63% | 74% |
| Oromia | 6,466 | 60,967 | 10,742 | 90,917 | 66% | 49% |
| Somali | 715 | 2,187 | 855 | 2,670 | 20% | 22% |
| Ben.-Gumuz | 312 | 2,244 | 365 | 2,660 | 17% | 19% |
| SNNPR | 2,866 | 30,913 | 4,956 | 51,443 | 73% | 66% |
| Gambella | 162 | 784 | 205 | 1,270 | 27% | 62% |
| Harari | 50 | 525 | 58 | 1,003 | 16% | 91% |
| Addis Ababa | 367 | 6,760 | 723 | 9,902 | 97% | 46% |
| Dire Dawa | 79 | 779 | 116 | 1,361 | 47% | 75% |
| **Total** | **16,513** | **161,795** | **26,951** | **254,744** | **63%** | **57%** |

*Table 35: Pupil-Section Ratio*

| Region | National | Tigray | Afar | Amhara | Oromia | Somali | Ben.-Gumuz | SNNP | Gambella | Harari | Addis Ababa | Dire Dawa |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pupil-Section Ratio | 57.4 | 45.5 | 41.4 | 49.6 | 60.2 | 39.8 | 57.1 | 65.4 | 61.8 | 34.8 | 39.1 | 43.6 |

Source: EMIS 2010

*Table 36: Schools that have libraries*

| | Number of schools | Number of libraries | % of schools that have library |
|---|---|---|---|
| Tigray | 1955 | 883 | 45.2% |
| Afar | 366 | 56 | 15.3% |
| Amhara | 6610 | 2743 | 41.5% |
| Oromia | 10742 | 3835 | 35.7% |
| Somali | 855 | 46 | 5.4% |
| Benishangul-Gumuz | 365 | 81 | 22.2% |
| SNNPR | 4956 | 1710 | 34.5% |
| Gambella | 205 | 21 | 10.2% |
| Harari | 58 | 40 | 69% |
| Addis Ababa | 723 | 597 | 82.6% |
| Dire Dawa | 116 | 38 | 32.8% |

*Table 37: Spending per student (PPP US$)*

| Region | Primary Education, 2008 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Enrolled students | Budget allocated | Spending per students in Birr | Spending per students in PPP US$ |
| Tigray | 992,917 | 244.95 | 246.7 | 70.59 |
| Afar | 83,018 | 62.64 | 754.54 | 215.89 |
| Amhara | 4,074,715 | 864.54 | 212.17 | 60.71 |
| Oromia | 5,541,919 | 1242.61 | 224.22 | 64.15 |
| Somali | 328,220 | 12.40 | 37.78 | 10.81 |
| Benishangul Gumuz | 165842 | 62.88 | 379.16 | 108.49 |
| SNNPR | 3,456,765 | 733.57 | 212.21 | 60.72 |
| Gambella | 79,428 | 30.81 | 387.90 | 110.99 |
| Harari | 38,948 | 18.05 | 463.44 | 152.6 |
| Addis Ababa | 521,506 | 173.17 | 332.06 | 95.01 |
| DireDawa | 57,508 | 36.44 | 653.56 | 181.30 |

*Table 38: Support Strategy*

| Region | Strategy implemented/to be implemented | Strategy implemented/supported by | Type of beneficiaries | No. of beneficiaries |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gambella | Scholarship | UNICEF, Pact, World Vision | Children from poor family especially girls | NA |
| | School feeding | Data collection is ongoing | Children from poor family | |
| | Committee organized to return children who drop out from education | At kebele level | Children who dropped out from education | NA |
| Amhara | Scholarship | NA | Children from poor family especially girls | 232 |
| | School feeding | NA | NA | NA |
| Afar | Scholarship | UNICEF, Save the Children, USAID | Children from poor family especially girls | 250 |
| | School feeding | NA | NA | NA |
| | Boarding school | Mekane Yesus Church | Girls and Boys | 85 (girls) |
| | Providing uniform and educational materials | USAID | Orphan Girls and Boys | >1000 |
| Addis Ababa | School feeding | NA | NA | NA |
| Oromia | Stipend fund Birr 150/month (Now all except Tumsa discontinued this support) | UNICEF, Tumsa endorsement, Furi Addis, FAWE. | Children from poor family especially | 764 |
| SNNPR | Boarding for female students in four woredas | Irish Fund | NA | NA |
| | Educational material support | Pact | NA | NA |
| | PTC members tried to return students who dropout their education though the number of dropped out children is large | Schools | NA | NA |
| | Edible oil support | WFP | Those female students who attend their class regularly | NA |

## Annex 2: Qualitative Data Collection Instruments

### A. Check list for the education sector's experts

### 1. Education Sector Key Informants

**Profile of Respondent**

1. Sex: a) Male_____ b) Female_____
2. Education level: _____
3. Name of the Organization: _____
4. Position in the Organization: _____
5. Work experience (in years): _____

