Provision of and Participation in Primary Education in the Pastoralist Regions of Afar and Somali of Ethiopia
PETROS WOLDEGIORGIS WOLDESENBET

Provision of and Participation in Primary Education in the Pastoralist Regions of Afar and Somali of Ethiopia

ACADEMIC DISSERTATION
To be presented, with the permission of the Board of the School of Education of the University of Tampere, for public discussion in the Auditorium of the Virta building (room Virta 109), Åkerlundinkatu 5, Tampere, on 29 October 2015, at 12 o’clock.

UNIVERSITY OF TAMPERE
PETROS WOLDEGIORGIS WOLDESENBET

Provision of and Participation in Primary Education in the Pastoralist Regions of Afar and Somali of Ethiopia

Acta Universitatis Tamperensis 2106
Tampere University Press
Tampere 2015
Table of Contents

List of Abbreviations ........................................................................................................ iv
List of Tables ..................................................................................................................... vi
List of Photos .................................................................................................................... vii
Acknowledgements ........................................................................................................ viii
1. Introduction .................................................................................................................... 1
   1.2. Statement of the Problem and Purpose of the Study ................................................. 3
   1.3. Significance of the Study .......................................................................................... 5
   1.4. Delimitation of the Study ......................................................................................... 6
   1.5 Limitations of the Study ........................................................................................... 6
   1.6. Structure of the Dissertation ................................................................................... 7
2. Review of the Relevant Literature .................................................................................. 8
   2.1. Historical Overview of Education in Ethiopia .......................................................... 8
   2.2. Education and the Pastoralists of Ethiopia .............................................................. 10
   2.3. Dimensions of Educational Provision in Ethiopia ................................................... 12
       2.3.2. Equity ................................................................................................................. 14
       2.3.3. Quality ............................................................................................................... 14
       2.3.4. Efficiency .......................................................................................................... 17
   2.4. Constraints of Educational Provision to Pastoralists ............................................. 18
       2.4.1. In-school constraints ....................................................................................... 18
       2.4.2. Out-of-School Constraints .............................................................................. 21
   2.5. Intervention Strategies to Foster Educational Provision among Pastoralists .......... 28
       2.5.1. Alternative Basic Education (ABE) ................................................................. 28
2.5.2. School feeding programme................................................................. 29
2.5.3. Mobile schools.................................................................................. 30
2.5.4. Boarding School and Other Related Strategies................................. 30

3. Methodology.............................................................................................. 32

3.1. Overview of the Research Sites............................................................... 32
3.1.1. The Afar national regional state ......................................................... 32
3.1.2. The Somali national regional state ....................................................... 33
3.1.3. Selected schools from the Afar and Somali national regional states .... 34

3.2. Research Design .................................................................................... 34

3.3. Sources of Data....................................................................................... 36

3.4. Instruments of Data Collection ................................................................ 37

3.5. Validation of Data Collection Instruments ............................................. 39

3.6. Procedures of Data Collection ................................................................. 39

3.7. Ethical Considerations ........................................................................... 40

3.8. Analysis of Data ..................................................................................... 41

4. Research Findings....................................................................................... 43

4.1. Status of Provision of and Participation in Primary School ................. 45
4.1.1. Access to primary education............................................................... 46
4.1.2. Equity in education............................................................................. 53
4.1.3. Quality of education.......................................................................... 59
4.1.4. Efficiency in education..................................................................... 71

4.2. Constraints of Educational Provision and Participation ....................... 77
4.2.1. In-school constraints......................................................................... 77
4.2.2. Out-of-school constraints................................................................. 97

5. Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations........................................ 110

5.1. Summary of the Major Findings............................................................. 110

5.2. Conclusion ............................................................................................ 120
5.3. Recommendations ........................................................................................................... 123

References ................................................................................................................................... 132

Appendices ................................................................................................................................... 145

Appendix I: Interview Item I ...................................................................................................... 145
Appendix II: Interview Items II .................................................................................................... 148
Appendix III: Interview Items III ................................................................................................ 151
Appendix IV: Initiating Items for FGD ........................................................................................ 154
Appendix V: Checklist Items for Classroom Observation and Document Review .............. 157
Appendix VI: Different Letters from Concerned Organizations to Get the Consent of Participants ......................................................................................................................................... 160
Appendix VII: Definition of Terms .............................................................................................. 163
**List of Abbreviations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABE</td>
<td>Alternative Basic Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AIR</td>
<td>Apparent Intake Rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BESO</td>
<td>Basic Education Strategic Overhaul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRDA</td>
<td>Christian Relief Development Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSA</td>
<td>Central Statistical Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESDP</td>
<td>Education Sector Development Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDRE</td>
<td>Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FGD</td>
<td>Focus Group Discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FGM</td>
<td>Female Genital Mutilation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEQIP</td>
<td>General Educational Quality Improvement Package</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GER</td>
<td>Gross Enrolment Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GMR</td>
<td>Global Monitoring Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPI</td>
<td>Gender Parity Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GTP</td>
<td>Growth and Transformation Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IIEP</td>
<td>International Institute for Educational Planning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MDG</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOEST</td>
<td>Ministry of Education, Science and Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NER</td>
<td>Net Enrolment Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIR</td>
<td>Net Intake Rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OVC</td>
<td>Orphan Vulnerable Children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSR</td>
<td>Pupil Section Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTA</td>
<td>Parent-Teacher Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTR</td>
<td>Pupil Teacher Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REB</td>
<td>Regional Education Bureau</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIP</td>
<td>School Improvement Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNNPR</td>
<td>Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Region</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SIDA: Swedish International Development Agency
UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF: United Nations Children’s Fund
UPE: Universal Primary Education
WFP: World Food Program
List of Tables

Table 1. Primary education GER and NER in Ethiopia ................................................................. 13
Table 2. Characteristics of participants - Gender and years of experience.................................... 43
Table 3. Characteristics of participants - Ethnic composition .......................................................... 44
Table 4. Apparent intake rates (AIR) ............................................................................................... 46
Table 5. Net intake rates (NIR) ......................................................................................................... 46
Table 6. Gross enrolment ratio (grade 1-8) ....................................................................................... 50
Table 7. Net enrolment ratio (grade 1-8) ......................................................................................... 50
Table 8. Apparent intake rate and gender parity index (GPI) .............................................................. 54
Table 9. Students learning in urban and rural primary schools ......................................................... 57
Table 10. Number and percentage of primary schools in urban and rural parts ............................... 57
Table 11. Pupil-teacher ratio ........................................................................................................... 60
Table 12. Pupil-section ratio ............................................................................................................. 61
Table 13. Certified primary school teachers ..................................................................................... 62
Table 14. Pedagogical centre ........................................................................................................... 63
Table 15. Available libraries ............................................................................................................ 65
Table 16. Dropout rate ..................................................................................................................... 71
Table 17. Repetition rate .................................................................................................................. 74
**Table 18.** Completion rate ............................................................................................................ 76
Table 19. Access to water .................................................................................................................. 80
Table 20. Status of provision of and participation in primary education ......................................... 111
Table 21: Constraints of educational provision and participation .................................................. 116
List of Photos

Photo 1: Dufti Arategna Ersha Tabia Primary School of Afar with a preponderance of girls in class ..... 55
Photo 2: Serdo School in Afar, nearly half of the students dropped out ........................................ 58
Photo 3: Tome school in the Somali region with water and a relatively good school compound .......... 81
Photo 4: Serdo primary school in Afar with part of the room taken by the desert wind (built by SIDA in 1971) .................................................................................................................................................. 82
Photo 5: Students in a less attractive classroom at Berso School in Afar ................................................ 83
Photo 6: Berso School in Afar, with no playground fence and other facilities ..................................... 84
Photo 7: A teacher teaching science in Amharic at Dufti Arategna Ersha Tabia Primary School in the Afar region .......................................................................................................................................................... 92
Photo 8: A teacher in the Somali region, Karbeje Primary School teaching in the children’s mother tongue (Somali) .............................................................................................................................................. 94
Photo 9: Harsis school in Afar region. Total drop out .............................................................................. 96
Photo 10: Interactive discussion with the PTA of Karbeje Primary School (Somali region) ................. 100
Acknowledgements

...Who am I, O Lord God? And what is my house that thou hast
brought me hitherto? 2nd Samuel 7 verses18

First of all, I would like to forward my deepest and heartfelt thanks to almighty God for His assistance throughout my stay and study in Tampere. God it is by Your power that I passed all the ups and downs in my life and came to see one of your provisions; the completion of this dissertation. God, I know and never forget where I came from and who I was. As a true father You guided me throughout my ways towards this height. I thank you for ever.

I express my great appreciation and deepest thanks to my supervisor Professor Tuomas Takala for his invaluable motivation, and generous provision of his rich professional expertise that guided my work from inception to completion. His resourceful and scholarly advice made me to learn a lot and modify my current professional calibre. His critical and concerned reviews and comments on my dissertation were not only vital sources of encouragement and energy in doing my dissertation, but they were also builders of my future research calibre and capabilities. He guided and helped me not only as a supervisor but also as my adviser, teacher, and counsellor. Therefore, my heartfelt words of gratitude go to him for his indispensable scholarly support. I also wish to thank and express my appreciation to the external examiner Dr. Polit. Tove Nagel (Norway) and Docent Elina Lehtomäki (Adjunct Professor in Education at the University of Helsinki and senior researcher at University of Jyväskylä, Finland) for their constructive feedback and invaluable comments. I would also like to thank Professor Eeva Hujala, Dr. Abebaw Adamu, Dr. Aster Minwuyelet, and Mr. Kifle Haile for their critical comments at different stages of my research.

Special thank goes to Dr. Kaba Urgessa (state minister for higher education of Ethiopia), Dr. Retta Menberu, Mr. Maeregö Habtemariam, Mr. Admasu Ango and Mr. Binyam Nehmia for being so very helpful in various ways in the realization of my dream; the completion of my study.

I also have absolute and extremely unforgettable appreciation for Miss Merja Huttunen. She not only supported me financially but also encouraged me by visiting the research sites of my study found in both the remotest and warmest parts of Ethiopia. I thank her for her dedication in helping me. Had it not been for the support I got from her, I would have never proceeded and completed this work at this pace, rather, I might have stopped the work somewhere in the middle of my
journey or delayed its completion. I cannot find words or phrases that might adequately express my deep appreciation to her. I can never forget her kindness in looking at people equally. Her loyalty and trustworthiness in looking at people fairly make her unique. I am sincerely grateful to her and my appreciation extends to her kind contribution to my study. She is a continuous source of my motivation and economic power that helped me to pursue my study with little or no financial constraints. I once more, would like to exactly express my profound respect to her and her family.

I would like to extend my warmest gratitude to my wife, Asegash Kebede Seyoum, for her courage in taking care of our children while I was studying for my PhD. My dear wife, I remember and will never forget the moment I dropped our lovely children on your shoulders and went to study for my Bachelor’s and Master’s degrees. Again, I went to study in a country which is far from our home country and this made it difficult for us to visit each other as many times as we wanted. I know I was not able to share both your happiness and sadness, but you never complained about this. I am blessed to have a spiritually strong wife like you. It is because of your unreserved love, support, tolerance and persistence that I was able to achieve all my academic and personal goals. After this long journey, now, it is time to pick up our common fruits and rejoice together. Hence, this work is especially dedicated to you!

I am so grateful to all my respondents who supported me in providing authentic information during my data collection. I wish to thank Mr. Jussi Karakoski who motivated me to study in Finland by providing so much information about living and studying in Finland.

I am grateful to the Ministry of Education of Ethiopia and Mizan Tepi University for their partial financial support for my study expenses and research respectively. Similarly, I am thankful to the School of Education of Tampere University for the financial support which helped me to participate in various conferences and research seminars where I had various opportunities to present my work and to receive feedback from different people participating in the conferences and seminars.

Petros Woldegiorgis Woldesenbet
Tampere, Finland September, 2015
Abstract

Provision of quality and equitable primary education is crucial to all societies, including the disadvantaged people living in developing countries. Such education fills not only socioeconomic but also political gaps, which, in turn, fosters local, regional and national development and integrity. Therefore, the main purpose of this study was to investigate the provision and participation in primary education in the pastoralist regions of the Afar and Somali in Ethiopia. To achieve this purpose, a qualitative research method was employed. Interviews were conducted to gather data from state ministers, experts, directors, university students, heads of education at regional, zonal and woreda (district) level. Focus group discussions were used to gather data from school teachers and members of parent teacher associations. Observation and document review were also used to gather data from schools and documents respectively. The data obtained through these data collection instruments were analysed thematically. The results show that the status of provision and participation in primary school in the Afar region was lower than that of the Somali regional state and the national average. Even though the Somali region outperformed the Afar region, much remains to be done to achieve the EFA goals in this region too. The result also indicates several in-school and out of school constraints inhibit the provision and participation of primary education and thereby the achievement of EFA in both regions in general and in Afar in particular. Thus, based on the findings, recommendation is made to planners and policymakers so as to alleviate the observed shortcomings. In this manner, it was also forwarded that further and thorough studies are needed to solve the interwoven problems of educational delivery towards EFA in both regions.
Dedicated to my wife Asegash Kebede Seyoum with honor and love!!!!
1. Introduction

1.1. Background

Education is a social process by which human beings pass commonly accepted and accumulated knowledge and skills from generation to generation in order to develop all-rounded personality in the learners and involve them in all forms of national concerns through effective and efficient use of the scarce resources (Fagerlind & Saha, 1991). Quality education is also considered to be a tool that strengthens the problem-solving capacity and positive behaviour of the individual learners (Ginsburg & Schubert, 2001). It contributes to establishing comfortable conditions for improving quality of life, fostering mutual understanding and cooperation among people, and promoting human rights (Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia [FDRE], 1994). Hence it is necessary to provide quality education for all children in the world to make them active citizens who play important roles in progressing economic and social development of their own, their family and their nation (Galabawa & Alphonse, 2005; Ingram, Wils, Carrol, & Townsend, 2007).

Education plays a decisive role in improving the living standards of citizens so that nations without basic knowledge and skills might not fulfill the survival criteria in an increasingly knowledge driven world (Liu, 2004). Moreover, the provision of education to all citizens has become not only a national issue but also an international agenda linked to humanity. The United Nations’ declaration on human rights states that individuals irrespective of their age, sex and social status have the right to education (Lerner, 1991). The 1959 declaration of the rights of children also clearly stipulates that countries that fail to provide education for all school age children will be deemed to be neglecting their duties. This is because inability to address these rights in some context makes the victims incompetent for sociopolitical participation on the issues that might affect them (UNESCO, 1996). Primary education is assumed to be the basic tool for welfare of the nations through improvement of productivity and reduction of poverty (Colclough & Levin, 1993; Debebe, 2014; Kadzamira & Rose, 2003), conservation of environmental sanitation and assurance of family health (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991) as well as strengthening good governance and participation in the community (World Bank, 1995). Thus, primary education started to be seen not only as part and parcel of major human rights but also as one of the leading political and social agendas of many countries (Tisdell, 1997; UNICEF, 2007).
The value attached to primary education has resulted in a situation where in many countries such educational provision has become compulsory by law (Liu, 2004). This forced each country to provide free primary education to all its citizens (World Bank, 1980). Accordingly, at a conference held in Addis Ababa in 1961, African countries decided to achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) by 1980. After about three decades, an international conference on education was held at Jomtien-Thailand in 1990 on universalizing primary education by the year 2000. After a decade the world education forum was held in April 2000 in Dakar, Senegal. In this forum many countries decided to eradicate extreme poverty and improve the welfare of their people by providing education for all their citizens by 2015 (Bruns, Mingat, & Rakotomalala, 2003). These show the efforts made both at continental and global level to ensure the provision of primary education for all individuals.

In Africa, after the end of European colonization, countries like Kenya, Nigeria, Ghana and Ethiopia¹, showed their strong need and action for the implementation of UPE. Although remarkable improvement have been made in these countries in widening access to primary education to school-age children, they have still a long way to go to meet the goal of UPE (Gudeta, 1982; Mulugeta, 1998). These and other countries in the world were and are still trying to address education for their society including pastoralists (Education Policy and Data Centre [EPDC], 2007; Ndagala, 1990; European Commission, 2003).

Similar to the benefits it provides to other societies, it is believed that primary education benefits pastoralists by providing basic knowledge and skills to create bases for all rounded development (FDRE, 2002). International reports indicate the importance of providing primary education for all children from different backgrounds. According to the World Bank, (1998), “education can increase social cohesion by teaching children to learn and work together with others from different social or ethnic groups early in life, contributing to nation-building and personal tolerance. Broad and equitable access to education is thus essential for sustained progress toward democracy, civic participation, and better governance” (p. 8). Hence, achieving the provision of UPE, which is the second Millennium Development Goal, for vulnerable and disadvantaged children of some ethnic minorities (Bruns, Mingat, & Rakotomalala, 2003) as well as pastoralists (Mfum-Mensha, 2001), became one of the major contemporary duties of governments of nations.

¹Ethiopia is one of the two African countries that retained their sovereignty during the colonial era.
in the world, even though this goal is both complex to measure and ambitious to achieve (Omoeva, Sylla, Hatch, & Gale, 2013).

1.2. Statement of the Problem and Purpose of the Study

According to UNESCO, in 2011 there were about 61 and 71 million children in the world who were not attending primary and secondary schools respectively (UNESCO, 2012 cited in Omoeva, Sylla, Hatch, & Gale 2013). Out of these children, 30.6 million were found in Sub-Saharan Africa and 3.9% of these children were found in Ethiopia. In relation to this, the Ethiopian Ministry of Education (MoE, 2010), states that:

> Notwithstanding the significant progress in access and the improvements in some equity indicators, participation levels at primary education 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. 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 (p.13).

The available data clearly indicates that, from the societies who are out of school in Ethiopia, a remarkable share goes to pastoralists (MoE, 2012/13). The majority of pastoral societies are to be found in seventeen African countries (Ezeomah, 1998). These communities were estimated to account for 6% of the African population and found to be disadvantaged with respect to social services including provision of education (Carr-Hill, 2005). Reasons for providing education to pastoralists include the need to ensure modernization, poverty reduction, effective self-governance and management of locally available resources, and also national integration (Kratli, 2006). With regard to this, various surveys conducted in Djibouti, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda (Carr-Hill & Peart, 2005), in Nigeria (Tahir, 1998), and in Ethiopia (Debebe 2014; Woldesenbet, 2013) showed that pastoralists are critical of the existing provision and enthusiastic regarding relevant education. These societies have been adversely affected by poor support in sustaining their socio-economic progress. Such problems create socio-economic disparity among
people, which could be called unfair treatment among citizens in building their capacity and helping them improve their lives (Tekeste, 1990).

Other studies and reports indicate that many pastoralist children are still not in school and as a result, disparities persist (Basiamang, 2006; Mohanty, 2002; UNESCO, 2002). In Ethiopia, for instance, in Afar region 55.5% of lower primary (grades 1-4) and 92% of upper primary (grades 5-8) school-age children respectively are not in school. Although improvement has been seen in the case of Somalis, 23.3% of lower primary and 88.6% of upper primary school-age children respectively have been out of school (MoE, 2012/13). This shows that achieving Education for All (EFA) or UPE in these regions is indeed difficult.

Most pastoralist areas are endowed with less utilized natural resources and products of domestic animals that would help national growth (Ezeomah, 1987). In addition to this, because of their low educational participation and shortage of related knowledge and skills, pastoralists are deprived not only economically but also politically, which made them less represented in the major decision-making posts of their countries (Ismail, 2002). However, there is a lack of research on the provision of primary education in pastoralist regions in Ethiopia, and this significantly affected developing delivery strategies and the adoption of alternative programs as remedial solutions ultimately contributing to achieving the goals of EFA. Therefore, the long years of experience I have had in closely working with pastoralists, the master’s thesis I made on educational provision among pastoralists on a research title “Pastoralism/Nomadism and education in Ethiopia: The case of Surma” as well as the opportunity I got to serve as communication director (spokesman) of Ministry of Education of the country gave me the chance to work with the pastoralists of Afar and Somali regions. All these helped me to develop a deep impression and motivation to do this research that might solve problems related to education for the marginalized community in the regions.

Thus, this study aims at providing a better understanding of the status of provision of and participation in primary education of pastoralist regions. It also provides a better understanding of factors affecting the attainment of EFA in pastoralist regions. This is carried out by examining the provision and participation in primary education of the Afar and Somali regional states in Ethiopia. In line with this purpose, the research aims to answer the following research questions.
• What is the status of educational provision of and participation in selected primary schools of pastoral regions in Ethiopia?
• What are the major constraints hindering the attainment of EFA/UPE in the targeted research areas in the regions?

It is believed that major constraints affecting the provision of and participation in primary education also inhibit the attainment of EFA in the regions. Hence the analysis often takes this relationship into consideration.

1.3. Significance of the Study

This study is assumed to have the following significances both at policy and practice level. Governments are urgently required to achieve EFA. This requires identification of the extent and severity of factors that affect achieving EFA. Thus, this study contributes by providing relevant information regarding the status of provision of and participation in primary education in the pastoralist regions so as to achieve EFA. The study moreover attempts an examination of the relevance and effectiveness of the strategies used to strengthen educational provision in the regions. Hence educational planners and leaders in the nation in general and in the regions in particular get a clearer understanding of the actual gaps of the existing modes of educational delivery, and this will help them in developing better and more suitable educational provision strategies.

Since education provides new knowledge and skills as well as new technology that the communities might use to improve their productivity, application of the recommendations put forward in this study might help people to secure both economic and social gains that might transfer and simplify their lives.

Additionally, national development depends on integrated economic, technological and social progress among its subparts. Thus, this study attempted to identify the observed limitations of the capacity for integrated development in the regions and suggests feasible mechanisms as a strategic tool for improving their capacity and fostering the direct participation of these disadvantaged groups in political matters that might change their lives.
Finally, education related problems and factors affecting educational provision may change over time and may demand new or timely research based policy and practical interventions. Thus interested scholars can use the outputs of this research as stepping stones or input to conduct further studies in the area under consideration.