### 2. Key Questions on Demand Side Economic, cultural and Social Barriers and Policies and Strategies

1. What are the major economic, cultural and social causes (poverty, distance to school, education of parents, culture, child labour, natural calamities, migration, etc) that make children out of school? Are there any policies that will mitigate the above mentioned economic, social and cultural barriers (abolish school fees and reducing indirect costs)? If yes, is it applicable, if not why?
2. Are there strategies to mitigate the dropout and out of school children such as scholarships for girls, take home food rations and to address opportunity cost? If yes, who sponsored/support them? How many children benefited?
3. What are the strategies pursued to empower and increase the participation of the community to alleviate the aforementioned economic, social, natural and cultural barriers?
4. What are the policies and strategies used for to raise community awareness regarding the negative impact of gender based violation such as any violence in and out of school and sexual harassment in attending primary and lower secondary education?
5. How do you address to reduce stigmatizing attitudes towards marginalized (physical and intellectual disability, AIDS orphans,) children in the community and in the schools?
6. Is there any partnership with religious and civil society organizations? If yes how do you work? If no, why? Is there any policy regarding partnership?
7. What do you suggest to improve OOSC situation?

## 3. Key Questions on Supply Side Barriers, Policies and Strategies

1. What are the barriers in relation to school infrastructure such as classroom space, availability of teaching materials, electricity, water and sanitation, school facilities like library computer and other labouratories, suitability for children with disabilities?
2. What are the policies and strategies to reduce the above mentioned barriers?
3. What are the barriers in relation to human resources such as increase female teachers, teacher –student ratio, the availability of trained teachers, the availability of single teacher schools, children thought by non-mother tongue?
4. What are the policies and strategies to reduce the above mentioned barriers?
5. How do you assess school and classroom management, organizational and pedagogical characteristics?
6. What are the policies and strategies to reduce the above mentioned barriers?
7. Is there pre- and in-service teacher training in knowledge and skills to assist at risk students? Is there a structure that supports teachers to address the needs of at risk students? Tell us the impacts of training teachers and developing supportive structure? If not, Why?
8. Please tell us about textbooks and materials:- curriculum for inclusive teaching and learning; provision of didactic materials to stimulate learning; inclusion of local contents in the curriculum; provision of textbooks in minority languages
9. How do you assess the quality of schooling and school organization- that is, effective pedagogical administrative methods with regard to student's performance; use of promotion criteria based on processes; assistance to the student at risk of dropping out; teaching methods based on the development of capabilities
10. Please would you tell us about multiple pathways to learning- remedial education and second chance learning programs; bridging programs for returning child workers to school; effective multi-grade teaching; expansion of lower secondary education to rural areas; development of programs supporting education transitions and addressing school failure?
11. Are there policies and strategies developed to accelerate and scale up successful pilots? Mention them
12. Are there mixed and intersectoral interventions packages such as school health; feeding/nutrition programs? If yes what are they? If not why?

## 4. Key Questions on Political, Governance, Capacity and Financial Bottlenecks

1. What are the major political bottlenecks which contributed to the OOSC?
2. What are the major governance and capacity bottlenecks?

3. Is there financial problem to run effectively the teaching learning process?
4. Is there institutional arrangement and technical capacity within MOE/RSEB/WEO to address the needs of excluded; to conduct policy analysis to build effective data and monitoring system, to develop effective regulations in order to increase the timely access and transitions of out of school children? If yes, mention them, if not, why?
5. Is there local support to schools (school grants); participatory and management systems in and around schools? If yes, mention them, if not, why?

**B. Check list for the social sector's experts**

**1. Social Sector Key Informants**

**Profile of Respondent**

1. Sex: a) Male_____ b) Female_____
2. Education level: _____
3. Name of the Organization: _____
4. Position in the Organization: _____
5. Work experience (in years): _____

1. What kind of social protection programs do exist in the country? What is the coverage? How long have they been in place? What are the target beneficiaries? Who are the duty bearers?
2. To what extent do the social protection programs involve families, communities and other social structures? How integrated are the social protection programs/systems with other systems like, education, health, etc.? Who is the leading Agency?
3. Do you think there is a move from focusing on responding to instances of abuses to creating a more comprehensive, protective environment for children in school and out of school?
4. What coordination mechanisms are in place to ensure the participation of other stakeholders and successful functioning of the programs/systems?
5. What kind of cross-sectoral social protection policies/frameworks are in place?
6. What are the challenges in the cross-sectoral approach/coordination and its effectiveness?
7. What actual or potential benefits do the social protection programs/systems provide to getting children to school and retaining them there?
8. How is the social protection programs/systems financed?
9. Where is the source of budget? How sustainable is it?
10. What do you suggest to improve OOSC situation

Annex 3 of Typology

Ethiopia 2011 — **Global Initiative on Out-of-school Children -- Calculation spreadsheet for Dimensions 2 and 3**

All

| Table 1 | Education system | Primary (ISCED 1) | Lower secondary (ISCED 2) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Entry age | 7 | 13 |
| | Duration of level (years) | 6 | 4 |

| Source data | |
|---|---|
| School attendance (Table 2) | DHS 2011 |
| Population by age (Table 3) | UNPD data for 2011 (2010 revision) |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Table 2** | **Population by age** | **4** | **5** | **6** | **7** | **8** | **9** | **10** | **11** | **12** | **13** | **14** | **15** | **16** | **17** |
| | Total population | | | | 2,329,150 | 2,313,438 | 2,293,291 | 2,268,982 | 2,241,992 | 2,212,158 | 2,177,070 | 2,135,714 | 2,088,953 | 2,039,653 | 1,988,436 |
| **Table 3** | **School attendance status (%)** | **4** | **5** | **6** | **7** | **8** | **9** | **10** | **11** | **12** | **13** | **14** | **15** | **16** | **17** |
| | Out of school (OOS) | | | | 62.5 | 44.9 | 34.6 | 29.1 | 23.1 | 24.8 | 24.9 | 27.3 | 30.9 | 36.9 | 39.8 |
| | Dropped out | | | | 1.1 | 2.7 | 3.6 | 4.4 | 5.4 | 9.3 | 9.7 | 14.4 | 17.7 | 22.0 | 25.3 |
| | Never been in school | | | | 61.4 | 42.2 | 31.0 | 24.8 | 17.7 | 15.5 | 15.2 | 12.9 | 13.2 | 15.0 | 14.5 |
| | New entrants to primary school | | | | 26.4 | 26.7 | 22.9 | 16.6 | 12.4 | 7.6 | 6.1 | 3.9 | 3.1 | 1.8 | 1.3 |
| **Table 4** | **New entrants** | **4** | **5** | **6** | **7** | **8** | **9** | **10** | **11** | **12** | **13** | **14** | **15** | **16** | **17** |
| | New entrants as % of OOSC never in school in previous year | | | | 30.1 | 38.7 | 42.5 | 40.1 | 41.1 | 32.9 | 28.6 | 23.1 | 19.0 | 10.7 | 8.3 |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Table 5** | **Categories of OOSC (%)** | **4** | **5** | **6** | **7** | **8** | **9** | **10** | **11** | **12** | **13** | **14** | **15** | **16** | **17** |
| | Dropped out | | | | 1.8 | 5.9 | 10.4 | 15.0 | 23.3 | 37.4 | 38.9 | 52.8 | 57.3 | 59.5 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 95.2 | 89.4 | 81.9 | 72.8 | 58.0 | 39.8 | 29.9 | 15.9 | 7.7 | 3.4 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 3.0 | 4.7 | 7.7 | 12.2 | 18.7 | 22.8 | 31.2 | 31.4 | 35.0 | 37.2 | |
| | **Categories of OOSC (population)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Dropped out | | | | 26,459 | 61,809 | 82,457 | 98,984 | 120,846 | 204,947 | 211,288 | 307,074 | 369,162 | 447,925 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 1,386,732 | 928,773 | 650,136 | 481,480 | 300,748 | 217,956 | 162,393 | 92,527 | 49,873 | 25,255 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 43,451 | 48,446 | 61,306 | 80,847 | 97,091 | 124,714 | 169,066 | 182,507 | 225,529 | 279,721 | |
| | Number of OOSC | | | | 1,456,642 | 1,039,029 | 793,899 | 661,311 | 518,685 | 547,617 | 542,746 | 582,108 | 644,564 | 752,901 | |

| Table 6 | Categories of OOSC (%) | Primary age (Dimension 2) | Lower secondary age (Dimension 3) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Dropped out (% of OOSC) | 11.9 | 52.9 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 (% of OOSC) | 79.0 | 13.1 |
| | Expected to never enter (% of OOSC) | 9.1 | 34.0 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 36.7 | 29.9 |
| | **Categories of OOSC (population)** | | |
| | Dropped out | 595,502 | 1,335,449 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | 3,965,825 | 330,047 |
| | Expected to never enter | 455,854 | 856,822 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 5,017,181 | 2,522,319 |

| | Primary age | Lower secondary age |
|---|---|---|
| Total population | 13,659,011 | 8,441,390 |
| Percent in school | 63.3 | 70.1 |
| Number in school | 8,641,830 | 5,919,071 |

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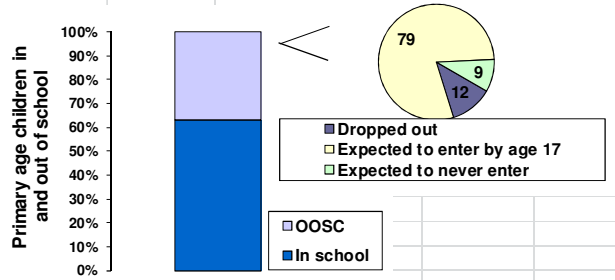