1.4. Delimitation of the Study

Educational provision has different problems in all parts of the country and at all levels of schooling. Schools in pastoralist areas were selected because of their exceptionally low participation rate in Ethiopia. Pastoralists in Ethiopia are mainly found in the north-eastern, eastern, southern, south-eastern and extreme south-western parts of the country and almost all are found in marginal border areas where there are different problems with social services. However, only the Afar and Somali regions are selected as a target groups for this study, mainly because they are known for having the lowest participation in education (MoE, 2012/13). Thus the study does not include provision of education and participation in primary schools in other pastoral regions in Ethiopia.

1.5 Limitations of the Study

This study has the following limitations. First, there was shortage of finance and other related resources. Second, because of the mobile lifestyle of pastoralists, it was very difficult to get some members of the PTAs at a given place and time for data collection. Third, there were discrepancies between nationally and regionally published data. Fourth, not all the elements of the six goals of EFA are given an in-depth investigation to get deep and holistic impressions on the study. Fifth, the role of alternative basic education in the provision of primary education is undoubtedly high. Hence, I tried to gather and analyse a little data on this modality of educational delivery. Nonetheless, due to the extended nature of the non-formal educational contexts, I could not achieve comprehensive coverage of this issue. Finally, I want to stress that most of the literature reviewed on pastoralist education in Ethiopia was from African and Asian countries. Conversely, archaeologists, anthropologists, geologists and paleontologists are flooding to the Afar region to study the older and historical issues of the people, because Afar is the site of the earliest discovered human beings. Therefore, such observed limitations (gaps) are left to be covered by other
educational researchers so as to propose remedies that would solve the socio-economic problems of the people.

1.6. Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation is structured into five chapters. The first chapter includes an introduction, a statement of the problem and purpose of the study, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, and limitation of the study. Chapter Two presents a review of the relevant literature, which is a critical summary of the contents, context and some views related to the issues under study. Chapter Three deals with the methodology, which includes the research design, research participants, participant selection strategies, sources of data, data collection instruments, data analysis procedure and ethical considerations. The fourth chapter describes the research findings. The last chapter, Chapter Five, contains summaries of major findings, conclusions and feasible recommendations related to the results of the study.
2. Review of the Relevant Literature

2.1. Historical Overview of Education in Ethiopia

Basically a well-organized system of non-formal education was started in Ethiopia with the introduction of Orthodox Christianity during the Axumite Kingdom in 330 A.D (Zewde, 2002). The Ethiopian Orthodox Church was the leading institution for education until the introduction of modern education at the beginning of the 20th century. The first Orthodox Christian priest, called Aba-Selama, was also the first teacher in Ethiopia (Dagne, 1976). The primary goals of this education were initially to make learners servants of the church and secondly to produce civil servants like administrators, and government officials (Amare, 1967; Wagaw, 1979). Modern education was started with introduction of expatriates from countries like Britain, France, Italy, the USA and Egypt (Tekeste, 1990; Pankhurst, 1962) and the first government school in Ethiopia, called Menelik II School, was established in Addis Ababa in 1908 by Emperor Menelik II, who was the governor of Ethiopia at that time. Modern education was initiated in order to achieve global recognition, and as the result of this some countries in Europe and Asia initiated diplomatic relations with Ethiopia (Ayalew, 1982).

Emperor Menelik II issued the first proclamation on education in 1906. According to this proclamation all school-age children were required to go to school to get free education. To strengthen education for all school-age children, Emperor Menelik agreed with the conservative leaders of the Ethiopian Orthodox Church about teaching modern education in the church in addition to church education, under the supervision of the Ministry of Education (Tekeste, 1990). After the death of Emperor Menelik in 1913 a more conservative empress named Zewditu came to power and then the Ethiopian clergy and nobility closed down modern education (Ayalew, 1982).

Later on, Ras Teferi, also called Emperor Haileselassie, who was a student of the Menelik II School, reopened modern schools in Addis Ababa and hired new principals and teachers from France and made them teach in through the medium of French (Wagaw, 1979). Even though the clergy strongly pushed Emperor Haileselassie to close modern secular schools again, he continued to expand them (Tekeste, 1990). By 1935 fascist Italian forces completely destroyed the modern
system of education in Ethiopia by changing schools into military camps. Moreover, all missionaries except Roman Catholics were made to close their schools and leave the country. As a result, numerous educational materials were destroyed and educated Ethiopians were also systematically killed. The period is also known as the eradication of human resources in Ethiopia.

When the Italians left Ethiopia in 1941, all the schools were closed, almost all teachers were killed, and educational materials were destroyed (Ayalew, 1982). Hence the Ethiopian Ministry of Education was re-established in the country in 1942 and schools restarted functioning with expatriate teachers who came from Britain and British colonies, with the help of educational materials donated by and imported from these countries. As a result, in the 1950s, there were 540 schools, 53,000 students and in 1950 Emperor Haileselassie provided his palace and established the first higher educational institution in the country, named “University College of Addis Ababa” (Tekeste, 1990), and now called Addis Ababa University.

In the 1950s the USA formed a long-term advisory team and started to influence the Ethiopian education system by proposing that a relevant curriculum should be developed (Tekeste, 1990). Accordingly, the advisory unit developed a succession of five-year plans on the expansion of educational opportunities with the firm intention of producing skilled personnel (Ayalew, 1982). At the end of the first five-year plan in 1961, the net enrolment ratio in primary education was only 6.6%, which was unsatisfactory and because of this the Education Sector Review was initiated in 1971. The major objectives of the sector review included analysing the capacity of the education system in promoting socio-economic development and suggesting ways of improving and expanding the Ethiopian education system (Tekeste, 1990).

The sector review paid great attention to the concern of the rural masses and its implementation was thus constrained by the resistance of individuals within urban communities including teachers and students in the form of strikes and even that demonstrations played its own share for the collapse of Haileselassie’s regime and facilitated the appearance of a socialist oriented government in 1974 (Ayalew, 1982). After coming to power, the socialist government attempted to universalize basic primary education for all of its citizens’ by 1986 through a national literacy campaign in fifteen national languages and addressed millions of people by the end of 1983 (Tekeste, 1990). Hence the rate of illiteracy in the country was reduced from about 93% in 1973 to 37% in 1983, the number of students was raised from 859,000 in 1973/74 to 2,729,200 in 1983 and primary
schools expanded from 3,200 in 1973/74 to 8,720 in 1983, and female students’ participation was improved from 4% in 1974 to 30% in 1983 (MoE, 1989).

Soon after the downfall of the socialist regime in May 1991, a new governmental system called the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (FDRE) came into being and replaced the former highly centralized educational management with a decentralized management system (Ayalew, 2000), and ratified a new education and training policy in April 1994 paying more attention to the marginalized groups previously beyond the reach on social services (FDRE, 1994). It is currently well recognized by educational planners in Ethiopia that primary education is the most substantive and critical input to get a problem-solving citizen. The country made a commitment to the goal of Education for All (EFA) and MDG by striving to meet the basic learning needs of its population through the provision of primary education for all school-aged children. The country has also been trying to respect the values of equality, particularly equality of educational opportunity for all, irrespective of sex, race, tribe and nationality (Zyin & Melese, 2013). Nevertheless, Ethiopia still has tremendous gaps in providing education for pastoralist communities. Here, education for pastoral communities does not only have problems related to access and equity, but also there are gaps with respect to quality and efficiency (Ayalew, 2000).

2.2. Education and the Pastoralists of Ethiopia

The pastoralists of Ethiopia share the same situation and lifestyle as pastoralists of the world. Mobility is an inherent lifestyle of these communities and also their means of survival. Mobility is mainly in search of water and pastures. Ethiopian pastoralists are found in the peripheral lowland parts of the country (Carr-Hill, 2005), in six regions (Afar, Oromiya, Somali, SNNPRG, Gambela and Benishangul Gumuz) with international borders, covering about 65 percent of the total area of the country. Due to their location, pastoralists are affected by frequent conflicts with fellow pastoralists across the borders. Numerically they make up more than 10% of the population of Ethiopia. Pastoralists are economically, politically and socially marginalized groups. Conversely the areas they occupy are said to be rich in natural resources that should be exploited and used (Kratli, 2006; Yacob, 1995; Zyin & Melese, 2013).
Figure 1. Map of the distribution of pastoralists of Ethiopia (in red)

Source: Pastoral Forum Ethiopia (2006)
As mentioned above, the government of Ethiopia introduced a national education and training policy in 1994. An Education Sector Development Program with the objective of achieving universal primary education by the year 2015 was also adopted. Despite the remarkable expansion of primary education and tremendous increase in enrolment in the last two decades, a very large number of school-aged children in Ethiopia continue to be out of school in pastoralist regions (MoE, 2010). According to Pact Ethiopia (2008, p.7), education enrolment of Ethiopian pastoralists is among the lowest and “requires direct, specific, and targeted attention toward enabling pastoral children to access to quality education” if the agenda of EFA is to be achieved even years after the deadline. The gross enrolment ratio (GER) of primary level of education increased compared to the early years of the Education Sector Development Program. However, with respect to the pastoral groups, participation in education has not reached the level of expectations. Moreover, most of those enrolled do not complete the eight years of education (UNESCO, 2002). In general, education has not yet been expanded in the pastoralist region. On the other hand, the schools already built are not being properly utilized. In this regard, the Christian Relief and Development Association in Ethiopia reported that the education system is not appropriate and pastoralist oriented (CRDA in Car-Hill, 2005; MOE, 2010), thus formal schools are often empty. All this clearly indicates that there remains a gap between the educational development of the pastoral community and that of the general population of the country.

2.3. Dimensions of Educational Provision in Ethiopia

Educational provision, at any level, is viewed in terms of four essential elements, namely: access, equity, quality and efficiency. When one assesses educational provision, addressing these elements is inevitable. These elements are duly discussed below.

2.3.1 Access

According to the 2012/13 data of the Ministry of Education, efforts to expand primary education have resulted in the country reaching a Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) of 95.3%, the corresponding figure for 1991 being less than 50%. Although the efforts to expand coverage of access to primary
education have been tremendous and successful, there are still school-age children with no access to primary education. In Afar and Somali regions, the 2012/13 educational abstract of the Ethiopian Ministry of Education indicates that low enrolment added to high dropout has been putting greater pressure on the implementation of EFA and MDGs in the country (MoE, 2012/13).

Table 1. Primary education GER and NER in Ethiopia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regions</th>
<th>GER (1-4)</th>
<th>GER (5-8)</th>
<th>NER(1-4)</th>
<th>NER (5-8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tigray</td>
<td>105.3</td>
<td>103.5</td>
<td>104.4</td>
<td>86.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>52.2</td>
<td>56.4</td>
<td>54.3</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amhara</td>
<td>115.1</td>
<td>113.8</td>
<td>114.4</td>
<td>70.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oromiya</td>
<td>107.9</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td>103.4</td>
<td>62.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>98.3</td>
<td>93.1</td>
<td>95.52</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benishangul Gumuz</td>
<td>140.4</td>
<td>115.5</td>
<td>128.1</td>
<td>100.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambela</td>
<td>158.4</td>
<td>144.1</td>
<td>151.7</td>
<td>111.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNNPR</td>
<td>115.6</td>
<td>104.8</td>
<td>110.2</td>
<td>78.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harari</td>
<td>103.8</td>
<td>88.5</td>
<td>96.1</td>
<td>74.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addis Ababa</td>
<td>105.7</td>
<td>108.2</td>
<td>107.1</td>
<td>93.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diredawa</td>
<td>96.3</td>
<td>90.8</td>
<td>93.6</td>
<td>77.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>109.5</td>
<td>103.2</td>
<td>106.4</td>
<td>63.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE annual educational abstract, (2012/13)

The Ethiopian educational statistics annual abstract (MoE, 2012/13) shows that the low participation rate of children in Ethiopian pastoralists, particularly in Afar region, is becoming a persistent problem requiring in-depth study to minimize the serious gaps constraining
implementation and achievement of the internationally agreed educational conventions and declaration.

2.3.2. Equity

Various studies have reported that monitoring inequality is much more difficult than monitoring access (Levin, 1976). For example, a global monitoring report indicated that only 8% of the 53 countries studied were planning to monitor inequality in learning (UNESCO, 2014). In spite of this, conducting a study on issues related to educational equity is fundamentally important. This is because the provision of primary education for all entails considering and treating all citizens in a fair and equitable manner (Lewin & Sayed, 2005; Porta, Arcia, Macdonald, Radyakin, & Lokshin, 2011). This is still partly because all forms of development in any nation require capacitating all educable individuals in the nation. With regard to Ethiopia’s situation in terms of achieving educational equity, MoE (2009) cited in Debebe, (2014) described as follows.

The Ethiopian education system is one which is characterized by both intra and inter regional disparities in participation. Gender disparity is not yet fully conquered. The national average gender parity index (GPI) for primary school participation shows 0.9 in favor of boys. Though progress with regard to bridging the gaps in access, retention and completion between male and female students is underway, the current trend indicates that things are all in favor of the male especially when we go up the ladder of education (p. 6).

Despite the efforts made to redress the inequitable distribution of education opportunities among male and female children, between urban and rural populations and different nationalities the gap still persists (UNESCO, 2003). To achieve equity in the education system, coordinated efforts need to continue between the Federal and Regional governments (MoE, 2010).

2.3.3. Quality

Improving the quality of learning and achieving the 6th goal of EFA is most likely the central issue to meet the post-2015 global developmental expectation (UNESCO, 2014). The end result of poor quality education is duplication of the existing illiteracy (Lyche, 2010). This is mainly because
spending eight years in the full cycle of primary schooling and receiving a certificate for completing that level of education does not guarantee literacy (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991). Expanding access to education and increasing student participation are not ends in themselves. These efforts are rather encouraged and strengthened in the commitment to bring about quality in education.

Quality in education is viewed not only by what goes into the education process alone, but also mainly by the outcome of the process. Issues that need to be considered in determining the achievements of quality education might include making students competent citizens, helping students develop a culture of sensitivity to problems and building students’ abilities to solve their life problems, enabling students to develop critical inquiry and master meaningful content standards as the result of the learning process, making students aware of the socio-political settings that might affect their lives at national and international levels (MoE, 2010).

Quality in education is attainment of the profiles set at every level in the education system. In consideration of such issues, the Ethiopian government developed and implemented a programme called the General Educational Quality Improvement Package (GEQIP). This package has been implemented for the last five years and has been creating some improvements in the educational system of the country. In addition to this, the school improvement programme (SIP), with six packages is also aimed at improving educational quality in the country (MoE, 2010). To attain the educational profiles set at each level and improve the quality of education, there were continued efforts at national level over the years to improve inputs: certifying and upgrading the teaching workforces, which resulted in some improvements in the first and second cycle of primary education. Moreover, massive training of teachers aimed at improving their English language proficiency has been accomplished (MoE, 2008). In spite of all these and other efforts, much remains to be done to ensure the quality of education in Ethiopia.

Quality of education can possibly be ensured when the worth of both the inputs and processes of classroom instruction is maintained. This means that achievement of the six goals of EFA equally requires provision of education with the expected level of quality of inputs and process of education (Arends, 1997; Brady, 1997). With regard to the quality of the inputs, it is true that the quality of teachers, libraries, laboratories, textbooks, school facilities, school organizations, morale and commitment of teachers, participation of parents, capacity and commitment of school leaders, appropriateness of related educational policies and strategies need to be available in talking about
EFA (Angelo & Cross, 1993; Bisset, 2001). Moreover, the contents of the school curriculum should be sufficiently relevant to the life of the community in general and that of the learners in particular (Dean, 1997; Hess, 1999).

On the other hand, the presence of educational inputs may not guarantee quality of education. The inputs need to be harnessed together and used to support the achievements of students learning in school (Killen, 1996; Kyriacou, 1998). Since the performance of the school is linked to the performances of the teachers, as reflected by the overall results of the students, reviewing and upgrading quality of instructional inputs and processes should be the major business of the school leaders and supervisors (McNeil & Wiles, 1990; Porter, 1995; Walklin, 1994).

Similarly, the instructional process taking place in the classrooms of the school should be examined and geared in a manner that fosters efficient and effective learning on the part of students. Students learn best when the instructional medium is clear and easily understandable to them (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991; Richardson, 1993). They also learn readily when the methodology of teaching and learning matches the learning pace and orientation of the students. Thus, lesson plans, both unit and annual plans, need to be developed and applied by after understanding and paying due attention to the diverse interests and abilities of the learners regarding learning (Hess, 1999; Joyce & Weils, 1986). The plans of instruction should be developed after the teachers have scanned and clearly identified the status of abilities, type of learning difficulties and styles of their students so that the plans can incorporate various solutions that would solve the instructional needs of the students (Gallagher, 1975; Jacobsen, Eggen & Kauchak, 2002). In this manner, the plans are expected to be set not by allocating time and arranging situations so as to cover the contents of the curriculum, but mainly to enable the students to learn effectively to achieve the expected level of competencies with respect to each portion of each grade and subject (Collier, 1982; Kyriacou, 1997). To this effect, teachers and co-teachers are expected to apply active learning methods in such a way that the instructional process is guided by the learning paces and progress of the students (Brown, Oke & Brown, 1992; Burden, 1995; Centre of Applied Special Technology, 2002).

On the other hand, teachers and their assistants should give tests not to assign marks and rate students but to identify and solve the learning difficulties of their students (Burden, & Byrd, 2003). Continuous assessments are expected to be applied to assess the diverse elements of classroom instructions including the appropriateness of the teaching methods, quality of the
curriculum, correctness and clarity of the medium of instruction, morale of teachers to teach and that of the learners to learn, etc. (Armstrong, Henson, & Savage 2001; Borich, 2000). Accordingly, continuous assessments have to be reengineered with continuous reduction of learning difficulties on the one hand, and promotion of academic excellence of the students of the school on the other (Burden, 1995). Additionally, producing and using different instructional technologies and teaching aids and the application of different teaching strategies based on the existing contingent situations of the students have great value in making EFA goals a reality (Richardson, 1993).

2.3.4. Efficiency

Efficiency in education is related to the economical use of time, human resources, materials and monies available (Monk, 2009). Educational efficiency is very important, particularly in developing countries, where there is serious scarcity of resources (Palmer, Wedgwood, Hayman, King, & Thin, 2007). Problems related to efficiency are manifested in wastages in the education system mainly in the forms of school dropout and grade repetition (Grant & Hallman, 2006; Hunt, 2008). In Ethiopia it was reported that of those who begin class in grade one, 40% were dropouts and 45% were repeaters, thus, the rate of completion of grade five was very low (MoE, 2005). According to MoE, (2010), the picture has changed in that the rate of dropout fell to 20.6% and grade repetition to 5.3% and the rate of completion of grade five jumped to 62.7%. Clearly, over the years dramatic improvements have been recorded.

Yet for primary education to be meaningful, the repetition and dropout rates should come down from their present levels. MoE (2010, p.12) describes that, “many children still do not complete the first cycle of primary and repetition and drop-out rates remain high throughout the whole cycle. Drop-out is particularly high in the early primary grades.” Even though much is being done to maintain efficiency, there is national consensus which shows that much work is left to be done (MoE, 2012/13). In order for students to sustain their school attendance, schools need to be made attractive and conducive to learning (Cardoso & Verner, 2007; Kutor et al., 2005). This is one of the tasks that Ethiopian schools have to attain with the coordinated efforts of different actors.
2.4. Constraints of Educational Provision to Pastoralists

Pastoralists are under enrolled in formal education compared to others. They have been politically marginalized and have had the least access to basic social services (UNESCO/IIIEP, 2005; USAID, 2011). Moreover, Pavanello, (2009) reports that:

Pastoralists’ political marginalization is understood as the result of an imbalanced power relation between the state and pastoral civil society. On the one hand, the political marginalization of pastoralists’ community is the result of long standing governance failures, nonresponsive and unaccountable institutions, and politicians and policy-makers lacking the will and initiative to include pastoralists’ interests in national policy debates (p. 8).

In order to structure the review of this study, constraints of educational provision are categorized as in-school and out-of-school constraints as indicated below.

2.4.1. In-school constraints

Irrelevant curriculum content

Curriculum is absolutely crucial substance in the school that determines not only the content but also the methodology of teaching and learning processes. Hence, it is expected to be relevant and closely related to the lives of the learners (Narman, 1990). The role of curriculum in promoting learning and motivating education is very high (UNESCO, 2002). If a community feels that what their children are learning is remote from their lives, they will start to value the cost of learning and disregard the schooling (Psacharo, 1985 as cited in Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991). Pastoralists have so many resources that have not yet been exploited (Kratli, 2006; Yacob, 1995). Thus they want to access more relevant knowledge and skills from the curriculum so that they can change themselves, their locality and nation (Carr-Hill, 2005).

Accordingly, the curriculum that pastoralists implement in their school should be directly related to the socio-economic lives of the people. Since education is provided as a means to transform the living standard of the people, developing curriculum after understanding the interests of society is crucial (Jama, 1993). Therefore, when curriculum is designed with the consent of the community who will use it, it motivates the parents to send their children to school and also motivates the students to learn (Tisdell, 1997). Lack of relevant curriculum content is a critical
problem inhibiting the participation of children of pastoralists in education (Tahir, 1995). As a result, several researchers in education have been questioning the implementation of standard curriculum designed for urban children because of its irrelevance for rural and other disadvantaged societies (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991). Similarly the school curriculum developed for sedentary people has less relevance for pastoral people (Akyeampong, 2004; Ali, 2002; Nath, Haq, Begum, Ullah, Sattar, & Chowdhury, 2008; UNESCO, 2002). The irrelevance of curriculum resulted in low interest in education and high dropout rate in the pastoral areas.

**Inflexibility of programme delivery**

Programmes in education include compatibility of content and flexibility of duration with regard to the interests of the beneficiaries of the programme designed. If the programme designed is not made in consistency with the realities of the local community, its effectiveness will face great challenges to the extent of the collapse of the programme. The beginning and end of term of the primary schools are neither flexible nor built around seasonal herding and the mobility patterns of the pastoral communities. Absence of flexible educational programmes that match the interests of the target groups is also one of the obstacles in the provision of primary education (Mohamed & Junaid, 2007). Accordingly, children of pastoralists and their parents could perceive no need to adjust their socio-economic system to the demands of the highly structured and rigid schedules of the formal school system (Carr-Hill & Peart, 2005).