Ethiopia 2011

## Global Initiative on Out-of-school Children -- Calculation spreadsheet for Dimensions 2 and 3

Female

| Table 1 | Education system | Primary (ISCED 1) | Lower secondary (ISCED 2) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Entry age | 7 | 13 |
| | Duration of level (years) | 6 | 4 |

| Source data | |
|---|---|
| School attendance (Table 2) | DHS 2011 |
| Population by age (Table 3) | UNPD data for 2011 (2010 revision) |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table 2 | Population by age | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Total population | | | | 1,134,762 | 1,184,249 | 1,113,622 | 1,151,735 | 1,062,480 | 1,107,185 | ######## | 927,327 | 1,194,672 | 1,080,608 | 1,065,802 |
| Table 3 | School attendance status (%) | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Out of school (OOS) | | | | 64.7 | 46.7 | 34.9 | 26.8 | 23.3 | 22.9 | 21.8 | 22.5 | 27.7 | 38.0 | 40.7 |
| | Dropped out | | | | 1.6 | 2.5 | 3.9 | 4.1 | 3.9 | 6.7 | 8.1 | 10.9 | 15.5 | 22.0 | 24.2 |
| | Never been in school | | | | 63.1 | 44.2 | 31.0 | 22.7 | 19.4 | 16.1 | 13.7 | 11.5 | 12.2 | 15.9 | 16.5 |
| | New entrants to primary school | | | | 25.1 | 26.1 | 23.2 | 16.7 | 10.2 | 8.7 | 5.1 | 3.6 | 2.7 | 1.7 | 1.0 |
| Table 4 | New entrants | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | New entrants as % of OOSC never in school in previous year | | | | 28.4 | 37.1 | 42.9 | 42.4 | 34.5 | 35.0 | 27.3 | 24.0 | 18.2 | 9.9 | 5.9 |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table 5 | Categories of OOSC (%) | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Dropped out | | | | 2.5 | 5.3 | 11.3 | 15.2 | 16.6 | 29.4 | 37.2 | 48.6 | 55.9 | 58.0 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 94.2 | 89.6 | 80.4 | 71.0 | 62.7 | 43.6 | 29.7 | 15.8 | 6.7 | 2.5 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 3.3 | 5.1 | 8.3 | 13.8 | 20.8 | 27.0 | 33.1 | 35.7 | 37.4 | 39.5 | |
| | **Categories of OOSC (population)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Dropped out | | | | 18,632 | 29,368 | 43,765 | 46,970 | 41,031 | 74,434 | 85,117 | 101,131 | 184,720 | 238,009 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 691,858 | 495,470 | 312,303 | 219,144 | 155,146 | 110,268 | 67,867 | 32,845 | 22,181 | 10,187 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 24,168 | 28,104 | 32,388 | 42,686 | 51,391 | 68,467 | 75,589 | 74,236 | 123,781 | 162,077 | |
| | Number of OOSC | | | | 734,659 | 552,942 | 388,456 | 308,800 | 247,567 | 253,169 | 228,572 | 208,212 | 330,682 | 410,274 | |

| Table 6 | Categories of OOSC (%) | Primary age (Dimension 2) | Lower secondary age (Dimension 3) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Dropped out (% of OOSC) | 10.2 | 51.7 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 (% of OOSC) | 79.8 | 11.3 |
| | Expected to never enter (% of OOSC) | 9.9 | 37.0 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 36.8 | 27.7 |
| | **Categories of OOSC (population)** | | |
| | Dropped out | 254,199 | 608,976 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | 1,984,188 | 133,080 |
| | Expected to never enter | 247,205 | 435,684 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 2,485,593 | 1,177,740 |

| | Primary age | Lower secondary age |
|---|---|---|
| Total population | 6,754,033 | 4,252,173 |
| Percent in school | 63.2 | 72.3 |
| Number in school | 4,268,441 | 3,074,433 |

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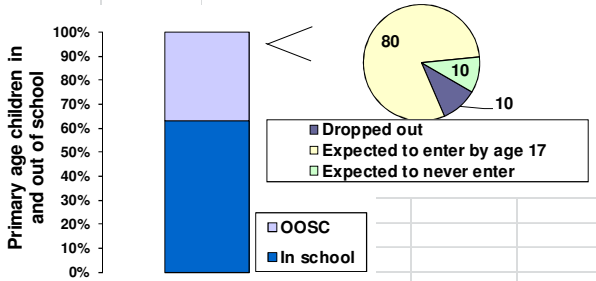

Ethiopia 2011

## Global Initiative on Out-of-school Children -- Calculation spreadsheet for Dimensions 2 and 3

Male

| Table 1 | Education system | Primary (ISCED 1) | Lower secondary (ISCED 2) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Entry age | 7 | 13 |
| | Duration of level (years) | 6 | 4 |