**Medium of instruction**

Language as a medium of instruction makes a greater contribution in the teaching and learning process (McNab, 1988; Smith, 2008; UNESCO, 1985) and currently the international agreement is that every child should start his/her learning in the mother tongue (McNab, 1990; Tomasevski, 2004). In spite of this, children in most disadvantaged communities are learning in a language that they do not speak (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991). The authors further report that:

> Children who speak a language other than the language of instruction confront a substantial barrier to learning. Particularly in the crucial early grades, when the children are trying to acquire basic literacy as well as adjust to the demands of the school setting, not speaking
the language of instruction can make a difference between succeeding and failing in school, between remaining in school and dropping out (p. 153).

Generally, it is true that educational provision in primary schools requires delivering instruction to all children in their own respective mother tongues. Therefore it is impossible to think of achieving education for all without considering various languages of the communities from which the schoolchildren originate (Cohen, 2007).

**Ethical matters**

Research has shown that there were pandemics of sexual violence and harassment in some educational institutions in Africa which were identified as a cause for the low participation of innocent children at the level of primary education, where the victims can easily be deceived by the perpetrators. Additionally, a study conducted in Guinea claimed that males used physical force and threatened the girls in the school and that this was also found to be detrimental to education in the lower grades (Hallam, 1994 cited in Odaga & Heneveld, 1995).

**School facilities and incentives for teachers**

Shortages of the required facilities demotivates both teachers and learners and can ultimately cause lower attendance of the learners in the school. Thus, both the availability and usability of school facilities are crucial to teaching children effectively and achieving the set EFA goals. Conversely, shortage of appropriate teaching and learning materials could also be one of the factors detrimental to the implementation of pastoralist education (World Bank, 1996). Insufficiency of appropriate teaching and learning materials harms the performance of both genders in rural areas. Particularly in areas where there is a shortage of facilities and furniture in schools and when children are expected to sit on the floor, it demotivates the parents to send their children to such schools. In some cultures families refuse to send their children to school if the toilets are not separated for each sex (World Bank, 1995). A study conducted in primary schools of Malawi indicated that there was positive relationship among students’ participation, academic performance and provision of school facilities (Fuller, 1987). Additionally, research results indicated that in Bangladesh 71% of
pastoral schools had no latrines (Tietjen, 1991) which adversely affected the children’s participation in primary schools.

Motivation of the teachers is directly related to the energy teachers expend in helping their students to learn. Teachers with higher motivation tend to manifest love towards their profession. Children learning with motivated teachers could love their class more than those who are taught by less motivated teachers (Ginsburg, 2011). Furthermore, students who are learning in a school or classroom with motivated teachers may be more interested in their education and less inclined to absenteeism and dropping out from their school.

However, motivation of teachers could be a function of many interwoven factors. Absence or insufficiency of professional training and economic incentives reduce the morale, courage and motivation of the teachers teaching in pastoralist areas. Therefore such demoralized teachers are seeking transfers to other locations and there is also high rate of turnover (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology [Kenya], 1999).

2.4.2. Out-of-School Constraints

*Poverty*

The cost of education has increased from time to time (Pogrow, 1983). One of the major constraints on education, particularly in the developing countries, is inability to afford such costs due to deeply rooted poverty (Rose & Al-Samarrai, 2001; UNDP, 2006). Remedies for reducing poverty might include educating the people (Palmer et al., 2007). However, a study conducted on primary education in rural Pakistan showed that poverty was the main reason for children’s dropping out from their schools (Taylor, Mulhall & Mulhall, 1997). A similar study by Ackers, Migoli and Nzomo, (2001) in Kenyan primary schools revealed that the reason for student dropout lies in the socio-economic conditions of the parents. As to the findings of this study, inability to afford school related expenditures and lack of medical care were some of the prominent factors constraining provision of primary education among disadvantaged groups. A study conducted in the Philippines indicated that sickness due to malnutrition and lack of medical care were also related to a reduction in education participation (Ghuman, Behrman, Gultiano, & King, 2006; Zyin & Melese, 2013). A study conducted in Ghana showed that low participation rate was also exacerbated by the inability of the parents to afford the high cost of education, such as buying consumable commodities for the children including school uniform, textbooks and stationery (Stephen, 1998).
**Attitudes of pastoralist parents towards education**

Pastoralists have their own customs, norms and traditions and they need these cultural elements not to be altered or shaped by formal education (Aggarwal, 1982). Moreover, pastoralists are considered as “change resistant” as regards modern schooling, which is rooted in their fear of cultural alienation and distortions of traditional values. Fear of alienation and distortions of traditional cultural values have led to resistance to modern education among some pastoral communities (Carr-Hill & Peart, 2005). This means that these parents want to safeguard their socio-cultural status for they assume that education would ‘spoil’ their culture (UNESCO, 1985).

Sometimes parental attitudes towards education may not be positive because education could be perceived by such parties as a tool which turns the younger generation against the prevailing social norms and values. Such parents could see no value in education (Holland, 1996 in Carr-Hill & Peart, 2005). They might regard education as something taking their children out of their hands. Historically, schooling has been deemed incompatible with pastoral economy and lifestyle and perceived as an issue antagonistic to their ancient culture (Kratli & Dyer, 2009). Consequently, those who sent their children to school were considered to be cutting the children from pastoralists’ indigenous knowledge, skills and attitudes (Carr-Hill, 2005). Moreover, pastoralists attach more value to advantages that might be obtained from child labor rather than to sending the children to school (Liop, 2005).

**Perceptions of society towards girls’ education**

Gender inequality is rooted in individuals’ and societal bias against girls (Colclough, Rose, & Tembon, 2000). It also manifests in the form of domestic chores that are largely gender biased and result in assigning domestic chores exclusively to the female child, thereby compromising girls’ human right to education (Rose & Al-Samarrai, 2001; UNICEF, 1992). Hence girls are very much occupied in undertaking various domestic chores and they do not have time for school. Moreover, some pastoralists assume that formal education might alienate their children from the pastoral community and take them to some other community (Jama, 1993) possibly exposing a daughter to a shameful premarital pregnancy that might condemn a girl to remain unmarried for life (Berhane & Woldu, 1995).
On the other hand, early marriage is one of the socio-cultural factors that hinder the educational participation of girls in most developing countries (Carr-Hill, 2005). One of the factors in Asia, Africa and Latin America is early marriage. Several studies in Africa and other developing countries have shown that there are certain culturally induced practices which encourage early marriage. In Mali, young girls are made to understand that they must marry not to be ridiculed. In Ghana, the dowry and other related systems of giving cattle and sheep are the reasons for early childhood marriage (Odaga & Heneveld, 1995).

Customs among some communities in Ethiopia too, support early marriage, where girls are given in marriage as early as at the age of seven years. Early marriage is one of the especially harmful traditional practices happening in the northern, north-eastern, and eastern regions of Ethiopia, where pastoral communities live. A survey on early marriage in these parts of the country indicates that the average age for marriage is 14 years (Teshome, 2003; Woldesenbet, 2013). Hence, the inhibiting effect of socio-cultural factors on educational participation of children is worse for girls (Dyer & Choksy, 1997). The cultural expectation for girls to give priority to the future maternal role has a decidedly negative effect on educational enrolment and participation of girls (Odaga & Heneveld, 1995).

**Distance to school**

Among major constraints on school attendance, particularly at primary school, distance between the pupil’s home and the school is paramount. This is mainly because rural children in developing nations taking their formal schooling at the initial age of primary school face greater challenges (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991). In those regions with no other transportation than walking long distances on foot crossing mountains, hills and rivers, many children are prevented from attending school.

According to some studies, the main determinant for rural children of primary school age to attend school is the proximity of a school (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991). The maximum distance the children have to travel from home to school varies from country to country depending on the topography. Yet it is commonly accepted that in primary education children should be able to get to school on foot in not more than 45 minutes [which is equivalent to 3 kilometres], and even less in mountainous areas (UNESCO, 1995).
Lack of role models

The lack of a role model has a significant influence on children’s learning. As an important part of social learning, modelling is an important tool to learn acceptable and positive behaviour from another significant person. Therefore, absence of formally educated family members in the community makes its own contribution in preventing children from attending school (Kratli, 2001). Absence of role models for females in many pastoral communities has hindered girls’ school attendance (Akaranga, 1995; Teshome, 2003).

Insecurity

As indicated on the map under sub-topic 2.2, Ethiopian pastoralists used to live in the peripheral areas close to international borders with so many other geo-economic quandaries forcing them to face a precarious existence (Ziyn & Melese, 2013). They are prone to tribal conflict related to resources, such as water and pastures, that may lead to loss of property, and then to poor school attendance (UNESCO, 2002). In northern Kenya for example, schools in remote areas are good targets for the abduction of girls by raiding groups (Carr-Hill & Peart, 2005; Kratli, 2001). The Ethiopian experience also indicates that frequent internal disputes with neighbouring pastoralists due to cattle rustling, competition over pastureland and water sources put the pastoralists in constant danger (USAID, 2011). Moreover, Pavanello, (2009) describes the situation why conflict arises in pastoralists’ area in the following way.

Loss of communal grazing land due to increased farming activities or due to environmental degradation has fueled conflicts in a number of pastoral areas across the horn of Africa. For example in the Awash Valley in Ethiopia, home of the Afar pastoralists for centuries, the irrigation potential of the Awash river has been attracting the attention of the Ethiopian state since the 1950s. The gradual appropriation of large areas along the river for cultivation purposes by the state has led to the progressive exclusion of Afar pastoralists from some of the most important resources of the valley. ….. The competition for scarce resources with the neighboring clan, the Somali Issa, has led to the conflict between the two clans, with raids and counter-raids being a regular feature (p.14).
As discussed above, lack of resources due to various reasons creates insecurity in the pastoralist community which in turn constrains their participation in education.

**Effects of decentralization**

According to Collins & Gillies (2007), decentralization in educational governance takes three principal forms which include deconcentration, devolution and delegation.

Deconcentration is the reallocation of decision-making power to a lower level of structure….devolution is the permanent transfer of decision-making responsibilities … from the central government to lower levels of government: provinces, municipalities, or districts….delegation… is the administrative or legal transfer of responsibilities to the elected or appointed school governing bodies such as school councils, school management committees, and school governing boards (p. 3).

Since 1991 many educational responsibilities in Ethiopia have been devolved to regional and governmental organizations at grass root level (FDRE, 1994). One of these programmes is Basic Education Strategic Overhaul (BESO). BESO had two phases: BESO I (1995-2002) and BESO II (2002-2007). The goals of the BESO Programme were to strengthen quality and access in basic education through system-wide reform, including reform of the curriculum and instruction as well as strengthening of decentralized management. The objectives of the teacher professional development component of BESO were to support teachers to implement an active-learning-based curriculum that was introduced in 1994 and, student-centred and problem-solving approaches. The programme formed clusters of schools to facilitate teachers’ learning in the clusters. The programme also helped teachers improve their subject-matter knowledge based on the content of the new curriculum. Another important goal of the programme was to help teachers develop more positive attitudes, more cooperative approaches to their work at the school level, and to strengthen professional identity. Teachers were also introduced to new ideas- reflective practice and action research through which they studied their practice to improve it. (USAID, 1995). The ideas of the cluster programme were introduced in 1995 by the BESO project. Initially, decentralized school- or cluster-based teacher professional development was not favoured by either the Ministry or the regional state education bureaus because they had a long tradition of centralized, expert-driven
teacher development programmes and did not believe that teachers themselves could, with supporting materials, facilitate their own professional development. Through a year of discussions about the possibilities related to localized teacher development the two regions in which the program worked, Tigray and Southern Nation, Nationalities, Peoples Region (SNNPR), agreed to try out cluster-based programmes through small-scale pilot programmes (USAID, 1995).

As a result, an in-depth qualitative study of BESO indicated that parents of children in Ethiopia were closely monitoring their children’s attendance and school behaviour and that this increased the enrolment of girls and improved quality in the schools. Moreover, the study revealed that the distance between the decision-makers and the beneficiaries was reduced, while autonomous power to work with parents at school level was improved in the country (MoE, 2010). This indicates that decentralization in education is useful to ensure accountability, (Winkler & Yeo, 2007) foster parental involvement, improve teamwork among the teaching staff and improve overall educational outcomes (Collins & Gillies, 2007). Decentralization of responsibility and authority also increases efficiency by enabling parents and policy-makers and the school to work together (Weidman & DePietro-Jurand, 2008).

However, not all activities are decentralized. Issues like school management and the generation and management of school finances could be decentralized to the school leaders so as to make education for all as effective as possible (Lewin, 2007). On the other hand, inappropriate application of decentralization, particularly in developing countries was and continues to be a challenging factor against effective educational planning and management in offering education to all citizens. This means that incapability of educational management and leadership at regional, zonal, woreda and school level could be a great and direct challenge that may exclude some children of the pastoral community from their schools.

Generally, decentralization improves school performance more in developed countries than in developing countries because of the limitations in the capacity to support the schools in the case of the latter (Collins & Gillies, 2007). Self-administration is more important and advantageous for the regions that have competent and committed human resources both for political and civil administration. However, if the sub-state has insufficient human resources, effective implementation may be constrained. In such conditions, unless decentralization is supported by some means and special affirmative action, including some capacity building programmes, the existing gap between the regions with regard to effectiveness of self-administration may continue.
to the extent that national integrity and harmony would be compromised. Hence the issue of providing primary education for all citizens in its essence requires ensuring quality and relevant educational delivery and management in a fair and equitable manner throughout the national and regional states. If not, citizens in the disadvantaged region may be facing unequal treatment in education not only in a quantitative terms but also in a qualitative sense. The application of decentralized autonomy among pastoral community could likewise be a barrier to achieving EFA in the regions (Kratli & Dyer, 2009).

**Commitment and capacity of leaders**

Commitment is essential to directly support the decentralized units in planning, financing and implementing educational programmes. It also requires effective leadership at every level and the support of political parties, governmental organizations, business organizations, parents and students. Effective leadership as well as mass mobilization and sensitization may require charismatic leadership to overcome the sluggishness of the education systems and traditional practices. Effective leadership also requires capacity on the part of the practitioners. It is a basic pillar for decentralization to make decisions and manage resources (Minga, 1997). However, Minga argues that the practitioners cannot develop capacity if they are not given the opportunity to exercise legal power. In the pastoralists’ context, low administrative capacities and limited commitment of government bodies to support the education of pastoralists greatly influence the provision of education (Taylor & Mulhall, 1997).

In Tanzania a lack of committed teachers to cope with environmental hazards and negative attitudes towards pastoralists have also curtailed disadvantaged groups’ access to education. Moreover, low educational participation has been aggravated by high dropout and repetition in schools led by inefficient and incompetent educational leaders (Mushi, Malekela, & Bhalalusesa, 2002). Insufficient efforts at constructing schools close to the community, less commitment in providing boarding and hostel facilities, carelessness in adjusting school hours to accommodate children’s work, reluctance in deciding about the medium of instruction have been detrimental to providing education for pastoralists (World Bank, 1996). Poor school-community relations also constrain educational provision (Bruns, Mingat, & Rakotomalala, 2003).
2.5. Intervention Strategies to Foster Educational Provision among Pastoralists

Based on the education and training policy of 1994, all the series of the Education Sector Development Program (ESDP) were launched, with the ultimate goal of increasing access to primary education, equity by expanding schools, improving efficiency by reducing dropout rates and repetition rates. It was also targeted to increase the primary enrolment rate in the two most deprived pastoralist regions of the country; namely the Afar and Somali regional states. Particularly, the ESDP IV of 2010/11 – 2014/15, promised that “equitable access to quality primary and secondary education will be expanded amongst the four emerging regions and the gap between the emerging regions and other regions reduced by giving special support to the education of emerging regions’ children” (MoE, 2010, p. 9). MoE (2010) further describes the strategies to deliver education for disadvantaged regions of pastoralists in the following way:

multi-grade classes as a means of integrating and maintaining children of scarcely populated areas in school, the provision of special support programs, scholarships and school feeding program will be used. Alternative education services like mobile schools, para-boarding schools for second cycle primary will be continued to meet the needs of pastoralist and semi-pastoralist populations (p. 35).

Until now, pastoral communities have interwoven problems causing low educational participation. Therefore different problems require different mechanisms to solve them. Many researchers have proposed some possible and basic intervention strategies to minimize problems related to educational provision for pastoralists. The most commonly proposed alternative mechanisms for mitigating or alleviating major constraints on educational access, equity, quality and efficiency among all pastoral community are reviewed below.

2.5.1. Alternative Basic Education (ABE)

ABE is a specific model of non-formal education adopted in and adapted across Ethiopia. In such schools, learners are expected to cover within three years the equivalent subjects or courses given in the first four grades of primary school in formal settings, and pupils successfully completing the ABE are given the chance to join the fifth grade in the formal system. ABE is characterized by its
low-cost community constructed schools and special school management, using the mother tongue as the medium of instruction, selecting a facilitator from the local community, accelerated learning and active learner-centred teaching methodologies and focusing on deprived populations (MoE, 2010).

Alternative basic education targets children aged 7-14 years. Moreover, young people and even adults can be given an opportunity to attend basic education that they had not enjoyed earlier in life. Accordingly, ABE has been used in creating access to education for a number of vulnerable groups living in poverty in rural and remote areas (UNESCO, 1984). According to Mary, (2011), ABE should play different roles for different children.

For one group it may present as a way to complete Basic Education that is compatible with their lifestyle and their choices (e.g. pastoralist children), for others it can help get them up to speed quickly so they can transition into formal education and complete further levels of education (e.g. dropout OVCs, working children), for others it may be a short term stop to enable them to move towards vocational education that will enable them to earn an income (p. 3).

Hence this model is assumed to be more useful particularly for pastoral groups with no fixed abode (MoE, 2010).

2.5.2. School feeding programme

Pastoral areas have low food security and a problem of malnutrition (MOEST, 1999). Therefore a school feeding programme by the World Food Program, or any other supporting agents, would greatly assist school attendance for children coming to school with malnutrition problems (UNESCO, 2002; Yemane, 2002). Therefore, in regions with pastoral populations, like Afar, the provision of a school feeding programme is one of the mechanisms for reaching pastoral children and increasing enrolment. Implementing school feeding programmes has raised enrolment in Kenya and even resulted in overcrowded schools (Akaranga, 1995). Provision of school feeding has also had the remarkable effect of minimizing dropout rates caused by certain diseases related to malnutrition (Pridmore, 2007).
2.5.3. Mobile schools

Even though managing and monitoring the mobile school is difficult, establishing a mobile school with movable facilities for teaching can make children learn in an environment where they are present at a given time. Providing training for teachers on midwifery, on animal husbandry and on first aid for the community and having them develop multi-disciplinary skills could enable educational provision to continue with less interruption until the goals of EFA are achieved (UNESCO, 2002). For example, the Philippines is one of the countries known for using mobile tent schools as an alternative means of providing basic education to pastoralist communities. The mobile tent schools were introduced on the basis of the findings of literacy survey. This modality has been applied for seven tribes in the Cagayan valley region. Teaching materials in indigenous languages were developed and the training needs of teachers were identified. The non-formal education programme of the mobile tent school provided different categories believed to be relevant for the community (Lasam, 1990). Nigeria has the best experience in applying mobile school for the education of pastoral communities. As to Ezeomah, (2006) cited in Abdi Ibrahim, (2010),

> Mobile schools have become an alternative way of providing education for people out of formal education. Nigeria, which is one of the countries that embraced mobile schools, introduced a curriculum with nomadic friendly subjects such as animal husbandry. Teachers were given three years’ training and a national commission has been formed with support from research centres at various universities. The Nigerian government provided the necessary policy and other services to ensure the provision of education to nomads (p.26).

2.5.4. Boarding School and Other Related Strategies

Another alternative intervention strategy is constructing boarding schools and convincing the parents and the children to overcome their fear of separation and help poor groups of the population to learn in possible ways (Carr-Hill, 2005). This could be more effective when the families are mobile (UNESCO, 2002).
As proposed by Kneese and Ballinger (2006), the school calendar can be modified both in duration and number of months in each term so as to retain more students in rural schools and let them be free during the harvest season to meet parents’ demands for labour. The research shows that reforming the school calendar to make it fit with the agricultural season resulted in a threefold increase in participation in Brazil (Lucas, 2001).

It is also believed that good governance and leadership in providing subsidies for the schools where the disadvantaged groups are learning can be applied to overcome low attendance (Wils, 2004; Wils, et al., 2008). Hence, reducing costs of schooling, directly providing aid for all or for disadvantaged groups so as to encourage parents and communities to become more involved in schools (Ingram, Wils, Carrol & Townsend, 2007) can be an alternative solution.

Furthermore, improving the quality of education by training teachers, designing curriculum based on future career opportunities could also improve educational provision for all in general, and for the disadvantaged groups in particular (Ingram, Wils, Carrol & Townsend, 2007). Diversification of programmes could be sometimes useful in solving some of the problems associated with irrelevance of educational provision. A good experience in the Philippines included designing and providing simultaneously four learning programmes. These programmes are family and community life, literacy and numeracy, health and nutrition, and livelihood (Lasam, 1990).

In order to solve the problem of long journeys to and from school, experiences in many countries show that indigenous, cultural and religious places like temples, mosques or quoranic schools can be used in fostering participation in pastoral education (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991).
3. Methodology

The main objective of this study is to investigate the status of provision of and participation in primary education in pastoral communities of the Afar and Somali regions of Ethiopia. Achieving this aim necessitates a research method and procedures. Accordingly, this chapter presents an overview of the research sites, research design, sources of data, sampling techniques, data collection instruments, validation of data collection instruments, procedures of data collection, techniques of data analysis and ethical concerns.

3.1. Overview of the Research Sites

3.1.1. The Afar national regional state

The term “Afar” refers to the name of (1) the native people (major ethnic group) living in the region, (2) the local language spoken by the major ethnic group, and (3) the region itself. In some literatures these people have been referred to as “Adal” and “Dankel” people. At the present time the Afar people call themselves “cafara-umata” and their language “cafar-af”, which literally mean the Afar people and the Afar language respectively (Getachew, 2001). The Afar language belongs to the lowland east-Cushitic language of the Afro-Asiatic family (Parker, 1971).