| | Source data | |
|---|---|---|
| | School attendance (Table 2) | DHS 2011 |
| | Population by age (Table 3) | UNPD data for 2011 (2010 revision) |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table 2 | Population by age | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Total population | | | | 1,194,388 | 1,129,189 | 1,179,669 | 1,117,247 | 1,179,512 | 1,104,973 | 1,127,505 | 1,208,387 | 894,281 | 959,045 | 922,634 |
| Table 3 | School attendance status (%) | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Out of school (OOS) | | | | 60.4 | 43.1 | 34.4 | 31.5 | 23.0 | 26.6 | 27.9 | 30.9 | 35.1 | 35.7 | 38.8 |
| | Dropped out | | | | 0.7 | 2.9 | 3.3 | 4.7 | 6.8 | 11.8 | 11.2 | 17.0 | 20.6 | 21.9 | 26.6 |
| | Never been in school | | | | 59.8 | 40.2 | 31.1 | 26.9 | 16.2 | 14.8 | 16.7 | 13.9 | 14.5 | 13.8 | 12.3 |
| | New entrants to primary school | | | | 27.7 | 27.3 | 22.6 | 16.4 | 14.3 | 6.5 | 7.0 | 4.1 | 3.6 | 1.9 | 1.6 |
| Table 4 | New entrants | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | New entrants as % of OOSC never in school in previous year | | | | 31.7 | 40.5 | 42.1 | 37.9 | 46.9 | 30.5 | 29.6 | 22.6 | 19.8 | 11.8 | 11.7 |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table 5 | Categories of OOSC (%) | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Dropped out | | | | 1.1 | 6.7 | 9.5 | 14.8 | 29.4 | 44.3 | 40.2 | 55.1 | 58.8 | 61.3 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 96.3 | 89.1 | 83.4 | 74.5 | 53.9 | 36.7 | 30.9 | 16.9 | 9.1 | 4.5 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 2.7 | 4.2 | 7.1 | 10.7 | 16.7 | 19.0 | 28.9 | 28.1 | 32.1 | 34.2 | |
| | **Categories of OOSC (population)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Dropped out | | | | 7,815 | 32,436 | 38,691 | 52,005 | 79,752 | 130,440 | 126,170 | 205,966 | 184,420 | 209,912 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 694,894 | 433,192 | 338,126 | 262,664 | 146,110 | 108,156 | 97,065 | 63,031 | 28,657 | 15,551 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 19,221 | 20,510 | 28,625 | 37,766 | 45,263 | 55,797 | 90,936 | 104,929 | 100,773 | 117,097 | |
| | Number of OOSC | | | | 721,929 | 486,138 | 405,441 | 352,434 | 271,124 | 294,393 | 314,171 | 373,927 | 313,850 | 342,560 | |

| Table 6 | Categories of OOSC (%) | Primary age (Dimension 2) | Lower secondary age (Dimension 3) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Dropped out (% of OOSC) | 13.5 | 54.0 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 (% of OOSC) | 78.3 | 15.2 |
| | Expected to never enter (% of OOSC) | 8.2 | 30.8 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 36.7 | 32.1 |
| | **Categories of OOSC (population)** | | |
| | Dropped out | 341,137 | 726,468 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | 1,983,142 | 204,305 |
| | Expected to never enter | 207,181 | 413,735 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 2,531,460 | 1,344,508 |

| | Primary age | Lower secondary age |
|---|---|---|
| Total population | 6,904,978 | 4,189,217 |
| Percent in school | 63.3 | 67.9 |
| Number in school | 4,373,518 | 2,844,710 |

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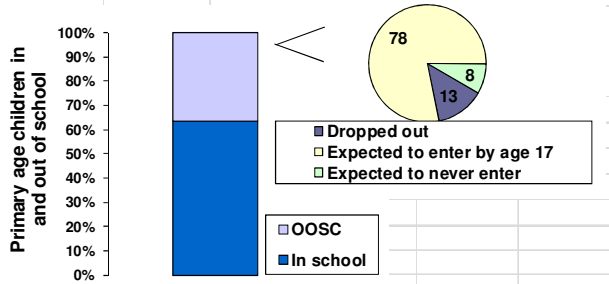

Ethiopia 2011

## Global Initiative on Out-of-school Children -- Calculation spreadsheet for Dimensions 2 and 3

Urban

| Table 1 | Education system | Primary (ISCED 1) | Lower secondary (ISCED 2) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Entry age | 7 | 13 |
| | Duration of level (years) | 6 | 4 |

| Source data | |
|---|---|
| School attendance (Table 2) | DHS 2011 |
| Population by age (Table 3) | UNPD data for 2011 (2010 revision) |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table 2 | Population by age | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Total population | | | | 279,964 | 319,948 | 293,083 | 287,480 | 439,655 | 349,300 | 325,254 | 429,279 | 389,172 | 428,123 | 491,939 |
| Table 3 | School attendance status (%) | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Out of school (OOS) | | | | 27.9 | 19.0 | 14.2 | 11.3 | 6.1 | 10.1 | 8.8 | 11.4 | 13.8 | 19.1 | 26.6 |
| | Dropped out | | | | 0.0 | 0.7 | 2.9 | 2.3 | 1.2 | 2.3 | 4.4 | 7.6 | 8.0 | 13.2 | 23.4 |
| | Never been in school | | | | 27.9 | 18.3 | 11.3 | 9.0 | 4.9 | 7.8 | 4.5 | 3.7 | 5.8 | 5.9 | 3.2 |
| | New entrants to primary school | | | | 51.6 | 25.8 | 18.2 | 11.1 | 2.2 | 4.6 | 4.0 | 0.7 | 3.8 | 2.6 | 0.0 |
| Table 4 | New entrants | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | New entrants as % of OOSC never in school in previous year | | | | 64.9 | 58.5 | 61.8 | 55.2 | 31.0 | 37.1 | 47.0 | 15.3 | 39.7 | 30.4 | 0.6 |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table 5 | Categories of OOSC (%) | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Dropped out | | | | 0.1 | 3.8 | 20.6 | 20.1 | 19.0 | 23.1 | 49.5 | 67.3 | 58.2 | 69.3 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 99.3 | 94.8 | 76.5 | 73.4 | 71.4 | 62.5 | 32.7 | 19.1 | 12.9 | 0.2 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 0.6 | 1.3 | 2.9 | 6.5 | 9.5 | 14.4 | 17.8 | 13.6 | 28.9 | 30.5 | |
| | **Categories of OOSC (population)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Dropped out | | | | 116 | 2,325 | 8,574 | 6,526 | 5,109 | 8,159 | 14,228 | 32,838 | 31,280 | 56,719 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 77,574 | 57,753 | 31,788 | 23,886 | 19,165 | 22,071 | 9,401 | 9,294 | 6,947 | 158 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 450 | 814 | 1,202 | 2,112 | 2,556 | 5,076 | 5,122 | 6,636 | 15,546 | 24,958 | |
| | Number of OOSC | | | | 78,140 | 60,892 | 41,564 | 32,524 | 26,830 | 35,307 | 28,751 | 48,769 | 53,773 | 81,835 | |