Even though the majority of the Afar people are located in Ethiopia, some of them are also found in Eritrea and Djibouti (Central Statistical Agency [CSA], 1996). The Afar national regional state is located in the northeastern part of Ethiopia, which is inhabited mainly by Afar accounting for 1.7% of the total population of Ethiopia (CSA, 2007). The region consists of hot, dry and semi-desert climates. It has the lowest lying land in Ethiopia known as the Dallol depression, which is about 116 meters below sea level (Fekadu, 2000). The Dallol Depression, which covers five percent of the land surface in the region, is one of the hottest spots in the world with a mean temperature of 45 degrees centigrade. The Afar regional state has five zones and 32 woredas. The region has a total surface area of about 163,000 square kilometers, which comprises about 13 percent of the national land area (Getachew, 2001). The region is surrounded by the rift valley in the north, the escarpment of the central highland mass of the Amhara and Tigray regions in the west and north-west, and the escarpment of the eastern highland mass of the Oromiya and Somali
regions in the south and south-east. It also shares borders with Eritrea in the north and with Djibouti in the south-west (CSA, 1996).

Demographically, the Afar national regional state has a total population of 1,527,494 with 851,553 males and 675,941 females (CSA, 2007). Most Afar people (96%) are Muslims as a result of “Higra”, who came to Ethiopia during the Axumite Kingdom at the beginning of the 9th century (Getachew, 2001). The religious composition of the people in the region was found to be 95.6% Muslims, 3.9% Orthodox Christians and the remaining 0.5% comprises other religions. Ethnically the region constitutes 91.8% Afar and 97% of these people live in the rural areas. The other ethnic groups in the region are Amhara (4.5%), Argoba, (0.9%), Tigray (0.9%), Oromo (0.8%) and other (1.1%) unspecified groups (CSA 2007).

The average family size in the region is six individuals per household (UNESCO, 2002). This may suggest that the region has higher fertility, a larger labour force, and a greater financial demand for education. The predominant economic activity of the Afar is animal husbandry, mainly cattle, camels, goats and sheep. The great majority of Afar people migrate seasonally in search of grazing and water for their animals. However the overarching vision of the federal government is the transformation of this pastoral society into settled agro-pastoralists along the banks of rivers (FDRE, 2006). As a result, some of the Afar people have settled along the banks of the Awash River and begun to adopt a sedentary life.

3.1.2. The Somali national regional state

The Somali national regional state is one of the six regions in Ethiopia where pastoral communities are located (Carr-Hill, 2005). The Somali region is located along the eastern most part of Ethiopia. The capital of the Somali regional state is Jigjiga. The region is bordered by the Ethiopian regions of Afar in the north and Oromiya in the west, African Somalia in the north east, Djibouti to the north, and Kenya to the south-west (CSA, 1996). According to the 2008 census, the Somali region has a total population of 4,445,219, consisting of 2,472,490 men and 1,972,729 women (CSA, 2008). The entire region is estimated to have 685,986 households. In urban areas of Somali, households have an average of six people and rural households have an average of 6.5 people.

Somali is the dominant (96.23%) ethnic group in the region. The other ethnic groups in the region include Oromo (2.25%), Amhara (0.69%), and Gurage (0.14%). Somali has become the
working language of the regional state, and is spoken by 95.9% of the inhabitants. Other languages include Oromiffaa (2.24%), Amharic (0.92%), and Gurage (0.03%). With regard to religion, 98.7% of the population are Muslim, 0.9% Orthodox Christian, and 0.3% are adherents of other religions (CSA, 2008). The economy of the Somali people, like that of the Afar people, heavily depends on livestock production. Devereux (2006), states that,

Livelihoods in the rural part of Somali region are dominated by livestock, which are the main assets owned by the majority of households, are a major source of food consumption, and are traded – both live animals and animal by-products – to generate cash income for pastoralists, agro-pastoralists, traders and a range of livestock marketing agents (p. 44). Hence the pastoral people of Somali share almost all the qualitative aspects of demographic, cultural and economic characteristics indicated under the aforementioned description of Afar pastoralists.

### 3.1.3. Selected schools from the Afar and Somali national regional states

From the 32 woredas found in Afar region, three (Asayta, Dufti and Mille) were selected. From Mille woreda, Harsi and Berso primary schools; from Dufti woreda, Dufti Arategna Ersha Tabia primary school; from Asayta woreda, Serdo primary school and Samara girls’ boarding school were selected as research sites. From the nine zones in the Somali region, two zones (Jigjiga and Shinille) were selected. From Jigjiga zone, Wolwol and Rawda Umar girls’ primary schools and from Shinille zone, Shinille, Tome and Karbeje primary schools were selected as research sites. Generally, five primary schools from the Afar region and five primary schools from the Somali region were purposefully selected as the specific research sites of this study. These schools were selected by purposive sampling because they were established 15 years before data collection and were assumed to have more mature experience than the other recently built schools regarding the status of educational provision and participation.

### 3.2. Research Design

There are two approaches or designs in research paradigms, namely qualitative and quantitative. The selection of one of these paradigms depends on the issues to be studied. In this study
qualitative design was selected and applied. This is because this approach is deemed appropriate to gather detailed data from participants’ perspectives (Flick, 2002; Flick, 2004; Hoepfl, 1997; Maxwell, 1996; Patton, 2002). Moreover, a qualitative approach is an appropriate design in order to interpret ideas that respondents evince on the factual realities behind the prevailing educational provision, like detailed explanations for low involvement in education and factors influencing the educational provisions for the children of pastoral societies (Creswell, 2009; Keith, 2009). It also provides an opportunity for detailed examination of each school setting (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007), for analysing factors profoundly affecting EFA goals (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison 2005) and collect evidence using a variety of data collection tools and for exploring processes, activities and events in detail (Creswell, 2009). Qualitative research is generally helpful to describe and explain people’s attitudes, perceptions and experiences as well as cultural and other social contexts that might affect provision of and participation in education. Doubtless, statistical facts regarding enrolment, attendance, dropping out, repetition, and completion rates can be depicted and explained in numerical terms. But it remains difficult to figure out those societal values, traditions, ideas, aspirations and perceptions that have profound implications for education by employing the quantitative method alone. Preferably, the non-quantifiable dimensions can be better captured by employing the qualitative design (Debebe 2014). Nonetheless, numerical data are also used to support the qualitative data.

Among the various qualitative approaches case study was selected as an appropriate tool with which to seek answers to the preset research questions of this study that required an extensive and in-depth description of the phenomenon. This was because it was used to investigate a “contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context” (Yin, 2009, p. 18). Among different kinds of case studies (intrinsic case study, instrumental case study and collective case study), collective case study is conducted to gain an insight into various or more than one different cases (Stake, 2003), because the study analysed different cases, using multiple sources of evidence was related to provision of primary education in the two regions.
3.3. Sources of Data

Relevant data were collected from the respondents deemed to have better exposure to the issue under study. Accordingly, two state ministers, one director of special needs and inclusive education and four experts working under this directorate and responsible for the education of pastoral people from the MoE were selected. From Afar national regional state, the head of the education bureau, two experts from REB, three woreda education officers from Mille, Asayta, and Dufti woredas, five university students from Samara University, five directors from each of the selected schools, thirty teachers (six teachers from each school), and twelve Parent Teacher Association (PTA) members from Serdo and Berso primary schools were selected as informants for this study. Moreover, from the Somali national regional state, the head of the regional education bureau, two experts from REB, two zonal education heads from Shinille and Jigjiga zones, five university students from Jigjiga University, thirty teachers (six teachers from each of the selected schools), five directors and twelve PTA members from Karbeje and Wolwol primary schools were selected as sources of data. In total data were collected from one hundred and twenty-two informants.

The state (deputy) minister of the Ministry of Education was selected as a source of data because this ministry is responsible for general educational provision (grades 1-12) in the nation. Similarly, the state (deputy) minister of Federal Affairs was selected to participate in the study because this ministry is also responsible for educational provision to pastoral societies as part of pastoral development strategy. These two state ministers were selected purposefully because it is believed that they had deep knowledge about the national educational policy and developmental strategies in the country, which is very important for this study.

The five individuals; one director and four experts (among these four experts one is a Kenyan volunteer with experience of pastoralist education) from the MoE were also selected purposefully because these individuals were responsible for building the capacities of emerging (pastoral) regions and working on the alternative basic education programme (ABE) which is one of the modalities of educational provision for pastoral society. The two regional education bureau heads were purposefully selected because they are responsible for the overall education system in their respective regions. They can give detailed information on the peculiar characteristics of the overall educational provision in the pursuit of EFA goals.
The three *woreda* education officers in Afar and the two zonal education officers in Somali who are responsible for leading the overall education system in pastoral areas were also purposefully selected. These individuals have a great deal of practical experiences regarding the overall challenges and achievements in the provision of and participation in primary education under their respective spheres of influence. School leaders and teachers had contingent experience on what has been taking place in the schools where they are working. The main reason for selecting school leaders and teachers as participants in this study by using purposive and snowball sampling techniques respectively was to obtain data about the actual picture of education provision in pastoralist areas which can be used to compare with the existing national data. They are also good sources of information about the classroom related instructional process as well as within-school factors affecting educational delivery.

PTAs were needed not only to identify the real problems in the provision of education among pastoral communities, but also to get data on cultural, socio-political, ecological and economic constraints related to participation in primary education. However, due to the mobile nature of their lifestyle, it was difficult to get all the PTAs of the selected schools, thus they were included in the study from four schools by availability sampling.

The university students who had received their primary education in the pastoralist areas of the two regions were also purposefully selected to obtain data from their lived experience in attending primary education in pastoralist areas. These students also provided important information about the cultural, political, economic and parental factors influencing primary education. In addition to people (primary sources), official documents including global monitoring reports, national and regional education abstracts and national education sector development programmes related to the issue under study were used as data sources.

### 3.4. Instruments of Data Collection

Different data collection instruments were used to obtain data from different data sources. These include interview, focus group discussion (FGD), observation and document review.

**Interviews**

Interviews were conducted to elicit detailed data from the study participants. Interview also affords opportunities to understand individuals’ perceptions, thoughts and experiences (Adamu, 2014;
Keith, 2009). In this study, only unstructured interview was used to give the interviewees greater freedom and to elicit extended responses. An interview guide was prepared and used to prompt the interviewees to provide more information about the issues under study (Hoepfl, 1997; Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell, & Alexander, 1990). The interview guides consisting of open-ended questions were used to allow interviewees to answer what they felt and believed without any restriction on their own words. This tool was used to gather data from state ministers, the director and experts of special needs and inclusive education of the MoE and experts in education from both REB, the regional education bureau heads, the zonal and woreda education officers, the school leaders and university students.

**Focus group discussion**

FGD, which is an essential data collection instrument for understanding the perceptions, ideas, thoughts and experiences of different groups of people (Bryman, 2008; Krueger & Casey, 2000; Morgan, 1998), was used to collect data from teachers and PTA members. Here, homogeneity of participants’ background was maintained to make the group members more cohesive and interact effectively (Morgan, 1998; Sim, 1998; Vaughn, Schumm, & Sinagub, 1996).

A total of fourteen focus groups (seven focus groups, of which five consisted of teachers and two of PTAs from each region) were conducted. According to the suggestions of various scholars (Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990), the number of participants in each group should be in between six to twelve individuals. This was to avoid the side effects of too small and too large numbers of discussants. Accordingly six individuals were set for each group in this study.

**Observation**

Observation allows the researcher to observe situations in their natural setting. According to Patton (2002), the main advantage of observation is its directness. Moreover, it is a means to understand the subjective meanings of those being studied. In this study the purpose of observation was to understand and describe the teaching and learning process thoroughly and carefully. Therefore observation for this study was planned and supported by taking photographs in order to have a better understanding of the context within which the activities of the teaching and learning programme were taking place. The observation was focused on necessary learning resources and facilities, teaching methods, medium of instruction, relevance of curriculum and interaction.
between students and teachers. In addition, document review was also used to corroborate data obtained from interviews, FGDs and observation.

3.5. Validation of Data Collection Instruments

Each data collection instrument was prepared carefully according to the research questions and the literature reviewed. To enhance the validity of the items included in each data collection instrument, six teachers from the Faculty of Education at Samara and Jigjiga universities were given all the tools to rate the items as “essential”, “not essential” and “useful but not essential”. The items rated as “essential” were taken as they were. Items rated as “useful but not essential” were reformulated. Some of the items rated as “not essential” were omitted and some of them were replaced by other items. The teachers were politely requested not only to rate the items but also to provide constructive comments on each item. Hence due attention was paid to their constructive comments and necessary changes were made to improve the validity of the data collection instruments.

Lastly, the corrected items were translated into Amharic for Afar and into Somali for Somali regions. The translation was also checked by language experts who are also native speakers working at the regional education bureaus. Then, the translated items were used to collect data according to the procedures described below.

3.6. Procedures of Data Collection

Initially I obtained a letter of support from the University of Tampere, Finland, which I submitted to the Ethiopian MoE. Based on this letter, the MoE wrote a letter of cooperation for the Afar and Somali regional education bureaus. Similarly, I obtained a letter of cooperation from the regional education bureaus and went to woredas and zones of Afar and Somali respectively. The information I got from the woreda and zone education officers helped me to reasonably and purposefully select schools from each region. After selecting the schools and potential participants, four data collectors and translators (two from each region) who were native speakers of Afar and Somali languages from their respective regions were recruited, hired, and trained to assist me throughout my stay at the research sites. The half-day orientation and necessary training given
focused on how to handle the data collection process, how to respect respondents, and how to translate participants’ responses.

The data were collected between February and April 2013. Fourteen days (25/02/2013-10/03/2013) in Addis Ababa, twenty two days (23/03/2013-13/04/2013) in Afar, and fourteen days (15/04/2013-28/04/2013) in Somali. During this period, the necessary documents were collected from the MoE, the regional education bureaus, and the zone and woreda education offices. In order to ensure the trustworthiness of the respondents, and the accuracy and authenticity of the data gathered, deep orientations on objectives of the study and common benefits that might be gained from the research were given for each respondent before the data gathering process was started.

3.7. Ethical Considerations

In the process of conducting any research, a researcher has the responsibility to be ethical to her/his profession as well as to the participants. In order to ensure smooth accomplishment of the research objective one must adhere to the various ethical principles. Therefore, to ensure the safe running of the study as indicated above, letters of support and cooperation were secured from the various institutions. I assured the participants that the information gathered would never be used for other purposes rather than for this particular study. I also obtained permission from all participants and maintained consensus with them.

After securing their consent to participate, I introduced the draft of ground rules to be followed during the FGDs (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2005; Neuman, 2007). After we had discussed and made some corrections to the ground rules, the participants willingly consented to follow them while participating in the study. Addressing all the above mentioned ethical concerns helped me to establish friendly relationships with all participants (Bogdan, and Biklen, 2007) which in turn contributed to eliciting credible, necessary and adequate data from the participants.

Based on the consent and agreement that I achieved with all interviewees and FGD participants, tape recording and photos were used to maintain the originality of the data. In order to maintain confidentiality in using direct quotations, participants were addressed using abbreviation and numbers. Accordingly, Sm1, Sm2 for state ministers; Rh1, Rh2 for heads of
regional education bureau; FEx1, FEx2, for experts from the MoE; RExS1, RExS2 for experts from the Somali regional education bureau; RExA1, RExA2 for experts from the Afar regional education bureau; ZhS1, ZhS2, … for zonal education officers from Somali; WoA1, WoA2,… for the woreda education officers from Afar; SdA1, SdA2, … for school leaders from Afar; SdS1, SdS2,… for school leaders from Somali; USJ1, USJ2 for students from Jigjiga University; and USS1, USS2 for students from Samara University.

3.8. Analysis of Data

There is no single and universally accepted way to analyse qualitative data because qualitative research in education and other areas focuses on human behaviour and social life in natural settings. According to Keith, (2009),

“…there is no single right way to do qualitative analysis -no single methodological framework. Much depends on the purpose of the research…..there are different ways of analyzing social life and therefore multiple perspectives and practices in the analysis of qualitative data. There is variety in techniques because there are different questions to be addressed and different versions of social reality that can be elaborated. The different techniques are often interconnected, overlapping and complementary and sometimes mutually exclusive. (p. 170-71).

This study mainly used thematic analysis and followed Creswell’s six steps of qualitative research data analysis (Creswell, 2009, pp. 183-190). First, I began by organizing and preparing the data for analysis. This step involved transcribing interviews, typing up field notes and arranging the data into different types depending on their sources. Secondly, I listened to the recorded data and read the notes carefully and intensively to obtain a general sense of the information and selectively avoided information which did not help to achieve the objective of the study (Kvale, 1996), in keeping with the suggestion of Keith (2009), “…the objective of data reduction is to reduce the data without significant loss of information” (P.174). In the third step I began coding. According to Creswell (2009), coding involves segmenting sentences into categories, and labelling those categories with a term. Fourth, I began to use the coding process to generate a description of the setting as well as categories or themes for analysis. Description involves giving information about
people, places and events in the setting. In the fifth step I explored how the description and themes would be represented in the analysis to convey the findings. The final step involved making an interpretation or meaning of the data.

In general, all the data gathered were transcribed carefully into Amharic (the official language of Ethiopia) and then translated into English. The data obtained through all data collection instruments were systematically organized using structuring into major and sub-themes. The themes were derived from both data obtained through interviews and FGDs and from the literature.

To sum up, the data analysis process included transcribing, translating, coding (the process of putting tags, names or labels against pieces of data), categorizing (identifying themes), analysing and reporting.
4. Research Findings

This chapter mainly presents the data analysis and findings. The truthfulness, comprehensiveness, depth and width of data gathered for any research depends on the knowledge and experience of the respondents. During data collection, the most important characteristics of participants that have direct implications on the validity and fairness of the data were identified. These include, gender, related work experience and ethnicity.

Table 2. Characteristics of participants - Gender and years of experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Years of experience (related to primary education)</th>
<th>Tools used to collect data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaders*</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experts**</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Students</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTAs</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Leaders include state ministers, regional bureau heads, zonal education heads, woreda education heads and school directors from both regions.

**Experts include director of special needs and inclusive education, experts from the MoE, and experts from regional education bureaus.

Respondents’ gender might indicate the state of equity and fairness and further the existing proportions of males and females among the potential respondents of this research. Accordingly, the gender distribution shows the extent to which the data gathered attempted to balance the views
or perspectives of both sexes. However, despite efforts to achieve equal number of males and females in each category, it was impossible to get equal numbers of female respondents among the potential informants. Hence, as can be seen in Table 2, the majority of the respondents were males. However, the data obtained from teachers with a higher proportion of females may balance the evidence provided by other male-dominated groups. Experience has a great effect on the quality of the response of the informants against each item of the instrument. Experience obtained from all forms of learning (i.e. formal and non-formal) and years spent in certain service improves the capacity of the respondents to provide the required information. Accordingly, the experience of all groups of the respondents except the students is presented in Table 2. As shown in the above table, 2/3 of PTA, all the teachers, all the experts, and all the leaders had at least five years’ experience in the jobs related to primary educational provision to pastoral communities.

Table 3. Characteristics of participants - Ethnic composition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Afar Region</th>
<th>Somali Region</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>Non Afar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaders</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>55.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experts</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Students</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTA</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>58.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>53.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The provision of primary school education is largely influenced by the cultural elements of the direct (students) and indirect beneficiaries (like community) of the school. In collecting data on situational factors affecting access, equity, quality and efficiency in education, those who were members of the local community were assumed to have more knowledge pertinent to cultural elements either enhancing or inhibiting the achievement of education for all (Wils et al., 2008).

With reference to the knowledge of the native (indigenous) culture of the pastoral communities, 53.4% of respondents in Afar and 84.2% of respondents in the Somali region
reported that they belonged to Afar and Somali ethnic groups respectively. Even though 46.6% of the respondents in Afar and 15.8% of the respondents in the Somali region did not belong to the ethnicity of Afar and Somali, they were selected because they had spent a longer time in their respective regions, so that they were assumed most likely to understand the barriers to the achievement of the provision and participation in education in the regions.

Nonetheless, when we analyse the proportion of ethnic categories in each group of the respondents, we observe different images related to the participation of the respondents in primary educational provision. For example, 58.3% and 83.3% of PTA members respectively belonged to the ethnic groups of Afar and Somali. Thus the school governance in Afar was found to be less in the hands of individuals from their own ethnic groups than the case in Somali region. This shows that school governance in the case of Somali is much better managed by the local ethnic groups.

Moreover, my plan in this study was to involve teachers who were only Afar and Somali in terms of their ethnicity. This was to get more detailed and dependable data. Despite this endeavour, as noted above, teachers belonging to Afar ethnic groups did not account for more than 40% of the respondents. This means that the majority of primary school children in Afar were taught at primary level by teachers who neither belonged to the Afar ethnic groups nor knew the Afar language.

4.1. Status of Provision of and Participation in Primary School

In this study provision and participation of education has been investigated by analysing data gathered related to the four pillars of education; access, equity, quality and efficiency. These pillars of education are mutually reinforcing. They indicate a balanced view on the status of the provision and participation of education in achieving EFA. For example, achieving access to education without ensuring quality is a sign of strategically or unknowingly reproducing the present illiteracy rates and related socioeconomic gaps, in the name of literacy (UNESCO, 2014). Similarly, planning and practising to maintain access and quality without setting and achieving strategic targets related to educational equity and efficiency is tantamount to walk towards a deviant community and sowing a seed for a weed respectively. Hence, in this study, the provision of and
participation in education in Afar and Somali regions were analysed on the basis of international measures and indices of the pillars of education.

4.1.1. Access to primary education
It is true that, to talk about EFA in 2015 at this time, in an absolute sense, might be an illusion. In support of this UNESCO (2014) projected that the poorest young women in low and middle income countries will only achieve universal literacy by 2086 in Sub Saharan Africa and in 2072 in other nations.

From the different measures that can potentially be used to envisage the status of access to primary education, this study used the four most prominent educational indicators (apparent intake rate (AIR), net intake rates (NIR), gross enrolment ratio (GER), and net enrolment ratio (NER)) to depict the existing realities related to the provision of primary education to the pastoralists found in the two regions, as indicated below.

**Table 4.** Apparent intake rates (AIR)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>78.0</td>
<td>88.8</td>
<td>83.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>118.3</td>
<td>118.2</td>
<td>118.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>150.2</td>
<td>137.8</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of the year (2012/13)

**Table 5.** Net intake rates (NIR)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>28.68</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>32.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>35.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>97.9</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>95.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of the year (2012/13)
AIR is an important indicator that points out the proportion of all children (irrespective of their ages) entering grade one compared to the official school age of eligible children (seven years in the Ethiopian case) in the targeted areas. As can be seen from Table 4, more female students entered grade one than male students in Afar. But in the case of Somali region, the gender distribution seems equal. It can also be observed that the proportion of students entering primary schools in both regions was found to be lower than the national average AIR. This indicates that AIRs in these two regions are lower than in other regions in the country.

One of the state ministers described the root causes of such variation between regional states as follows:

Even though there are some similarities between the newly emerging regions such as harsh climate, lifestyle and socio-economic system, their performance in making education accessible vary from region to region. Gambela and Benishangul are walking equally with other relatively developed regions in the country. Somali has shown a dramatic change recently and it was awarded this year! But the least achieving region is Afar. In the case of Afar, it is possible to categorize the causes into administrative inefficiency and deep-rooted poverty. The current administration system of Ethiopia is federalism. Federalism allows decentralization so the central government has to do nothing in the internal affairs of each region. For example, thirty-two woredas of the education bureau of Afar have been led by less qualified personnel. Even in such a serious case the federal government has no right to assign skilled experts and leaders. However, corrective actions were recently taken in seven woredas in Afar, by appointing graduates as education office heads. The other constraint is lack of collaboration. In order to bring change, regional officials need to collaboratively work with zonal and woreda officials in supervising the schools, sensitizing and mobilizing the community towards the value of education. Such synergy seems less in Afar region. Even at this moment, I have information that more than 20 schools are closed. This is an age-old phenomenon in emerging regions. There are other emerging regions which overcome these challenges. So, Afar has to take lesson from their experience. (Sm1)
The AIR in Afar region was reported to be less than that of the Somali region. This suggested that the Somali region was moving towards the EFA goal with better achievements than the Afar region. According to an expert from the regional education bureau, the reason for better AIR in Somali is the following.

Somali region, for the last few years, has been mobilizing its people. Additionally, not only educational and other political leaders but also the community at large started to recognize that the future fate of their region is in the hands of education. They understand that lack of education is what was making them backward. They also understood that they can play a significant economic and political role in their region as well as in their nation only when they are educated. Therefore, they started working on education with better commitment. (RExS1)

In support to this argument, another regional education expert from Somali said:

For many centuries, we Somali people were illiterate but not ignorant. However, I can neither deny nor forget that the life of our fathers and grandfathers was so bad not because they were empty vessels but merely because they had not been attending formal education to enrich and nourish their knowledge and skills. Because of this they had no common denominators with other people in the nation, except sharing the territory and providing more benefits for other localities that were benefiting so far. Nowadays things have changed. We started to clearly see that education is a master key that operates our hands and minds in fostering both local and national development. Therefore education has been considered as the greater force and top choice in our region and that is why we are fully supporting the revival and revolutionary provision of primary education towards achieving EFA. (RExS2)

From the above data we can understand that the higher AIR in the Somali region was due to the responsible bodies’ positive attitude toward education and strong support to the education sector. By contrast, the AIR in Afar was found to be low. Unlike in Kenya, where local governments and education leaders were found to be playing a key role in the improvement of educational provision to Kenyan pastoralists (Akaranga, 1995; Wils, 2004), in the Afar region, the local government and
people responsible for the education sector lacked strong leadership and commitment to the provision of education to the pastoralist society.

The focus group discussants of teachers in Afar also stated that a shortage of skilled manpower in leading the education sector, political leaders’ lack of commitment and frequent change of government appointees in the educational sector, including woreda education officers, are the main reasons for the low AIR in the region. School directors were disappointed and frustrated because of the situation in the region.

Things in Afar make you mad. You see here [in the school] the situation is so difficult. There is no support and incentives from our masters! No capacity building! No supervision! It is hard to mention all the challenges we face here. All these things make us feel unhappy. If teachers are not happy, how they can make students learn with interest? There are too many problems that I can mention, but in short I can confidently tell you that education is both the forgotten and affected social service in the region. Why do you ask me about the reason for lower educational participation? Why do you not take some time, take more data from students and teachers and observing the school where we work? (SdA1)

The data displayed in Table 5 show that two thirds of children aged seven were found to be outside the school. This suggests that the AIR was increased due to either re-admission of the dropouts and repeaters or enrolment of returnee older children. In this regard, among the children registered and admitted to grade one the number of over-aged students was found to be greater than those of school-age children. According to one of the participants:

There are so many reasons behind the low NIR of children at age seven. At this age children need some treatment, like provision of consistent school feeding. However, the school feeding programme was not consistent. Children coming from far-off places cannot enthusiastically learn with what they have eaten at home. Some even come to school without having breakfast at home. Because of this, what is common among most Afar children is to stay with domestic animals in the field and drink their milk as breakfast and lunch. The options in the school should have included provision of consistent school feeding programmes. On the contrary, older children can resist these challenges and get education. That is why we have more AIR than NIR. (SdA3)
The presence of children over seven years in grade one is also very common in the Somali region. According to an expert from the Somali education bureau “mostly, children who are admitted to grade one are more than seven years old. The main reason for this is the discontinuation of the school feeding programme which had been supported by the World Food Program.” (RExS2)

The data indicated that in both regions the reasons for the low NIR were similar. Children at the age of seven were not able to go to school without having food to eat. The participants from both regions firmly believed that the school feeding programme is the best solution to improve the NIR. This argument is congruent with a research finding in Kenya to the effect that increased NIR is a result of a school feeding programme (Akaranga, 1995).

The other issue investigated in relation to the provision of primary education in pastoralist areas was the enrolment rate. The enrolment rate shows the average proportion of participation of pupils within the indicated range of grades. This indicator is important to examine the status of the involvement of children within some limited level in the structure of formal schooling. The achievement of the goals of UPE is best seen using this index. Since the achievement of universal educational provision gets harder and harder as one moves along the structure of education, results at lower grades of primary education may not enable us to know those in the upper grades.

Table 6. Gross enrolment ratio (grade 1-8)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>53.4</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>98.0</td>
<td>95.4</td>
<td>96.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>98.2</td>
<td>92.4</td>
<td>95.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of the year (2012/13)

Table 7. Net enrolment ratio (grade 1-8)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>41.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>82.6</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>81.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>87.7</td>
<td>84.1</td>
<td>85.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of the year (2012/13)
The proportion of all pupils in primary education in Afar Region was about half of the official primary school age population. The tables also indicated that the participation of female students in Afar is better than that of their male counterparts. As indicated in Table 6 and 7, attendance at primary school in the Somali region was better than in the Afar region. However, female students’ attendance in the Somali region was found to be lower than that of males. As indicated in Table 7, the NER of pupils in primary education in both regions was found to be lower than the GER of the pupils at the same level.

The data obtained from participants indicated much better achievements of provision of and participation in primary education towards the second goal of EFA in the Somali region than in the Afar region. According to an expert from the Somali region, the main reasons for the positive outcomes are the following.

Education in Somali has been seen as a remedy to all development. Hence we started to allocate more resources to education. Above all, the primary business of all education leaders, including the supervisors, is to support and direct the schools. They are working with school directors. If you [the researcher] go to any school, you will find that the community is happy with the support we are providing. Additionally, we are supporting the school in getting the dropouts back to school. To this end we have discussion sessions with the community mainly on the future benefit of education. We do this always and we are convincing the pastoralists to help their children to learn. (RExS1)

Furthermore, the focus group discussants containing teachers in one of the selected schools in the Jigjiga zone of the Somali region disclosed that schools are in the right direction to achieve UPE. They agreed that the sensitization process significantly contributed to the higher GER of pupils at primary school level in the Somali region.

A school director from the Afar region was also asked about this and responded that:

The problem of education in Afar is uncountable. First of all, there is corruption and nepotism in the region. This is a boarding school for girls built to reach the unreached and to support poor families who lack the financial ability to support the education of their children. But if you [the researcher] see the composition of students, the majority of them are from relatively well-to-do families and from the families of the top political leaders of
the region. Except for some very few, all students come from relatively rich families and these families come frequently to visit their daughters. If this school was established to provide access to education for disadvantaged female students, which contributes to achieving the EFA goals, why do they do such a ‘shameful’ practice? This affects the morale of many parents. Therefore, for me, the root cause of low performance towards enrolment and the achievement of EFA goals is the absence of good governance and the prevalence of corruption. I think that if good governance is possibly maintained in the region, there will be a high enrolment rate and the achievement of EFA goals will become so easy. For this to happen, we are trying to influence the officials to exercise fair and valid screening admission criteria for pupils to this school. (SdA4)

The Afar student from Samara University also believed that the main reason for the low enrolment rate in primary education in the region was not because of the society but rather of the individuals leading the region.

Afar is lagging behind even compared to other regions that have similar climatic conditions and socio-cultural and economic environment in Ethiopia. Is this because we are unable to learn because we are dull? Or is this because we are cursed by our ancestors? I do not think that all these are the right and real reasons. I think the main reason for the poor provision of education and low enrolment rate in our region is lack of good governance. A few years ago we [Afar] were on the same level as other pastoralist regions such as Benishangul, Gambela and Somali. These regions have made very good progress in improving provision of education. Here we need to ask how these regions, particularly Gambela and Somali, became the winners in the national educational performance. (USS1)

Generally, the above data showed that educational provision in the Afar regions is lower than in the Somali region and also lower than the national average. Based on this finding one can argue that the ineffective performance of educational provision in the Afar region is one of the pulling factors to achieve the EFA at national level.
4.1.2. Equity in education

The main intention of the ratification and enforcement of free primary education policies in Ethiopia as of 1994 was to avoid high direct costs of education, which was the main barrier for children from poor families not to gaining access to primary education and also for early dropout. This helped to ensure that no child would be excluded from school because of inability to pay. Although financing primary education in one way or another provides an opportunity for marginalized children, including those from pastoralist regions, to have access to education, it was estimated that millions of children were not attending primary school in the pastoral regions. Thus one of the focuses of the fourth Ethiopian Education Sectors Development Program (2010/11-2014/15) was to address these groups (MoE, 2010).

Since education is a basic human right giving opportunities to citizens deprived of primary education, devising and applying some affirmative programmes would be important for the healthy survival and development of the country. To this end, educational parity should be maintained between males and females, rural and urban as well as agrarian and pastoral communities. Accordingly, in this particular study, data were gathered on the extent and effects of educational disparity. By doing so, the existing status of educational equity in the regions is analysed based on the data obtained on gender parity, and urban versus rural provision of primary education compared with those of the national average as indicated below.

**Gender parity**

Ensuring gender parity has become a challenge in developing countries. Until 2013, only 20% of the developing countries achieved gender parity in primary education. According to UNESCO (2014), by 2015, 70% of the countries will attain gender parity, 9% of the countries will be close to attaining the goal, 14% of the countries will still be far from attaining the target, and 7% of the countries will be very far. Three quarters of the countries that will be very far from attaining the target are in Sub-Saharan Africa.
Concerning gender parity in the two regions, Table 8 shows that the AIR of females in Afar regions was found to be more than that of males. In the case of the Somali region the AIR of males and females was reportedly equal. The proportion of net enrolment ratio of females to males in Afar region is even better than that of the national figure (see Table 7). The proportion of female students enrolled at the appropriate school age was more than that of male students, but the proportion of female students attending primary school at the appropriate school age in the Somali region and at national level was found to be lower than that of male students.

In order to substantiate the data obtained through document review, I conducted field observation in the sample schools. In all schools I observed that the number of female students was greater than that of male students in the Afar region. For example, in Dufti Arategna Ersha Tabia primary school, out of 98 students the number of females was 77; in Serdo primary school, out of 95 students the number of females was 60; and in Berso primary school out of 127 students the number of females was 68. This empirical data showed that the number of females exceeds 50% of the total number students in these schools. However, as can be seen in the picture below, the majority of female students in the primary school were not of the appropriate school age.

Table 8. Apparent intake rate and gender parity index (GPI)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>AIR</th>
<th>GPI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>78.0</td>
<td>88.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>118.3</td>
<td>118.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>150.2</td>
<td>137.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of the year (2012/13)
On the other hand, the school observation made in the Somali regions showed that males outnumber females in primary schools. For example, in Wolwol primary school, out of 158 students only 53 were female, and in Karbeje primary school out of 144 students only 49 were females. Moreover, gender disparity tends to increase throughout the grades. This means that at higher grade levels (grade 7 and 8) their proportional enrolment rate becomes lower than that of male students, and this is mainly associated with marriage. The other reason for the low enrolment rate of female students at higher grade levels has to do with interruption or lack of incentives.

The government uses different strategies to bring females to school. Some of the strategies are providing cooking oil and establishing boarding schools in both regions. The participation of female students in primary school increases or at least remains constant as long as they are provided cooking oil. A very good example for this is the participation of female students in the primary schools in Afar region. (FEx1)

In our school, we motivate females to come to school by providing them with two littres of cooking oil per month, which is donated by the World Food Program for education. The
parents are very happy to get cooking oil from schools by sending their daughters to school. However, when for some reason the schools are not able to provide cooking oil, the majority of female students do not come to school. The other problem in relation to female students in some parts of the region is that when female students reach at the age of puberty, their parents force them to get married to get a dowry in return. (SdA3)

Although the World Bank (1997) states that school facilities such as separate toilets is one of the reasons for girls lower participation in education in the rural parts of pastoralist societies, and absence of separate toilets in schools was observed during the field study, the participants did not mention this as one of the main reasons for female dropout. Generally the above data indicate that the overall net enrolment of primary school students in the Afar region is very low compared to both the Somali region and the national average. However, the gender parity in both regions seems to be better than that of the national average.

**Urban versus rural areas**

People hardly have access to “modern” transport services in the rural parts Ethiopia. In such a context, the presence of reasonably sufficient number of primary schools in rural Ethiopia seems to have contributed to increasing access to primary education in pastoralist areas, which in turn contributes to achieving UPE. The fair distribution of primary schools across urban and rural parts of the country contributes to the prevalence of balanced opportunities for education and development among different nations and nationalities in a country. The attempt to minimize or avoid disparity in access to education through establishing schools in both urban and rural areas is one of the strategic methods to mitigate potential socio-economic and political discrimination in a country.

In Ethiopia, the proportion of primary school-age children in rural and urban settings is projected to be 85% and 15% respectively (MoE, 2012/13). Based on this ratio, one expects the number of primary schools in rural areas to be around 85% of the total primary schools in the country. In Afar region 76.17% of primary school students were from rural areas (see Table 9), and the number of primary schools in rural parts (87%) are far greater than the primary schools in urban parts (13%) (see Table 10). In the Somali region, about 60% of primary school students
were from rural parts (see Table 9), and the number of primary schools in rural parts (87%) is also far greater than that of the primary schools in urban parts (13.18%).

Table 9. Students learning in urban and rural primary schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Urban No.</th>
<th>Urban %</th>
<th>Rural No.</th>
<th>Rural %</th>
<th>Total No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>29,896</td>
<td>23.83</td>
<td>95,567</td>
<td>76.17</td>
<td>125,463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>279,217</td>
<td>40.75</td>
<td>406,008</td>
<td>59.25</td>
<td>685,225</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of (2012/13)

Table 10. Number and percentage of primary schools in urban and rural parts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Urban No of school</th>
<th>Urban %</th>
<th>Rural No of school</th>
<th>Rural %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>435</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>944</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>6495</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24,000</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of (2012/13)

The distribution of schools in the urban and rural parts of the Afar and Somali regions was found to be very fair considering the total population living in the urban and rural parts of these regions. In spite of this, educational parity between urban and rural parts of these regions was not maintained. The participants mentioned various reasons for this.

It is true that the number of primary schools should be in line with the number of population in urban and rural areas of the region. However, the number of students participating in urban areas was found to be more than those in rural areas. The main reason for this disparity is the settlement pattern of pastoralists. As you may know, pastoralists move from place to place to find grazing land for their cattle. This makes it difficult to retain students throughout the academic year in rural areas. It is also difficult to establish temporary schools and to move teachers with the pastoralists. (WoA2)
In my school, most of the time, many students come for registration at the beginning of the academic year. However, after some months they start to drop out of school. The dropout ranges from half to all students. Some of the reasons for this are the harshness of the climate [extremely hot], interruptions in school feeding programmes, and the society’s low estimation of education. (SdA1)

In the FGD, members of the PTA in one of the schools in the Afar region stated that the major reasons for lower attendance at primary schools in rural parts of Afar are less awareness on the value of education, lack of competent teachers, difficult climatic conditions, and poor support from family.

Photo 2: Serdo School in Afar, nearly half of the students dropped out
Source: Photo taken by the researcher during the field survey

In the FGD conducted in schools in the Somali region, teachers noted that the main reasons behind diminished participation of pupils in rural parts is lack of facilities in the school (e.g. water), difficult weather, parents’ positive attitude toward marriage, too much domestic work for females and field work for males, uneducated family and low value attached to education, shortage of
competent and motivated teachers, long distance to get to school, displacement of people because of drought, and sometimes insecurity because of the conflicts that arise sporadically between ethnic groups.

School leaders in Jigjiga zone also said the following.

In Somali region, I assure you that things are going well. Educational provisions are getting better support from responsible bodies. The number of pupils attending primary school is increasing. I am saying this in comparison with the numbers of pupils attending a year ago in our school. However, if we compare the overall participation of students in primary schools in urban and rural areas, it is true that the attendance of pupils in primary schools in urban areas is far better than that in rural areas. The most common reasons for the low participation of children in primary schools in rural areas is teachers’ lack of commitment, interruption of school feeding programmes, low motivation on the part of girls and absence of model students in some parts of the rural areas. (SdS2)

The aforementioned data indicated several factors that affect the participation of children in primary school in rural areas. These can be also taken as pulling factors to achieve EFA in these regions. These findings concur with those of other studies suggesting that harsh environmental conditions and lower cultural value attached to education (Carr-Hill & Peart, 2005) negatively influence children’s attendance in primary schools in the rural parts of developing countries. As Ismail (2002) claims, disparity between rural and urban areas in primary educational provision and related participation could gradually cause disparity in participation in policy formulation and political representation. This could again create a black spot on national integrity.

4.1.3. Quality of education

The quality of primary education in the two regions was investigated based on input and process quality indicators. Input includes pupil-teacher ratio and pupil-section ratio, teachers’ qualifications, quality of pedagogical centre, pupil-textbook ratio, and quality of libraries. The process includes integrating instruction with real life, practice of student centred approach in teaching, and continuous assessment and improvement of instructional methodology. In order to
better understand the quality of education in the primary schools of the two regions it was important to examine the inputs for quality of education.

**Pupil teacher ratio**

Providing education for all children depends on the quality of inputs available in the schools. One of the qualities of input indicators is the ratio between teachers and their students. The average pupil-teacher ratio varies both with educational level and across countries. Sub-Saharan countries now have the highest pupil-teacher ratio in the world at primary school level. Of the 162 countries studied by global monitoring groups in 2013, 26 had a pupil-teacher ratio in primary education exceeding 40, and 23 of these were in Sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2014). This is mainly related to a shortage of primary school teachers because of low employment. In the Afar region of Ethiopia, the pupil-teacher ratio is less than that of both Somali region and the national average (see Table 11). The better pupil-teacher ratio in Afar region has two reasons. The first is inefficient use of teachers, and the second is lower participation of students because of several factors mentioned before.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Pupil-teacher ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>40.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>102.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Average</td>
<td>49.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of (2012/13)

However, in all classrooms observed in the Afar region the average pupil-teacher ratio was less than 20. The worst is the ratio in the Somali region. The regional average pupil-teacher ratio in the Somali region, as shown in Table 11, is more than twice the national average.
Pupil-section ratio

In a small pupil-section ratio teachers get more chance to monitor the progress of their students and easily manage the classes so that the teachers can sufficiently guide, help and shape behavioural changes in their pupils. However, while a small pupil-section ratio entails the problem of efficient use of teachers and other resources allotted for each class, a large pupil-section ratio also has the disadvantage of lowering one-to-one interaction between teachers and pupils so that it may be difficult for the teachers to support and guide the learning progress of their pupils. Moreover, in a large class, problems of managing pupils in a classroom may increase.

Table 12. Pupil-section ratio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regions</th>
<th>Pupil-section ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>105.1*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>53.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of (2012/13)

* The highest rate in the nation

As Table 12 shows, the pupil-section ratio of primary schools in the Afar region is less than the national average. On the other hand, the pupil-section ratio in the Somali region is far more than the national average. In a region where the pupil-teacher ratio is more than 100, it may not be surprising to see a high pupil-section ratio. In very hot weather conditions without any cooling system, placing more than 100 students in a classroom creates suffocation and affects teachers’ and students’ motivation to teach and learn respectively.

Teachers’ qualifications

The quality characteristics of teachers include knowledge of subject matter, skills in classroom management, assessment and evaluation of students, and ethics and behaviour (Ginsburg, 2011). As can be seen from Table 13, in both regions the number of certified teachers increases in the second cycle of primary schools (grades 5-8). The data indicated that about 70% of teachers in
Afar and 80% of teachers in Somali are teaching in the first cycle primary school without having the necessary certificate to teach. The percentages of qualified primary school teachers in Afar (56.95) and in Somali (40.1) are below the national average (67.9).

**Table 13. Certified primary school teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Grade 1-4</th>
<th>Grade 5-8</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>83.9%</td>
<td>56.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>20.5%</td>
<td>59.7%</td>
<td>40.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>43.8%</td>
<td>92 %</td>
<td>67.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of (2012/13)

The above table shows the trend of nominal provision of education for primary school children at the expense of quality. Moreover, the implementation of an automatic promotion policy in first cycle primary schools in which there are less than 30% qualified teachers is paradoxical. Automatic promotion at primary schools which have significantly low qualified teachers will have a direct and negative impact on the performance of students at the higher grade levels. This practice hampers the provision of quality education and the process of fostering pupils’ personal and academic development. The practice seems to have focused on access to education without proper provision of education. Such practice is not confined to these regions nor indeed to Ethiopia. Many countries in the world have hired too many unqualified teachers to increase enrolment rates and attain EFA goals in a quantitative sense. Such a strategy might be better to accommodate more children in school but it is the worst means with respect to quality (UNESCO, 2014).