| Table 6 | Categories of OOSC (%) | Primary age (Dimension 2) | Lower secondary age (Dimension 3) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Dropped out (% of OOSC) | 11.2 | 63.4 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 (% of OOSC) | 84.4 | 12.1 |
| | Expected to never enter (% of OOSC) | 4.4 | 24.5 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 14.0 | 13.6 |
| | **Categories of OOSC (population)** | | |
| | Dropped out | 30,810 | 135,064 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | 232,237 | 25,800 |
| | Expected to never enter | 12,210 | 52,263 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 275,257 | 213,127 |

| | Primary age | Lower secondary age |
|---|---|---|
| Total population | 1,969,429 | 1,571,828 |
| Percent in school | 86.0 | 86.4 |
| Number in school | 1,694,172 | 1,358,701 |

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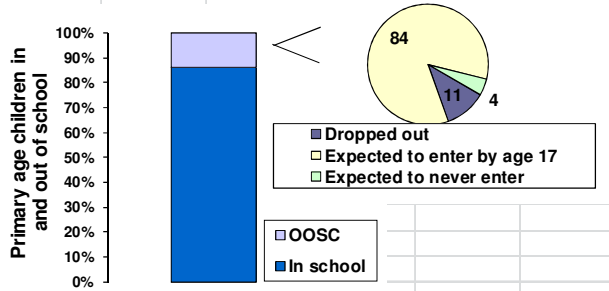

Ethiopia 2011

## Global Initiative on Out-of-school Children -- Calculation spreadsheet for Dimensions 2 and 3

Rural

| Table 1 | Education system | Primary (ISCED 1) | Lower secondary (ISCED 2) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Entry age | 7 | 13 |
| | Duration of level (years) | 6 | 4 |

| | Source data | |
|---|---|---|
| | School attendance (Table 2) | DHS 2011 |
| | Population by age (Table 3) | UNPD data for 2011 (2010 revision) |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table 2 | Population by age | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Total population | | | | 2,049,186 | 1,993,490 | 2,000,208 | 1,981,502 | 1,802,337 | 1,862,858 | 1,851,816 | 1,706,435 | 1,699,781 | 1,611,530 | 1,496,497 |
| Table 3 | School attendance status (%) | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Out of school (OOS) | | | | 49.1 | 37.6 | 31.7 | 27.3 | 27.5 | 27.8 | 31.2 | 34.8 | 41.7 | 44.2 | 60.4 |
| | Dropped out | | | | 3.0 | 3.7 | 4.7 | 6.4 | 10.6 | 10.6 | 16.1 | 19.9 | 24.3 | 25.9 | 35.2 |
| | Never been in school | | | | 46.1 | 33.9 | 27.1 | 20.9 | 16.9 | 17.1 | 15.2 | 14.9 | 17.4 | 18.3 | 25.2 |
| | New entrants to primary school | | | | 26.8 | 23.6 | 17.4 | 14.9 | 8.2 | 6.5 | 4.7 | 2.9 | 1.6 | 1.7 | 0.6 |
| Table 4 | New entrants | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | New entrants as % of OOSC never in school in previous year | | | | 36.8 | 41.0 | 39.1 | 41.6 | 32.6 | 27.5 | 23.6 | 16.4 | 8.4 | 8.7 | 2.4 |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table 5 | Categories of OOSC (%) | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Dropped out | | | | 6.1 | 9.8 | 14.7 | 23.5 | 38.4 | 38.3 | 51.4 | 57.2 | 58.3 | 58.7 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 88.9 | 82.0 | 72.6 | 56.9 | 38.3 | 29.5 | 15.4 | 7.8 | 4.5 | 1.0 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 5.0 | 8.2 | 12.7 | 19.5 | 23.3 | 32.2 | 33.2 | 35.0 | 37.2 | 40.4 | |
| | **Categories of OOSC (population)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Dropped out | | | | 61,157 | 73,632 | 93,347 | 127,316 | 190,424 | 198,209 | 297,562 | 339,356 | 412,906 | 417,523 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 893,836 | 614,668 | 460,770 | 308,124 | 189,740 | 152,343 | 89,098 | 46,473 | 32,010 | 6,938 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 50,615 | 61,428 | 80,747 | 105,608 | 115,564 | 166,429 | 192,028 | 207,543 | 263,463 | 287,274 | |
| | Number of OOSC | | | | 1,005,608 | 749,728 | 634,864 | 541,048 | 495,728 | 516,981 | 578,687 | 593,372 | 708,379 | 711,736 | |