**Pedagogical centre**

Pedagogical centre produce teaching aids that support the provision of quality education. Such teaching aids support learning processes not only by improving the rate of retention and extent of understanding but also by fostering functional education by linking theory with practice. Here, the presence of pedagogical centre alone does not add value. Rather, they should produce relevant
teaching aids and materials based on the demands of the curriculum. Moreover, all pertinent teaching aids produced need to be used to support the learning-teaching processes in a school.

Table 14. Pedagogical centre

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Total School</th>
<th>Pedagogical Centre</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>1,091</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>30,495</td>
<td>16,237</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of (2012/13)

The annual education abstract of the Ethiopian Ministry of Education (MoE, 2012/13) reported that 53% of primary schools in the country had pedagogical centres. As can be seen from Table 14, only 11% of Afar and 0.4% of the Somali region’s primary schools had pedagogical centres, thus the numbers of primary schools with pedagogical centres in the two regions are far below the national average.

The data obtained through observation in schools in the Afar and Somali regions corroborate the annual abstract of the MoE. Moreover, the data from observation showed that of the ten schools in the two regions, only two (one in each region) had relatively functioning pedagogical centres. FGDs participants of teachers of both regions also stated that even in schools with pedagogical centres, the centres are almost dysfunctional. This was due in part to lack of funds to buy materials for production, teachers’ lack of motivation to produce teaching aids, lack of awareness of the advantages of using teaching aids (some teachers thought that using teaching aids impinges on the teachers’ time for lecturing). Other participants also mentioned problems related to the lack of pedagogical centre.

It is true that pedagogical centres strengthen students’ learning. The problem is that we have no rooms to start producing teaching aids. We do not have any funds to prepare or produce the required teaching materials. Obtaining funding from the woreda for the production of teaching aids is unthinkable. It is through a strong struggle is that we get
books for our students. Because of this we are not able to support our teaching with relevant
teaching aids. Thus we teach our students only verbally or theoretically. I think this results
in low retention and an extremely boring instructional processes. (SdA4)

The above data show that pedagogical centre were not either established at all (except in two
schools) or then teaching aids were nor produced and utilized appropriately in the primary schools
of the Afar and Somali regions.

**Textbooks and libraries**

Providing quality textbooks to the learners at a ratio of one to one, was one of the intentions of the
fourth Ethiopian Education Sector Development Program (MoE, 2010). It is true that when
students get textbooks with this ratio the quality of the learning process in the school improves.
However, the classroom observation at all sample primary schools in the Afar and Somali regions
showed that there is no one-to-one student textbook ratio. According to the FGD participant of
teachers in the Afar region, the textbook to student ratio is one to four, and the main problem in
the shortage of books in schools is the woreda education office, which failed to respond to schools’
reports of shortages of books. However, according to the FGD participant of teachers in the Somali
region, the main problem with the shortage of books in schools is lack of proper use by teachers
and students. This is based on the argument that books are expensive, and nationally it is agreed
that a book is required to serve for five years. Practically, however, because of lack of proper use,
most books only last for a term or a year.

According to a participant from the zonal education bureau in the Somali region the main
problem with the shortage of books in schools is lack of funds.

We [the zone where the participant works] have so many problems related to development.
We have so many things to do but we have shortage of funds. The annual allocation we get
from the regional state is not sufficient to satisfy all the needs we have and all the activities
we want to accomplish. Even though the regional state often gives us some more money in
addition to the allocation, we still have too many problems to solve. This means it is only
because of the lack of funds that we are unable to respond to some of the requests of our
schools including achieving a one-to-one pupil-book ratio. (ZhS2)
The above data show that in both regions there is a shortage of books in all schools. The UNESCO Global Monitoring Report (GMR) states that one of the barriers to EFA is that schools in many developing countries do not have access to books; for example, in 2013 in Tanzania only 3.5% of all sixth grade pupils had books (UNESCO, 2014). This shows that the problems related to books are not limited to Ethiopian pastoralists. It seems a common constraint on quality education in other countries, too, particularly in Africa. From this finding we can understand that shortage of books in schools in the two regions potentially inhibits effective learning-teaching processes which in turn impacts on the provision of quality education in all primary schools in the region.

Table 15. Available libraries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regions</th>
<th>Total primary schools</th>
<th>Primary schools with libraries</th>
<th>Primary schools without libraries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>1,091</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>30,495</td>
<td>13,216</td>
<td>42.30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of (2012/13)

Table15 shows that more than half of the primary schools in Ethiopia have no libraries. The primary schools in the Afar and Somali regions are no exception; rather the numbers of primary schools that have libraries in these regions are not only far below the national average but almost insignificant. Observation also revealed that four out of the five schools in the Afar region and five out of the five primary schools in the Somali region had no libraries at all. Thus the learning and teaching processes in these primary schools were not supported by libraries, and this inhibits the provision of quality education

**Process for quality of education**

Both availability of quality inputs and quality of instructional processes are very important for the production of quality outputs, namely competent completers of each of the grades. Instructional
processes are crucial stages where the available instructional inputs interact with each other (Lewin, 2007). In instructional processes, the interaction among elements of instruction including the student (the learner), the teacher (the main organizers and facilitators), curriculum (content to be addressed), methodology (strategy of the interaction), instructional technology (simplifiers of the process) and teaching aids (drivers of learning) take place in order to yield the required result, namely the transfer and development of the expected skills, knowledge and related behavioural and attitudinal changes, mainly in the learners (Levin, 1983).

Integrating classroom lessons with the real life of the learners is important to increase the validity of and return on the instruction as well as the pupils’ motivation to learn. This involves taking the pupils to their environment and bringing the environment to the class theoretically (using examples or real practical demonstrations) (Levin, 1983). Moreover, integrated instruction makes the learner learn by applying the constructivist theory of learning whereby the learners integrate all pieces of substance gained from all subjects and make use of them to process the overall development of their personalities (Wils & Ingram, 2011).

On the other hand, applied instruction helps the teacher to guide the instruction and the students to learn efficiently and effectively by using pertinent teaching aids and other instructional technologies. As integrated instruction initially changes the mental and behavioural setup of the learners, practical instruction helps learners to adapt and interact with their ecology (social, economic and physical environment) and change their lives as well as the wellbeing of others (Teitjen, 1991).

**Integrating instruction with real life**

The provision of education at primary school is assumed to be integrated with real life so that the purpose of the instruction can be achieved (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 1996; Monk, 2009; Teffera, 2001). In the classroom observations made in schools in the Afar and Somali regions, no attempt was made to integrate the instruction with real life. The FGD participant teachers in Afar mentioned that lack of well-organized libraries, laboratories and the low morale of the teachers and school leaders constrained the application of integrated and applied instructional delivery in the schools. School leaders also believed that it is difficult for teachers to integrate instruction into real life.
In our school teaching by integrating instruction into real life is quite difficult. I am not saying that it is impossible. It would be possible if the curriculum was developed by taking the real life context of the direct [the learners] and indirect [the parents and community] beneficiaries of schooling. However, the curriculum seems to be copied from somewhere else. Moreover, there is no facility in the school to make the instruction practical and real life oriented. Also, most teachers are not interested in staying here for many reasons. So, how can you think about instructional integrity in such a difficult and unattractive working environment? (SdA4)

The FGD (participant) teachers in the Somali region underlined that the children of pastoralists who are learning through non-formal education, mainly alternative basic education (ABE), are getting more relevant education which is integrated with the lives of the learners in particular and the community in general. However, they thought that the curriculum designed for regular primary education was less relevant to the learners and made it difficult to integrate instruction with real life. The main problem in this regard was that the curriculum was not developed by participating experts who understand the culture and socioeconomic reality of the society.

The student from Samara University also seems to share the views of the FGD participants.

When I look back at the primary school curriculum when I was in elementary school 12 years ago, I found that it is not relevant. This problem is still unsolved. I guess the problem related to this might be because we [the Afar people] were and are not aware of the benefit of participating in curriculum development or revision. If curriculum is developed by people who do not understand the local reality, then such problems naturally occur. Moreover, teachers and school leaders serving in primary schools were and still many of them are from other regions, and they do not understand the culture of the society they serve. Hence, how can they teach children by linking the instruction with a local reality that they do not know? (USS3)

The above data suggest that educational provision at primary school level in the two regions was not practiced by integrating instruction with the real life of the society. The two major reasons for this were found to be a curriculum developed by people who do not understand the culture of the society, and teachers who are not aware of the culture of the society they serve. Data obtained
through observation also substantiate participants’ arguments. During classroom observations in both the Afar and Somali regions, no attempt was made by any teachers to integrate the instruction with real life.

**Student centred approach**

Individual students do have their own pace and style of learning. It is assumed and agreed by different scholars that all instructional interaction needs to be planned according to the interests and nature of the students (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 1996; Mfum-Mensha, 2001). Hence teachers are expected to organize and manage the instructional environment according to the pace, preferences and nature of the learners. However, the focus group discussant teachers of both regions noted that in all schools the learning teaching process is highly teacher centred. What to teach, how to teach and when to teach were decided solely by teachers. The focus of most teachers is not on how to teach effectively and how much the learner gets from what they teach. Rather, their focus is on how to finish what they are supposed to teach in a semester or a year. Discussants emphasized that the teaching methodology the teachers applied did not take account of the learning capacity of the learners and the content to be taught. This sometimes makes students confused. Here, the respondents added that students were sometimes confused by the pace of their teachers. Therefore the students had no chance to take part in the process of their learning. Discussants from the Afar region in particular were more concerned about the medium of instruction and stated that almost all teachers teach in a language that the learners cannot understand. This also contributes to the absence of a student centred approach because primary school children cannot actively participate when their proficiency in the medium of instruction is not good.

The classroom observation in both regions also revealed that the learning and teaching process was highly teacher centred. As the focus group discussants composed of teachers asserted the medium of instruction in the Afar region was not the mother tongue of most students and this affected pupils’ participation. However, this cannot be mentioned as a reason in the case of Somali region, because in the Somali region the medium of instruction is Somali language, which is the mother tongue of almost all pupils there. In both regions in some of the classrooms observed most teachers did not have a lesson plan to help to intentionally use a student centred approach. Even those teachers who had prepared a lesson plan did not actually follow it in the classroom.
A school leader from the Somali region also stated that the student centred approach is not practiced and he mentioned different reasons for this.

In the school I am leading it is unthinkable to consider the application of a student centred instructional approach. This is partly because the teachers are not well trained to apply this kind of approach. Moreover, the classroom conditions are not favorable. Most students are not motivated to learn. They are not goal oriented to take the responsibility of leading the instructional process. Sometimes the large numbers of students in a classroom hinder teachers from using student centred approach. (SdS2)

According to the data presented above pupils were alienated from an issue which concerns them, and as a result they became passive learners who always listen what the teacher says. The main reason for this seem to be teachers’ lack of awareness about the significance of a student centred approach which could potentially be associated with poor teacher training, unqualified teachers and ignorance.

Assessment and improvement of instruction
The learning and teaching process requires both forms of assessment; formative and summative. Formative assessment is intended to identify learning difficulty of the students, teaching abilities of the teachers as well as the overall efficiency and effectiveness of the instructional organization from the preparation of annual, monthly, weekly, and unit lesson plans to their implementation. It is used to identify the limitations of the instructional process and improve the pupils’ performance. On the other hand, summative assessment is an evaluative process whereby the overall performances of the students are judged. Formative assessments are said to be an assessment for learning, whereas summative assessment is called an assessment of learning. Formative assessment is used for the continuous improvement of the effectiveness of the performance of both learners and teachers. Thus it is expected to be linked with the problem solving strategy of the instruction process. This means that if formative assessment is conducted in a continuous way, it helps to solve or at least reduce the learning difficulty of learners (Teitjen, 1991).

In the FGDs teachers from both the Afar and Somali regions noted that continuous assessment was not practiced in their respective schools. Teachers usually gave tests not to test the instructional process and solve instruction related problems, but to give marks for the performance
of the students in each test. It was not linked to the assessment of the capacity of the teachers or the quality and relevance or appropriateness of the curriculum and effectiveness of the strategy of learning. Hence, the end result of administrating tests and examinations was only to judge and rate the pupils. Discussants associated this with two major reasons. First, most teachers are unaware of the basic reason for conducting continuous assessment. These teachers consider tests and examinations as means to provide results which helps to decide who will pass or fail at the end of the academic year. Second, those teachers who are aware of the purpose and benefits of continuous assessment are reluctant to implement it because it is demanding and time consuming. The discussants also mentioned that assessments are often associated with results to rate the capacity of the learners but not linked to the assessment of the capacity of the teachers or the quality and relevance or appropriateness of the curriculum and the effectiveness of the strategy of learning. It is only students who are praised or blamed for academic results.

According to the regional education experts responsible for supervising primary schools, even though teachers are largely responsible for the absence and poor implementation of continuous assessment, supervisors, including the informant himself, are also responsible.

As an expert of education and a supervisor, I am supposed to have a profound knowledge of continuous assessment. However, I do not have the required knowledge and competence on the issue to enable me to provide training and directions, and to evaluate the practices of continuous assessment. I usually supervise by checking the link between the annual and unit lesson plan, to see whether teachers are teaching according to their plans. I usually advise teachers to stick to their plans, but not to the instructional processes including continuous assessment. Here, I have to be honest that there is no expert or supervisor in our region who supervises and guides teachers in continuous assessment to enhance student learning. Now I promise to change my mind and improve myself and others. (RExA2)

A school leader from Somali also said the following.

We conduct student assessment in our school. The assessment is to get information on the extent of student learning and mainly to identify students’ ability based on marks. Teachers do not evaluate themselves and their teaching strategies. We, the school leaders, are not aware of the other purposes of assessment. We are not trained in how to manage and lead the practice of teachers towards the application of continuous assessment for continuous improvement. Frankly speaking, I have no idea about how to do that. When I supervise
teachers in the class, I mostly focus on the way they teach, which means how they use the blackboard, the match between what is planned and practiced, and their time management. (SdS2)

This shows that in both regions there is a big mismatch between the purpose and practice of continuous assessment. The objective of assessment was not to assess the overall progress of the learners but simply to give grades based on the correct responses given to each of the items in the test. This still implies that provision of education in primary schools in Afar and Somali which was not supported by continuous assessment impedes the achievement of one of the EFA goals, namely ensuring provision of quality education.

4.1.4. Efficiency in education
Efficiency in education is often related to the wise use of scarce resources with little or no wastage. In this research three indicators were used to measure the educational efficiency of primary education in the two regions. The indicators were dropout rates, repetition rates and completion rates in the primary schools of the regions.

Dropout rates
The dropout rates at the primary schools in both regions were less than the national average (see Table 16). On the other hand, when we compare the dropout rates of the two regions, primary schools in the Somali region were found to be retaining or returning their students more than the primary schools in the Afar region. The numbers of female dropouts both in Afar and Somali are greater than male dropouts.

Table 16. Dropout rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Male (%)</th>
<th>Female (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of (2012/13)
The data obtained from the rosters (lists of pupils enrolled at different grade levels) in the primary schools of the two regions indicated that the dropout rates decreased as the grade level increased. This implies that in primary schools there is a high dropout rate at the lower grade levels. However, the dropout rate among girls increases as the grade level increases. This suggests that that there is high dropout rate of female students in the second cycle of primary education (grades 5-8). Participants also mentioned several reasons for the dropout at primary schools in the Afar region.

Mostly up to 30% of dropouts from school occur during harsh weather and droughts. In addition, relatively poor achievers tend to dropout more than the highest achievers. Hence the academic performance is one of the stimuli for retention and continuation of students in school. Frequent sickness and the related absenteeism is also another factor contributing to dropout. (SdA2)

Earlier studies also show that low achievement (Boyle, Brock, Mace, & Sibbons, 2002; Hunter & May, 2011), irregular attendance and temporary withdrawal due to problems related to the health of pupils and their family members (Hunt, 2008) are some of the factors contributing to pupil dropout.

Almost all FGD members of PTAs of both regions noted that pupils’ inability to withstand harsh climate and lack of drinking water in schools are some of the reasons for dropout. This is particularly serious among the youngest pupils (6-7 years). The other reason noted by the PTA members was that when pastoralists move from place to place searching for water and grass for their domestic animals, this forces children to dropout any time and move with their families. They also mentioned that weak strategies used to return students, early marriage, cultural beliefs and practices are other factors contributing to dropout in primary schools. Earlier research has also reported that some cultural beliefs and practices (Colclough, Rose & Tembon, 2000), and migration and too much domestic work (Tuwor & Sossou, 2008; Vavrus, 2002) are some of the reasons behind dropout, particularly for girls in the primary schools of developing countries.

Teachers in both regions in their group discussions also pointed out that the dropout rate reached its peak during the dry season. In this season the absence or extreme shortage of water and very hot weather conditions with temperatures sometimes exceeding 50 degrees centigrade were too hard for the children to cope with. Although these and other issues are major factors, the
teachers noted that parents’ reluctance and ignorance regarding their children’s education also contributed to dropout.

The problems related to dropout among primary school children was also familiar to the zone education heads in the Somali region.

Even though different collaborative measures were taken to keep returning students, each year about 10 percent of the total dropout from primary schools is due to several reasons. These include poverty, parents’ low awareness of the importance of formal education, children’s engagement in income generating activities, academic failure, poor quality of the school environment, and unpleasant relationship between teachers and students. (ZhS2)

Generally the data show that although the dropout rate in the Afar and Somali regions is lower than the national average, remarkable numbers of pupils were dropping out of the primary schools in the two regions. The data indicated that different factors are contributing to the dropout of students from primary schools. Most of these are related to socioeconomic, socio cultural and attitudinal problems.

**Repetition Rate**

Regarding efficiency, repetition has more disastrous effects than dropout. This is because in repetition all the yearly educational direct and indirect (opportunity) cost of education may be wasted. Because of this parents are often more disappointed when their children repeat a class than when they dropout. Therefore, reducing or avoiding repetition becomes a critical issue that needs to be addressed in the education system not only to minimize private and public spending on education but also to achieve the EFA goals. In economically developing countries like Ethiopia and in disadvantaged regions like Afar and Somali, alleviating repetition has a greater meaning and advantage than in developed countries and regions. This is partly because there are many developmental gaps that demand human resources on the one hand and limited financial resources on the other hand.
Table 17. Repetition rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of (2012/13)

The repetition rate of students in primary schools in the Afar region was greater than in the Somali region and the national average. In order to develop possible interventions to minimize or stop repetition and achieve EFA, concerned bodies need to identify factors that affect pupils’ progress or increase the repetition rate.

In the FGD teachers of both regions noted that the main reason for repetition was economic. The economic status of most pastoralists is poor. Thus, in order to generate more income for the family, parents engage their children in income generating activities or some other work. This is at the expense of the children’s education. In such situations parents’ first priority for their children is work and education is second. Hence, when pupils do not focus on their education and when they have no time to study, repetition becomes unavoidable. The other issue related to economic status is lack of balanced diet. Parents cannot afford or fail to give their children nutritious food. This malnutrition makes children mentally inactive, physically weak and academically incompetent. Teachers also noted that teachers’ lack of motivation and competencies to teach, to support and guide their students, and lack of a favorable learning environment both at school and in pupils’ homes are factors that contribute to repetition.

The other factor mentioned among the discussants was distance of schools from home. Children cannot travel long distances and because of this numerous students are not motivated to go to school. Even children who are determined to face these challenges feel tired when they reach school and because of this they cannot attend properly in class. Because of tiredness and the hot weather, they often sleep in the classroom. When they get home they feel even more tired. This is often overlooked by parents and children are expected to help their families by doing some of the domestic work. They do not have time for homework and assignments at home. Consequently, they are not able to succeed. The discussants mentioned that within the primary school there is a high repetition rate at the beginning of schooling and at the end of primary school. As discussed
before, this study also revealed that there is more dropout and repetition in the higher level of primary education. Research also shows that in many countries repetitions were more common in the transition grades such as the first and last grades of school than in the middle grades (Wils, Sylla, & Oliver, 2009). Nevertheless, scrutiny of the rosters shows that students were repeating regardless of their age and grade level. This result does not concur with Wils (2004), who reports that in the early grades of primary school, overaged pupils had generally the highest promotion rates while under aged pupils had the lowest promotion rate compared to that of normal school age groups.

Repetition is also attributed to students’ lack of interest to learn and poor competence.

In the school I am leading mostly students do indeed face repetition. This is mainly because they do not study hard. Some students have no interest to learn and others are careless about learning and homework. During exams such students try to copy the answers from their classmates. However, we have very strict rules and a good strategy to avoid such attempts. So those students who lack interest to learn and try to copy during exams often fail and repeat the class. (SdS2)

**Completion rate**

A 100% completion rate among pupils in primary education could naturally be difficult due to some uncontrollable extraneous factors such as death and unexpected migration. However, hard work can bring the completion rate close to 100%. This seems one of the obligations of all countries around the world.
Table 18. Completion rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>First cycle primary school completion rate</th>
<th>Second cycle primary school completion rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>77.2</td>
<td>75.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of (2012/13)

Table 18 shows that the completion rates in the primary schools in the two regions are below the national average; almost 85% of pupils failed to complete primary education. This shows that achieving EFA was found to be more complex in these regions and demanded not only attracting school-age children to the school but also devising strategies to call back all the dropouts and enable the repeating pupils so as to achieve a 100% promotion rate. It was also estimated that the proportion of primary school students reaching the last grade was decreasing from 58% in 1999 to 56% in 2010 in Sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO 2014). The proportion of pupils reaching the last grade in primary school in Ethiopia in 2013, as indicated above, was found to be less than the estimated proportion for Sub-Saharan Africa for 2010. The worst of all is that the proportions of pupils completing grade eight, the last grade of primary school, in the two regions were shown to be less than one third of the proportion estimated for Sub-Saharan African countries for the academic year 2010. Moreover, the additive effect of the proportion of dropping out and repeating students in the primary schools of the two regions was worsening the rate of completion in the schools.
4.2. Constraints of Educational Provision and Participation

During my discussions with my informants, as described in 4.1, I initially gathered the descriptions of data on the status of educational provision and participation in the primary schools of the two regions observed and, subsequently, I elicited the reasons behind the prevailing situations in education. This caused me to start my investigation with descriptive analyses and, gradually, I moved to analytic inquiry. This in turn enabled me to understand the rationale of observed gaps and gain insights into the major constraints on EFA in the regions and to forward policy directions (recommendations) that would help the stakeholders to resolve the observed constraints. Therefore, what I want to describe is that, some of the data analysed and referred to in 4.1, may appear directly or indirectly in the quotations of the following discussions. In support of this, Keith (2009), described good quality of qualitative analysis and said “good qualitative analysis involves repeated and iterative displays of data” (p.175). This repetition of data is partly because, as noted, the reasons for the status of educational provision and participation are a direct reflection of and stepping stones for the identification of the major constraints on EFA in the selected primary schools of the regions. Additionally, they describe the root causes of the observed surface problems in which the existing educational provision and participation was embedded.

Thus, according to the literature reviewed in Chapter Two of this dissertation, and main substance obtained from the data collected from the informants and other sources, in-school and out-of-school constraints found to be influencing the success of primary education in the regions are thoroughly discussed as indicated below.

4.2.1. In-school constraints

Among others, the in-school constraints on educational provision and participation in primary education include irrelevant curriculum content, school facilities, teacher motivation, commitment of school leaders and teachers, medium of instruction, inflexibility of academic calendar and programme delivery.
Irrelevant curriculum content

The primary school curriculum in the Afar region is considered to be of little relevance, if not irrelevant, by almost all participants. They also suggested several potential solutions to improve the current curriculum in the region.

In Afar one of the problems encountered in providing education in primary schools is irrelevance of the curriculum. The curriculum does not consider the interests of the local communities. The content of education does not make students aware of their environment and new technologies to efficiently and effectively use the resources found in their surroundings. What they learn in primary education does not contribute to enhancing the local economic activities. How can these people really appreciate such education? They sometimes consider that formal education has come to change their children and take them away from their native culture by teaching them about other cultures. They feel that education is preparing their children to serve other people. Therefore they demand that the government change the content of the curriculum and make it more relevant to the society it serves. (SdA5)

Our people [the Afar] need education. Education leads to modernization, and modernization decreases the burden we have been carrying and are still carrying for a century. It helps us start to live an easy life. It could improve our economic productivity. If we change our selves by using new technology for social and economic progress, the social and economic gaps between our people and other peoples in Ethiopia would surely be minimized. This is possible when the curriculum is developed after thoroughly understanding the knowledge, skills, culture and socioeconomic situation of our society. We want the curriculum to be redesigned or reviewed in collaboration with representatives from our society. (RExA1)

The data obtained through document review showed that the contents of the text books in the Afar region were not designed according to the interests and experienced needs of pastoralists in the region. I could never find a topic or content on taking care of and benefiting from domestic animals such as camels, cows, goats and sheep, which the Afar pastoralists consider as a gift from heaven. Moreover, Amharic, which is the working language of the federal state, is used as a
medium of instruction. This seems to affect students’ motivation to learn and their ability to easily understand different concepts.

Generally, the data showed that the primary school curriculum in the Afar region is not prepared so as to improve and contribute to the socioeconomic development of the society it serves. The overall objectives of primary education in the Afar region also seem to be outside what is stipulated in the education and training policy of Ethiopia (FDRE, 1994). Therefore it can be argued that the primary school curriculum in the Afar region is an influential factor hindering the attainment of the EFA goal in the region and in the country as well. Earlier studies have also claimed that lack of a needs based curriculum is a major problem hindering both the rate of participation and the quality of education in primary schools (Debebe, 2014; Lewin, 2007; Tahir, 1995; Woldesenbet, 2013).

Participants also expressed their concerns on the irrelevance of the primary school curriculum in the Somali region. However, they emphasized how to improve the curriculum rather than listing problems.

Our school curriculum is not so relevant to the life of the society. Pastoral society needs the curriculum to be helpful in enhancing both animal and crop production. They feel that their animals are not so productive because of a lack of knowledge to use new technologies in breeding and related management of domestic animals. Because of this they particularly prefer the curricula that develop their children’s knowledge and skills which enable them to become more productive with livestock. Even though the curriculum includes some important issues such as personal hygiene and family planning, additional improvements are still needed to accommodate the needs of the society. (SdS4)

Our people had started to realize that education should help them get new knowledge that enables them increase their productivity. Therefore, pastoral people need education that is strongly linked to their lives. Such a curriculum can be created if there is a participatory approach in the process of its design. This needs the participating not only of literate but also of illiterate people who can contribute by sharing their lived experiences and knowledge obtained through informal learning. The main problem in designing curriculum is that curriculum designers do not want to involve individuals who would be affected by the curriculum unless they have some academic background in curriculum development.
This is wrong. Curriculum is not prepared to address the needs of the literates alone but also the illiterates. Therefore, pastoralists should be given an opportunity to participate or at least to give information on the existing demands of their society. The current curriculum was prepared without pastoralists’ participation. So it is not able to address the interests of the pastoralist society. But we have a bright future, because this university [Jigjiga University] has started a promising attempt such as conducting intensive research on related issues and initiating relevant study programmes that address the needs of the local people. (USJ4)

The provision of education in the mother tongue in the Somali region contributed to the significance and acceptability of the contents. According to the data the primary school curriculum in the Somali region is relatively more relevant to the society it serves than the curriculum in the Afar region. However, the participants noted that there are still several issues the curriculum needs to address.

Facilities in the school
The facilities in school compounds include enough playgrounds, comfortable class rooms, clean drinking water, clinics, libraries and pedagogical centres.

Table 19. Access to water

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>No of schools</th>
<th>Water Coverage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Access to water</td>
<td>Tap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Afar</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>192 (38 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>1,091</td>
<td>305(28%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>30,495</td>
<td>12,427(41%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adopted from MoE abstract of (2012/13)

Access to drinking water in all primary schools is very important because most students come to school at an early age of their lives and they cannot cope with thirst. Availability of water in primary schools in Afar and Somali region becomes even more important because the weather is hotter than other regions and children need to drink water to quench their thirst and lower their
body temperature. The absence or lack of drinking water in primary schools in such weather conditions can potentially affect students’ attendance.

The primary school facilities in the Somali region are far better than in the Afar region. Participants mentioned that although there are some basic facilities, several things need to be done to make the school environment more comfortable and attractive. Data obtained through observation also confirmed the better school facilities (school compounds, chairs, tables and buildings) in the Somali region.

![Photo of a school with water and a relatively good school compound](image)

Photo 3: Tome school in the Somali region with water and a relatively good school compound  
Source: Photo by researcher during field survey

Table 19 above shows that almost half of the schools had no access to any sources of water. Moreover, the data obtained through observation showed that none of the five primary schools in Afar have access to water.

We are working in a school where we cannot get water. The temperature sometimes exceeds 50 degrees centigrade. As you can see, there are no houses around the school to ask for water. So we can either suffer from thirst or leave our job. Teachers with more experience are waiting for their transfer or searching for better employment in other regions. You can see
the roof of this school partly destroyed by the desert wind. I have reported this to the *woreda* education office more than five times but there has been no response so far. Students are learning in this kind of classrooms suffering from the sun. We have a lot of problems but we have no educational leaders and political leaders who understand our problems and support us. (SdA5)

---

Photo 4: Serdo primary school in Afar with part of the room taken by the desert wind (built by SIDA in 1971)  
Source: Photo by the researcher during field survey

Other participants also described the shortage of school facilities in the schools in the Afar region.

Our school is about 25 kilometers away from the capital city of the region called Samara. So we expect to get some support from the regional education bureau due to its proximity. We have about 108 students in this school, all of whom and their teachers are unhappy about the absence of water and related facilities either in our school or in any nearby location. As you can see [pointing to the school surroundings] there is no village where we can ask for drinking water. It is very difficult to work in such an environment as we all value our lives more than our jobs. (SdA2)
Although I am the leader of this school, I can tell you that I am working until I get a better job. The most irritating problem we have here is shortage of water. We can tolerate shortage of other supplies for some days or weeks, but how can we live and work without water to drink in very hot weather? Once the government in collaboration with an NGO tried to supply us with water by digging a well. However, we did not use that water for more than a month because the well ran dry. Although we immediately reported the case, we got no answer and no one came back to see what happened. We want to do things by ourselves but we do not have the financial capacity or professional competence. …There are multifaceted problems related to lack of water. For example, lack of interest to learn and high dropout rate. (SdA3)

Photo 5: Students in a less attractive classroom at Berso School in Afar
Source: Photo by the researcher during field survey

These data clearly showed the shortage of water which is affecting the provision of primary education and the progress of achieving the goals of EFA. Moreover, during observation it was noted that except for the Samara girls’ boarding school, selected primary schools in Afar have no playgrounds or fences.
What made the above finding more shocking is that the poor primary school facilities in the Afar region persists even after the fourth Ethiopian Education Sector Development Program (ESDP IV) launched and giving special support to the emerging regions and ensuring water supply, sanitation and hygiene for schools (MoE, 2010), and also after the implementation of the School Improvement Program (SIP) in Ethiopia since 2010. One of the packages in this program is devoted to improving learning environments for the learners and teachers (MoE, 2007). What is even more surprising is to see many reports stating that as problems related to school facilities are solved and as a result a comfortable educational school environment has been created in many parts of Ethiopia. However, the data obtained through interview and FGDs suggested that no school improvement program was implemented in this region, thus national priorities were not given due attention in the Afar region.

The above finding prompts the question why the school facilities in the Afar region did not improve as a result of national emphasis. Some of the possible and actual reasons mentioned by participants are the following.
Shortage of resources and related facilities are not something that exists only in one or two schools in the Afar region. It is common across all schools of the region. There are so many reasons for this. But most of the problems are related to lack of good governance. The government allocates a significant amount of funding to the education sector. Among the different criteria used for the allocation of funds for the regions is the state being disadvantaged or the level of development of the region compared to other regional states in the country. Therefore, since Afar is one of the undeveloped regions in the country, comparatively it gets more financial support as regular and subsidiary budget. However, the problem is that this public budget is not properly used to remedy the lack of different resources and to develop the capacity of schools. It is used for other purposes…

Here, since I still wanted to get more elaboration on the reasons why educational subsidies cannot be used for the recognized public purposes to solve educational problems, I posed a follow-up question. “Would you clearly tell me by elaborating on what you said ‘other purposes’ in your statement above?” He showed some sign of discomfort and continued to say the following.

The problem of Ethiopians including you and me is that we know where the public finance goes but we do not talk about it in public. Even the government clearly knows about the problems related to the improper use of financial resources in the Afar region. But they request people to tell about the things they know. This is hypocrisy, which is a bad culture. I am not blaming you. You are a researcher and you can ask whatever you want to know. Anyway, what I meant by ‘other purposes’ is corruption. As we know, and for me, corruption can be the process of neglecting official public services for which the organizational funds have been officially assigned and using the budget for undefined private or group interests. Therefore, the sole problem of financial shortage, insufficiency of materials and facilities and poor attractiveness of school compounds in the Afar region is because the public resources are swallowed up by the black-hearted private and group hijackers. (SdA2)

In relation to inappropriate use of resources and corruption, another primary school director said this.
One of the many reasons for the lack of facilities in schools is extreme delay in block grants. The block grant is sent to the school after the end of second semester of the fiscal year. Moreover, textbooks arrive at the school after the third quarter of each fiscal year. In addition to the delay, the resources which come to the school are decidedly inadequate. The insufficiency of the resources and lack of facilities is linked with corruption at various levels of the government structure. Educational organizations start purchasing school materials and other things at the beginning of the fourth quarter, which is the end of the academic year. Moreover, the materials are not purchased according to the prescribed and prioritized demands of the schools. Purchases at the end of the budgetary year are a joy for buyers and sellers and a sorrow for the beneficiary schools, because during this time purchasers will be allowed to buy things without following the long and bureaucratic procedures before the end of the budgetary year. If they did not spend the money they should return it to the federal government. This allows them to negotiate with sellers to take bribes. If you ask them why they do this, they will tell you that they are hastening to use the money to maximize the benefits to the region. (SdA4)

All the above data evidenced a serious lack of primary school facilities, mainly in the Afar region. Therefore it can be logically argued that this problem is detrimental to the provision of quality education and pupils’ participation.

**Motivation of teachers**

Motivation of teachers is one of the positive factors that contribute to the provision of primary education. In the FGDs teachers from both regions similarly described that initially they had interested in teaching in schools. However, extreme delay in salaries and the lack of sufficient incentives (e.g. desert allowance), accommodation, school facilities and support from supervisors in their schools affected their motivation to work in the primary schools.

A school leader from the Somali region also noticed the teachers’ diminishing motivation to teach in primary school.
At the beginning of their employment, teachers used to work very hard. They were, generally, high in morale. However, most teachers’ professional ambition and morale decline from time to time. There are different factors affecting teachers’ working motivation but the major factor is the hot weather. In addition, lack of basic facilities and the absence of water and electricity within and outside the school compound are also factors that diminish teachers’ motivation. The salary scale improvement made by the national government some three years ago was applied in all regions but not in the Somali region. This was also devastating to our motivation. (SdS3)

In addition, one of the students from Jigjiga University described teachers’ motivation as follows. I remember that there were many teachers interested in serving this innocent [Somali] people. The teachers who taught me in primary and secondary school were good at teaching. When we [Somali students] meet here [in Jigjiga University], we discuss our past life. Sometimes our primary school and teachers are the point of our discussion. We know that some of our teachers lacked competence to teach. But none of us wanted to blame them. We rather appreciated them for their courage to work under difficult circumstances. They are working in unpleasant weather, for a low salary and lacking food items. Moreover, teaching is a much undermined profession in the Somali region because of the teachers’ low income and salary. In society, teachers are known for taking credit from shops and not paying back on time. This also significantly affected their social status. Due to this, no one aspires to be a teacher. Unless we enhance the social status and morale of teachers, there is no doubt that the quality of education will deteriorate a lot in the Somali Region. (USJ4)

The above data disclosed that teachers’ motivation to work in primary schools in the two regions was affected by different social (e.g. society’s attitude to the teaching profession), natural (e.g. hot weather), and institutional (e.g. low salary and lack of leadership and facilities in schools) factors. What is frustrating here is that no glimpse of improvement from relevant authorities which might improve teachers’ motivation. Such a situation potentially curtails educational access and provision of quality education for disadvantaged groups (Mushi, Malekela, & Bhalalusesa, 2002).
Commitment of school leaders and teachers

Teachers’ and school leaders’ commitment is an important aspect in enhancing the teaching and learning process, and hence the achievement of EFA. Thus in this study it was important to examine the commitment of teachers and school leaders in the Afar and Somali regions. Participants from both regions stated that the commitment of teachers and school leaders was deteriorating. In relation to this, school leaders from Afar region said the following.

You are asking me about the commitment of teachers and school leaders. Our commitment is affected by a lot of factors. To be frank, we are working to take money (salary) and save our lives. Our school has the worst school environment, including as you saw, that teachers are suffering from lack of accommodation around the school, delay in payment of salary even though with that we cannot afford to buy basic things, the harsh climate, unattractive school compound and I can mention a lot. We report all these to the relevant authorities but we never get any response. What kind of commitment can be expected from teachers and leaders in such working conditions? (SdA5)

We do not have strong commitment to teach and or provide quality education. There are several reasons for this. For example, we mostly do not get our salary on time, and there is no desert allowance. When we ask some authorities to build houses around the school they usually give us unattainable hopes like rainless clouds. Because of these and other factors that I mentioned, our commitment has been badly affected. (SdA2)

Most of the reasons mentioned here are external factors and were also mentioned as reasons for teachers’ lack of motivation. These problems were recognized by the woreda education office heads in the Afar region. Although they conceded most of the problems, they stressed that not all the problems should not be externalized and teachers and school leaders should engage in self-reflection.

We know there are several problems in our primary schools. It is also true that there are many issues that the schools can address by themselves. For example, they can use local materials to fence their compounds; they can use their energy and ask for cooperation from the local community in building toilets. They can obtain some furniture like tables and chairs by convincing the local communities. Instead of doing this, they are asking
us to do everything for them. This is not good. We should be asked for something they cannot manage on their own. These conditions are also discouraging us from helping the school. (WoA1)

Similarly, FGD composed of teachers teaching in one of the schools in Asayta woreda held a discussion and replied on the issue regarding the status of morale among the teachers and school leaders in making the students coming to and remain in the school so as to achieve EFA. The points of discussion were about the share of teachers and leaders in retaining the students and in making the school compound as attractive as possible. In the middle of the discussions one of the members in the group interfered in a loud voice and opposed some speakers who were starting to blame the teachers and leaders for the absence of commitment.

Why you are shifting the blame to the teachers and school leaders? What can we do? You know most of us [the teachers in the school] came from other regions. We are guests in this locality. Even though we understand some cultural aspects of Afar people we have no power to force these people to supply what we lack in the school. Most Afar are worrying about their domestic animals because of the drought. They are moving here and there to save the lives of their cattle. What can we do? Can we force these people to abandon their cattle and come to our school to fill some of the gaps we have? This is not feasible at all. Or can we contribute money from our salary to buy furniture and supply our school? I think not. So what can we do? The absence of basic materials in the school has been lowering not only our morale but also the morale of our leader and the pupils in the school. We are given the children to teach with no or less facilities. Therefore, no one can be surprised if we do not have a commitment.

The data generally indicated that the commitment of both the teachers and leaders in the Afar region was very low due to some factors related to the schools. Moreover, the responses obtained from the schools and the woreda education office suggested that the two parties (the schools and woreda education offices) had no common understanding and integrity between themselves on the issues affecting EFA at school level including teachers’ and leaders’ commitment.
The commitment of teachers and leaders of primary schools in the Somali regions was also scrutinized. Participants stated that despite the unpleasant working conditions teachers and school leaders have a relatively good commitment.

In our zone, in the schools where we are leading, the majority of the teachers are committed to their work. They perform not only classroom work related to learning and teaching but also other co-curricular activities intended for the betterment of the school. They usually advise their students not to dropout from school. When the students are frequently late, the teachers ask the students about the reasons behind the lateness and solve the problem by advising them and sometimes calling on the parents to discuss the matter. Even though most parents do not come to school, the teachers tell the students to feel strongly about coming to school. (ZhS1)

In the FGD, teachers from primary schools in the Somali region also mentioned that most of the school teachers and leaders had a remarkable commitment towards their profession. They participated in school improvement activities. They also did their best to help their students achieve more in their education. A director in one of the schools in the Jigjiga zone of the Somali region also expressed teachers’ and school leaders’ positive commitment.

In many schools in which I have worked in this region the teachers and leaders show commitment. But in some schools the supervisors did not support the teachers. As a result, there is a decrease in the commitment of some of the teachers. Generally, I can say that the commitment of teachers and school leaders is better but it needs encouragement from the bodies responsible. The encouragement could include providing opportunities for professional development for more committed teachers and school leaders. (SdS3)

In relation to this issue one of the university students in Jigjiga who belonged to the Somali people also said:

Teachers and leaders in my former primary school were, by and large, committed to the level of expectation. I remember when I was in primary school there were many teachers who were helping us to reach this level. They advised us like fathers. I know that now also there are many teachers who are still helping students at primary schools in the region. My
younger brothers and sisters told me that most teachers help them to learn effectively without dropping out of school. (USJ5)

This student extended the reasons behind the commitment of teachers and leaders of primary schools. He said that in some schools, zonal education officers helped the teachers by solving some of the problems. Additionally, as to this respondent, both the school and zonal education officers were rewarding some teachers for their extra contributions. This, in turn, helped the teachers to maintain their commitment. This was also supported by one of the zonal education heads in the Somali region.

In our zone we always work with our schools. We listen to them. We give time to solving problems that might not be solved by the school. To enhance their commitment, we reward both school leaders and teachers who actively participate in school improvement and provision of better education. (ZhS2)

I posed a question to a regional education head about the unpaid salary scale which was not applied only in the Somali region in Ethiopia and its impact on the level of commitment and motivation of the teachers. In his answer he acknowledged that it is a big problem. “It is the only failure that we have and we were criticized by the authorities from the MoE for failing to do so. So we are acting boldly on that and it will be resolved very soon. But I do not know how much that affected teachers’ and school leaders’ commitment.” (Rh2)

The data showed that the commitment of teachers and school leaders in the Somali region is better than in the Afar region. The main reasons mentioned for the positive commitment of teachers and school leaders in the Somali region included remarkable support from zonal education offices in the case of the Somali region. On the other hand the cooperation between the schools and the woreda education offices in the Afar region was very poor, and this significantly affected positive relationships and synergy and in turn affected the commitment of teachers and school leaders in the region. Thus, the finding in the Afar region confirmed a research finding that in pastoral communities in Tanzania lack of committed teachers was one of the barriers to EFA (Mushi, Malekela, & Bhalalusesa, 2002).
Medium of instruction

One of the aspects of educational provision in primary education is the issue of the medium of instruction (McNab, 1988; 1990). National policies and international conventions state that children at the lower level of schooling, particularly in the lower primary school, have the right to learn in their own language (Smith, 2008). Using the mother tongue as a medium of instruction improves not only the motivation of the children to learn but also improves the comprehension of the subject matter (Cohen, 2007). Using the mother tongue as the medium of instruction has been given due attention in Ethiopia since the enactment of the Ethiopian education and training policy (FDRE, 1994).

Photo 7: A teacher teaching science in Amharic at Dufti Arategna Ersha Tabia Primary School in the Afar region
Source: Photo by the researcher during field survey

Concerning the application of the mother tongue as the medium of instruction at primary level, one of the school leaders in Mille woreda in the Afar region said the following.