| Table 6 | Categories of OOSC (%) | Primary age (Dimension 2) | Lower secondary age (Dimension 3) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Dropped out (% of OOSC) | 18.9 | 56.6 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 (% of OOSC) | 66.4 | 6.7 |
| | Expected to never enter (% of OOSC) | 14.7 | 36.7 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 33.7 | 37.7 |
| | **Categories of OOSC (population)** | | |
| | Dropped out | 744,085 | 1,467,347 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | 2,619,482 | 174,518 |
| | Expected to never enter | 580,391 | 950,308 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 3,943,958 | 2,592,173 |

| | Primary age | Lower secondary age |
|---|---|---|
| Total population | 11,689,582 | 6,869,562 |
| Percent in school | 66.3 | 62.3 |
| Number in school | 7,745,624 | 4,277,389 |

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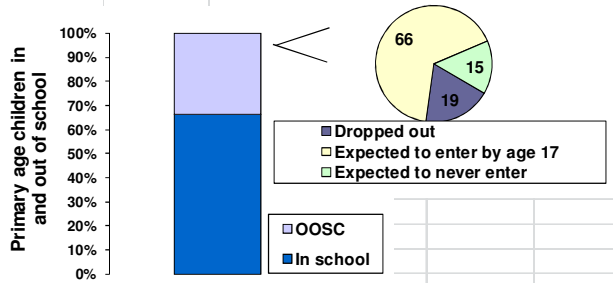

Ethiopia 2011

## Global Initiative on Out-of-school Children -- Calculation spreadsheet for Dimensions 2 and 3

Poor

| Table 1 | Education system | Primary (ISCED 1) | Lower secondary (ISCED 2) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Entry age | 7 | 13 |
| | Duration of level (years) | 6 | 4 |

| Source data | |
|---|---|
| School attendance (Table 2) | DHS 2011 |
| Population by age (Table 3) | UNPD data for 2011 (2010 revision) |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table 2 | Population by age | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Total population | | | | 528,950 | 511,038 | 448,568 | 479,890 | 442,121 | 461,677 | 422,352 | 411,766 | 408,599 | 382,231 | 297,072 |
| Table 3 | School attendance status (%) | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Out of school (OOS) | | | | 70.0 | 59.0 | 46.7 | 42.9 | 38.0 | 37.7 | 37.6 | 38.0 | 40.4 | 55.8 | 48.0 |
| | Dropped out | | | | 0.7 | 2.6 | 4.3 | 4.3 | 4.0 | 11.6 | 11.4 | 12.9 | 19.4 | 28.8 | 18.2 |
| | Never been in school | | | | 69.3 | 56.4 | 42.4 | 38.6 | 34.0 | 26.1 | 26.2 | 25.1 | 21.0 | 27.0 | 29.8 |
| | New entrants to primary school | | | | 21.0 | 23.1 | 24.6 | 13.8 | 17.7 | 10.0 | 8.6 | 6.1 | 4.9 | 1.5 | 2.3 |
| Table 4 | New entrants | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | New entrants as % of OOSC never in school in previous year | | | | 23.3 | 29.1 | 36.7 | 26.3 | 34.2 | 27.8 | 24.8 | 19.6 | 18.8 | 5.1 | 7.3 |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table 5 | Categories of OOSC (%) | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Dropped out | | | | 1.0 | 4.5 | 9.3 | 10.1 | 10.6 | 30.7 | 30.2 | 33.9 | 48.0 | 51.6 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 92.3 | 86.4 | 77.0 | 71.5 | 61.6 | 39.4 | 29.7 | 18.9 | 6.3 | 3.5 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 6.7 | 9.1 | 13.7 | 18.4 | 27.9 | 29.9 | 40.0 | 47.2 | 45.7 | 44.9 | |
| | Categories of OOSC (population) | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Dropped out | | | | 3,780 | 13,478 | 19,439 | 20,865 | 17,731 | 53,374 | 47,980 | 52,951 | 79,287 | 109,926 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 341,787 | 260,566 | 161,338 | 147,234 | 103,369 | 68,521 | 47,196 | 29,567 | 10,352 | 7,530 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 24,850 | 27,521 | 28,673 | 37,936 | 46,773 | 51,984 | 63,521 | 73,754 | 75,482 | 95,754 | |
| | Number of OOSC | | | | 370,417 | 301,565 | 209,450 | 206,035 | 167,873 | 173,880 | 158,696 | 156,271 | 165,121 | 213,210 | |

| Table 6 | Categories of OOSC (%) | Primary age (Dimension 2) | Lower secondary age (Dimension 3) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Dropped out (% of OOSC) | 9.0 | 41.8 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 (% of OOSC) | 75.8 | 13.7 |
| | Expected to never enter (% of OOSC) | 15.2 | 44.5 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 49.8 | 42.7 |
| | Categories of OOSC (population) | | |
| | Dropped out | 128,668 | 290,143 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | 1,082,815 | 94,644 |
| | Expected to never enter | 217,738 | 308,511 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 1,429,221 | 693,298 |

| | Primary age | Lower secondary age |
|---|---|---|
| Total population | 2,872,244 | 1,624,947 |
| Percent in school | 50.2 | 57.3 |
| Number in school | 1,443,023 | 931,650 |

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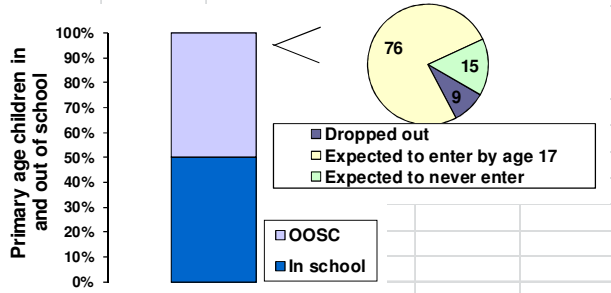

Ethiopia 2011

## Global Initiative on Out-of-school Children -- Calculation spreadsheet for Dimensions 2 and 3

Rich

| Table 1 | Education system | Primary (ISCED 1) | Lower secondary (ISCED 2) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Entry age | 7 | 13 |
| | Duration of level (years) | 6 | 4 |

| Source data | |
|---|---|
| School attendance (Table 2) | DHS 2011 |
| Population by age (Table 3) | UNPD data for 2011 (2010 revision) |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table 2 | Population by age | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Total population | | | | 333,767 | 348,404 | 371,972 | 318,338 | 475,078 | 417,877 | 373,585 | 479,681 | 409,853 | 467,488 | 513,215 |
| Table 3 | School attendance status (%) | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Out of school (OOS) | | | | 26.1 | 17.5 | 13.3 | 13.3 | 7.2 | 9.7 | 12.1 | 9.7 | 15.5 | 19.4 | 28.2 |
| | Dropped out | | | | 0.0 | 0.5 | 3.6 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 3.5 | 6.9 | 7.2 | 10.1 | 13.9 | 23.8 |
| | Never been in school | | | | 26.1 | 17.0 | 9.8 | 11.1 | 4.8 | 6.3 | 5.3 | 2.5 | 5.3 | 5.5 | 4.5 |
| | New entrants to primary school | | | | 52.5 | 29.6 | 22.7 | 8.6 | 3.6 | 4.9 | 2.5 | 0.9 | 3.6 | 2.2 | 0.0 |
| Table 4 | New entrants | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | New entrants as % of OOSC never in school in previous year | | | | 66.8 | 63.5 | 69.9 | 43.8 | 43.1 | 44.1 | 32.0 | 26.4 | 40.3 | 28.8 | 0.4 |

| | | | | | Primary age | | | | | | Lower secondary age | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Table 5 | Categories of OOSC (%) | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 |
| | Dropped out | | | | 0.1 | 2.8 | 26.9 | 17.1 | 33.8 | 35.8 | 56.6 | 74.0 | 65.4 | 71.5 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 99.5 | 96.1 | 70.3 | 77.3 | 58.4 | 50.6 | 29.9 | 15.0 | 10.1 | 0.1 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 0.4 | 1.1 | 2.8 | 5.6 | 7.8 | 13.6 | 13.5 | 11.0 | 24.5 | 28.4 | |
| | **Categories of OOSC (population)** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | Dropped out | | | | 64 | 1,708 | 13,357 | 7,274 | 11,555 | 14,583 | 25,595 | 34,382 | 41,422 | 64,940 | |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | | | | 86,739 | 58,572 | 34,912 | 32,851 | 19,988 | 20,593 | 13,540 | 6,983 | 6,390 | 111 | |
| | Expected to never enter | | | | 362 | 675 | 1,374 | 2,372 | 2,683 | 5,525 | 6,114 | 5,112 | 15,530 | 25,797 | |
| | Number of OOSC | | | | 87,165 | 60,955 | 49,643 | 42,498 | 34,225 | 40,701 | 45,249 | 46,478 | 63,341 | 90,848 | |

| Table 6 | Categories of OOSC (%) | Primary age (Dimension 2) | Lower secondary age (Dimension 3) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Dropped out (% of OOSC) | 15.4 | 67.6 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 (% of OOSC) | 80.5 | 11.0 |
| | Expected to never enter (% of OOSC) | 4.1 | 21.4 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 13.9 | 14.2 |
| | **Categories of OOSC (population)** | | |
| | Dropped out | 48,540 | 166,339 |
| | Expected to enter by age 17 | 253,655 | 27,024 |
| | Expected to never enter | 12,991 | 52,553 |
| | Total out-of-school children | 315,186 | 245,917 |

| | Primary age | Lower secondary age |
|---|---|---|
| Total population | 2,265,436 | 1,730,608 |
| Percent in school | 86.1 | 85.8 |
| Number in school | 1,950,250 | 1,484,691 |

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