The majority of the teachers teaching in this school cannot speak the Afar language. Therefore what they say to the children is not understood. Similarly, when children have questions they cannot ask because they do not know the language of instruction. In most
schools, the translators were pupils studying in the same class. Hence, these translators are not only untrained on how to translate the substance with no distortions but also they are not at the stage of maturity to shoulder such responsibilities. Some of the words uttered by the teachers may not be translated because there might not be equivalent words in the Afar language. In this case the translator uses a word or a phrase that might be close to what is said. The same problems occur when the translator translates from the Afar to the Amharic language. (SdA2)

Other school leaders in Afar also noticed the problems related to translation by school children.

We have neither employed translators nor trained teachers to do the translation. We are using our pupils, who have relatively better proficiency in Amharic language. Such students may not have the required skill to carry such responsibilities. They are not trained on how to translate ideas. Moreover, some teachers speak fast. Hence it is difficult to catch what the teachers are saying. Others speak Amharic language with a dialect that the translator cannot understand. In such cases our pupils are confused. As a result, the pupils take notes using symbols and language that they cannot read and understand. The same problem occurs during examinations. These cause pupils to suffer a lot in learning. They are interested to learn but they are not lucky in that. What always comes to my mind and ask myself is “Are these students Ethiopian? If so, why they cannot learn in their own language like other peoples in Ethiopia? How can they learn their local realities with the language that is borrowed from different local language? How can a language created in another culture help the children learn something about their culture?” This seems to darken the light of education. Sorry to say this. This is what I and other individuals in this school are crying for. (SdA1)

The same problem was encountered in the Somali region some years ago but now primary school children learn in their mother tongue.

It was confusing what the former government of Ethiopia was doing. It forced our people to be taught in a language that they do not understand. However, the current constitution and the education and training policy gave us the right to choose the medium of instruction
for our primary school children. Although we are a bit late to start, we are using our own language as the medium of instruction in primary schools. (SdS4)

In relation to this, a student from Jigjiga University compared the situation now and some twelve years ago.

I remember students who started grade one with me twelve years ago and did not understand the language of instruction. They were not able to communicate with their teacher, and this made them feel discomfort and anger, and finally they dropped out of school. Students who came from non-formal education acquired their education in their own languages, but when they came for formal education things were not the same. The language of instruction was different from the one they knew and used in non-formal education and this made them frustrated and drop out of school. Now such things are history. All Somali children are learning in their own mother tongue. (USJ3)

Photo 8: A teacher in the Somali region, Karbeje Primary School teaching in the children’s mother tongue (Somali)
Source: Photo taken by researcher during field survey
In the FGD teachers of Somali stated that the provision of education using children’s mother tongue was very important, helping increase access to education, reducing dropout and enhancing students’ academic achievement.

The data gathered from the two regions showed that the mother tongue was used in primary education in the Somali region but not in Afar. In the Somali region, offering teaching in the children’s own language contributed a lot in regaining dropouts and retaining pupils in school. Not using the mother tongue in Afar was also found to be one of the barriers to participation. The problem of medium of instruction in the Afar region actually caused confusion and misunderstanding between pupils and teachers.

**Inflexibility of programme delivery**

Regarding the academic programme in light of EFA, an Afar student studying in Samara University said the following.

> It is possible to say that the existing academic programmes in primary education have twofold problems. The first is that they are not relevant, as I told you before. Hence they do not strategically motivate the learners towards productivity. The second problem, which is the most serious one, is the academic calendar, which did not take the local reality into consideration. The climate here is different from most parts of the country. When the climate is so hard [hot] for the people and their cattle, they travel to the river banks like Awash, and even search for some ponds and lakes. During this time some people take all their family members together. In such times how can you convince the parent to leave their child behind to continue their school? Is it possible to imagine that children would be able to live by themselves and attend school? I do not think so. Then, who will take the responsibility for them? Everyone knows this is a major problem affecting school attendance and contributing to dropout. I think the academic calendar in this region should take this into consideration rather than copying from other regions where there is no such problem. (USS5)

A school leader in Dufti *woreda* also supported the above assertion.
We [school leaders] are facing a great challenge. We are expected to make all students attend and remain in school throughout the year. This is completely impossible for us. The major problem in retaining students in the school is when the temperature exceeds 50 degrees centigrade. During this time no one can make the students learn in a classroom where sun shines directly into the class. The solution should have been to develop a flexible academic calendar regarding type, content and time. However, this does not exist in our case. (SdA3)

Furthermore, observation and the photos taken from the nearby schools of Samara (the capital of Afar) showed that the vast majority of the students, particularly those who are seven and eight years old were unable to learn when the weather was too hot. This seriously affected attendance and might lead to total dropout in some schools, for example, in Harsis primary school. However, the participants noted a lack of flexibility in the academic calendar and programme.

![Photo 9: Harsis school in Afar region. Total drop out](source)

Inflexibility of the academic calendar and programme delivery is also a common problem in schools in the Somali region.

The problem of the harsh climate is a seasonal phenomenon; parents are forced to migrate to other places where they might save the lives of their households and their domestic
animals. In this situation the children are obliged to go with their parents. Hence in such cases the children need either flexible or moveable academic programmes that would go with them to the place where they temporarily settle or the academic calendar should be flexible to accommodate such situations; for example to wait until they come back to their place of residence. (SdS3)

Moreover, another respondent who was a school leader in one of the selected primary schools in Jigjiga zone said:

One of the negative effects of harsh weather is the high absenteeism and related dropouts. Another problem may be taken as the worsening factor is that we are not waiting these children who temporarily move with their family due to hot weather. We are moving with only few children who are available during the harsh weather condition. This is purely due to the absence of flexible programmes in our region. (SdS2)

The data showed that absence of a flexible academic calendar and programmes mainly in schools in the rural parts of the Afar and Somali regions was detrimental to attendance in primary schools and achieving the EFA in the regions. Such academic inflexibility is also one of the factors inhibiting attendance in primary education in Nigeria (Mohamed & Junaid, 2007).

4.2.2. Out-of-school constraints

We have seen in-school constraints influencing primary education provision and participation in pastoralist areas. As mentioned earlier, there are also out-of-school constraints. This sub-section considers distance from school, the effects of the present decentralized educational management system, family backgrounds (economic, social and cultural aspects) which are identified as some of the out-of-school constraints affecting the provision of and participation in primary school in pastoralist regions which in turn affect the achievement of EFA goals in the regions.
**Distance from the school**

Participants stated that in the areas where pastoralists live, in addition to the hot weather, the strong desert wind also affected children’s attendance in primary school. Children in the pastoralist areas go to school tolerating this and other natural challenges. The challenges are more difficult for younger children and female students who may face other problems such as the risk of abduction when they cross the desert. With regard to the influence of the distance to school on attendance and achieving EFA, one of the officials at Afar regional education bureau said:

> The issue of moving from place to place and walking long distances to get something is common in the Afar region. Schools are established in the region based on some recognized number of residents. It is known that the people of rural Afar live far apart from each other. Therefore each school is constructed at a place where some settlers from the surrounding community come and get education. In some places schools are built in the desert where there are no nearby villages. This was because it was intended to build a school in a place which can be considered equidistant to the scattered villages. In such cases there are incidences where students, mainly girls, face unexpected problems including abduction by strangers. Therefore most parents are not willing to send their daughters to the school unless the school is very near their home. Unfortunately many of the schools are located in places from which it is difficult for some children to come to school. We are trying to solve the problem of distance by using other non-formal modes of delivery based on the directions of the MoE. (RH1)

A student of Samara University also shared his experiences.

> I do not want to remember the problem that I faced when I was going to a primary school far from my home. For some students who live in a town or a nearby village distance is not a problem. Although I had a very difficult school experience, I do not want to blame the government because the government cannot build one school for one household. The main problem is we [Afar people] live in scattered villages, if we can call them villages. As other students do, we carry water and our lunch, but the water becomes very hot and the food mostly spoiled due to the high temperature, which sometimes reaches up to 50 degrees centigrade. Unless some mechanisms are devised and applied it is hard to think of
achieving EFA, like a dream that can never be realized. For me and as far as my experience is concerned the most serious challenge affecting participation in primary education is distances from home to school. (USS4)

The problem related to the distances of schools from the children homes was also pointed out by a school leader and a regional expert.

Here I do not want to relate my response only to my own school. I have experience of working in so many schools in the rural parts of the Afar region. In most cases the distance from home to school has been a challenge for many students. I think unless a resettlement programme is aggressively promoted in the region, the issue of bringing all children to school and maintaining a 100% primary school completion rate is something that can never be thought of by a person with a rational mind. (SdA1)

When high level government officials talk about extending education to all children and retaining all children to complete grade eight, I always say that it is a joke against the people. To plan something that would never be achieved, for me, is either cheating or wasting time. If you take the distance between the homes of many students in Afar and the nearest school in some areas, you feel bad for the children who travel more than 10 kilometres, particularly in the peripheral part of the region. In such areas children are obligated to travel at least four hours per day in going to and back from school. Generally the distance from home to school is a great challenge for children in the most rural parts of the region. (RexA2)

The distance between schools and children’s homes is also mentioned as a problem in most rural areas of the Somali region. In the FGD, members of the PTA indicated that the problem of distance had more influence on female than on male children. One of the reasons given was fear of abduction, particularly in going longer distances. The other reason in relation to distance is insecurity. Sometimes there are sporadic conflicts that arise suddenly between different clans of guerrilla fighters and soldiers of the regional and federal government police to the extent of taking a lot of lives. In such situations children are afraid to attend a school far from their homes.
The attendance sheets seen in the observed primary school showed a higher (on average 50%) rate of dropout in the Afar region. The reasons the teachers and PTAs gave for this included long distances to travel. The data clearly show that the distance between the children’s homes and the school was detrimental to their attendance in primary education and thereby also to the effective achievement of EFA. Research and reports also indicated that travelling long distances was a major barrier to attendance at primary school in Tanzania (UNESCO, 2002) and the provision of education for the pastoralists of Africa.

**Decentralized educational management and administrative capacity**

Concerning the effect of decentralization in leading the primary education system in the two regional states different participants provided different responses. According to the responses by the focus group members composed of teachers in the Afar region, decentralization of educational
management favoured them. They agreed that due to the decentralized educational management system the majority of the local tribe got a chance at leadership. They also noted that decentralization made them more autonomous and exercise leading the education sector.

However, most of teachers who participated in the FGDs stated that the decentralized administration of the educational system did not serve the region and that since decentralization needs capacitated leaders, its application by the less educated was not creating good conditions in the region. They believed that decentralization before capacitating the practitioners was causing incapable individuals to shoulder the responsibility that needs special experience, expertise and skills. They argued that because of poor procedures of decentralization the quality of educational planning and management was suffering a lot. They justified this by saying that the majority of woreda education offices in the Afar region were led by individuals who had neither studied education nor held qualifications in educational planning and management. Most of the leaders had never even completed secondary school, and the unqualified educational leaders were leading relatively better qualified principals and teachers. This did not please the professionals working in the schools under the leadership of the unqualified officers.

School leaders also tended to believe that taking the reality in Afar decentralization may not be a very good strategy for the moment.

For me decentralization is very good in a region like Amhara [one of the nine regional states in Ethiopia] because such a region has the capacity to run an education system on their own. Conversely, in the evolving regions like Afar, I prefer it if the appointment of both administrative and educational leadership is based on merits until the educated local people come from the school or are prepared through short and long term training. Lack of capacity and leadership skills was causing frequent removal of appointees in the education sector which in turn is causing instability in educational leadership. I say this for the betterment of the region. (SdA5)

A very good example of poor management and administration that might be due to decentralization is the closure of Harsis Primary School during my field study. In order to see the extent of the problem and lack of communication between different authorities, and the reasons for the closure and the measures taken are presented below.
Harsis School is very near from the capital city of the region. However, the school is closed because all the students dropped out due to drought. Attempts were made to communicate with some students and their parents. Particularly, discussion was held with the parents who refused to send their children to the school. Of course, these parents have their own justification that the climate was very harsh and the school situation was too hard for their children to attend school. So creating awareness of the value of education to this community seems very important. Currently all these things are beyond our capacity so we have informed the relevant authorities about the situation. (SdA1).

Understanding the seriousness of the problem I asked him to tell me the major duties that the school performed, like sending written reports on the situation to the woreda and regional education office, attempts made to convince the parents to continue to send their children and make the school functional. He said:

What do you mean? I have sent a written report to the woreda education office. When the school is totally closed, do you think that I am here without reporting to the woreda education office? This is the problem of the woreda education office because they need to gather information about the schools and they should have visited schools like Harsis, which is very near to where they are. Moreover, in Afar we have a very wonderful sociocultural communication system called Daagu. Daagu is a very fast and multi-directional socially networked communication system through which all new and urgent incidents and events are automatically reported throughout the community via clan chiefs and other community members. I assure you that it is a very fast and effective communication system existing only in the Afar region in Ethiopia. Having this important sociocultural communication channel, it is less likely to believe that the woreda officers did not get the information about the closure of the school. On our part we all did our best. We tried to call on the parents to come to school and discuss with us. We did this both directly and through their chiefs. However, only few parents who can never represent all parents came to the school and discussed with us. They promised to send their children and also convince other parents to send their children to the school. However, none of the promises were fulfilled so the school is closed. (SdA1)
Although the school leader asserted that he reported the issue to the woreda education office, the woreda education officer stated that he did not know about the closure of the school, which is located 17 kilometers from the capital city of the region. The officer said “I am hearing about the closure of the school only now from you. No one has reported to me so far. If I had been informed, surely I would have tried my best to solve the problem” (WoA1).

When asked how the office failed to be aware of the problem through supervision, he said “I believe that we should have been supervised and monitored the status and performance of all schools under our mandate but we cannot often do that. One of the main reasons for this is that in our woreda there is a very high turnover of supervisors and officers. Even I was appointed few days ago.” (WoA1)

The data displayed above clearly show that in the Afar region the advantages gained from decentralization were found to be less. Particularly the high turnover and removal of officers were reproducing other problems affecting the provision of education in the primary schools. By and large, due to an improper information management system or negligence, the support provided for the schools by the woreda education offices was found to be below the expected degree to the extent that school leaders were exposed to serious problems and working without help.

In the Somali regions teachers noted that decentralization had both advantages and disadvantages with reference to education management and administration. As to the discussants, the advantages of decentralization include exercising autonomy, fast decisions on some matters, and empowering local people. The disadvantages include shortage of manpower in many governmental posts, dependence on support from central government, inability to cope with and recover from the clearly identified socioeconomic and cultural problems. In another FGD the teachers claimed that the advantages of decentralization in effectively achieving EFA outweigh its disadvantages. Both educational and other political leaders in the Somali region were more committed to reviving educational provision particularly in primary education. According to the FGD participants in some elements of educational provision, like achieving higher gross enrolment in the primary schools of the region was made to be realized is by the wonderful participation and committed actions of the local administrative and education authorities. These parties made great contributions in helping schools to solve their problems in accommodating remarkable numbers of students. The discussants concluded that the support of political leaders in every locality of the
Somali regions created a fertile ground so that the majority of students could attend school and remain there. However, they added that there were some minor drawbacks in the decentralized management of education in the region, namely a lack of strategic planning for EFA in the regions; rather the authorities were trying to surmount the problem of primary school attendance by applying quick-win strategies manifested in the form of incidental campaigns.

The school leader in one of the schools of Shinille zone in the Somali region also said.

The problem is that the former local authorities were not working hard so that the gaps to be filled by the currently appointed local administrations and education leaders become too wide to address. Despite all these, the attempts made by the local government bodies are highly commendable, and if the current endeavor is sustained, achieving EFA to some extent in the near future could be possible. This is because I have seen that public mobilization and sensitization has clearly been occurring throughout the region and creating remarkable results in moving the local community and making them support the achievement of the goals of EFA by sending their children to the local schools. Why this happened is due to the decentralization and autonomy of administration given to them.

(SdS3)

By and large, the data showed that decentralization was found to have more positive effects in achieving education for all in the Somali than in the Afar regions. It was also understood that one of the reasons for the greater improvement observed in the provision of education for all children in the Somali region was the result of the commitment of local governances and education leadership in mobilizing the people towards EFA goals. Therefore it can be argued that the administrative decentralization was conducive to the achievement of EFA goals more in the Somali than in the Afar region.

**Economic background of the parents**

The ability of the parents to meet the costs of education seems critical as far as educational delivery in primary school is concerned (Cardoso & Verner, 2007). Different economic factors were discussed among the participants as constraints on the provision of education. In the FGD a member of the PTA in the Afar region stated that the major economic factors hampering participation in education at primary level include poverty and related hunger, interruption and
absence of school feeding programmes, domestic work for females and field work for males, and the inability of some parents to provide the learning materials such as pens, pencils and exercise books. Some parents wanted to benefit from the work contribution of their children at home and in the fields rather than sending them to school. These parents make their children help them with domestic work like collecting firewood, fetching water and herding domestic animals. The participants noted that these factors among others were seriously affecting attendance and the provision of education in primary schools in their locality.

The economic related problems were also noticed by other participants.

As far as I know, there are many economic factors constraining the effective delivery of education and participation at all levels in general and at primary schools in particular. This includes poverty and parents’ demand for labour. Another economic factor detrimental to the achievement of EFA goals was lack of incentives, which are considered as motivators for sending children to school. Previously there was school feeding programme for all students and provision of oil mainly for females. These provisions motivated all students in general and students coming from parents with lower economic background in particular to come to school. In addition to this, I know that there are still some really poor parents so that not only are they unable to feed their children but also they cannot afford to buy exercise books and pencils. Therefore, I can assure you that EFA can never be achieved in the case of the Afar unless the relevant bodies provide further economic assistance for the children coming from the poorest families. (SdA2)

There are also economic problems identified in Somali region which impair educational provision in primary schools. In the FGD the members of the PTA mentioned that the economic status of parents was one of the factors affecting the provision of primary education in the region. Although some parents want to send their children to school, they give up this interest when they lose their domestic animals to drought. Because they cannot afford to feed their children let alone to buy pens, pencils, exercise books and clothes.

A school leader in one of the schools in the Jigjiga zone also raised a similar argument.

The problem of educational provision and participation, for example, in our school sometimes is the worst because of the economic position of the pastoralists. Pastoralists’
economy is heavily dependent on the wellbeing of their livestock, which in turn largely depends on climatic conditions. When the climatic conditions become harsh, there is drought and the animals start to die. This results in poor economic conditions among pastoralists. This again exerts its pressure on the participation of children in school because their parents leave their homes to look for better places for their cattle. Moreover, need for the children’s labour in the region was also lowering the participation of both males and females. Here, girls are expected to help their mothers at home while males are expected to help their fathers in the field. (SdS2)

From the above data it is easy to understand the negative influences of economic issues on participation in and provision of primary education in both regions. The negative impacts of economic conditions on children education were associated with the need for their work contribution in either domestic or field work, the incidence of drought and related deaths of domestic animals and the inability of the parents to cover the costs of educating their children. The interruption and absence of school feeding programmes and the provision of cooking oil, which is considered a motivating factor, also inhibited participation in and provision of education in both regions. It also affects the planned endeavour of the government to reduce the persistent illiteracy rates in the regions.

These findings concur with the research conducted by UNESCO (2002) which indicated poverty, mobility and the need for the labour of children are the factors underlying low participation in education in Tanzania.

**Cultural backgrounds of the families**

Sociocultural issues like peace, health, conflict, marriage system, values attached to education and cultural conservatism affect the status of educational provision, particularly at primary schools, where children are heavily dependent on the existing sociocultural phenomena of their society. In the FGD, members of the PTA in the Afar region stated that one of the major sociocultural factors hindering the achievement of EFA in their region was health problems resulting from harmful traditional practices like circumcision and female genital mutilation (FGM). Problems related to harmful traditional practices had significant impacts on students’ participation in education because it caused lateness, absenteeism and dropout from school. Moreover, sometimes there are
tribal conflicts among pastoralists in Afar due to reasons such as competition for grazing land and theft of domestic animals. In such cases parents feel insecure about sending their children to school and this increases dropout rates. The other reason mentioned is attaching greater importance to their daughters’ marriage than to their education. This was because the parents perceive that marriage has more immediate and attractive economic returns than education.

For the teachers in Afar, the most serious sociocultural factor hindering the participation of children in primary school is cultural conservatism. Culture is learned and dynamic, but change in their culture is considered as changing their identity. In some cases the people make no distinction between their culture and their religion. Because of such perceptions they even tend to resist learning about new cultures which enhance the socioeconomic development of the society. The discussant also mentioned that even though the Afar people understood the benefit of education for their socioeconomic development, some of them tended to believe that education might bring behavioural changes in their children by alienating them from their native culture. In some parts of the region Afar people believe that if males and females are well educated they may change the existing cultural norms including customs related to marriage therefore they do not want to spend money on their children’s education.

In the Somali region members of the PTA stated that the majority of the community in general and parents in particular were aware of the socioeconomic advantages of education, and they sent their children to school. The discussants also mentioned some sociocultural factors that affect children’s participation in and the provision of primary education which in turn affects the effective achievement of education for all in the region. These include diseases and absence of peace. Malaria is the main disease that affects children’s participation in education. Pastoralists move from place to place to get land for grazing and most of the time these places are close to river banks in marshy areas. Settlement in such areas exposes them to malaria. In such areas there are no medical treatments. Thus children and their families suffer from the disease for a long time. This forces children to drop out of school. In addition, conflict between political and religious groups that can be considered terrorists also affect the provision of education in the region.

Supplementing the above data, a school leader in the Somali region stated that:

To speak honestly, the Somali people are aware of the value of education. They consider education one of the important means for the development of a rounded personality. They
started to view education as a fundamental base for all forms of growth and transformation. Nonetheless, there are many sociocultural barriers against this new social insight on education. This includes higher illiteracy rates among some communities of pastoralists, mainly mothers. Because of the illiteracy rate such a family considers learning as simply sending their children to school. They do not care whether their children are studying or not. They never mind whether their children are getting quality education. These parents still do not pay attention if the children are absent or late or even drop out of school. Hence, because of little or no support from the parents in guiding the schooling of their children I can say that the students are sometimes not learning, or those children going to the school are enrolling in the school without getting real parental assistance for their learning. (SdS2)

Similar to the case in the Afar region, members of the PTA in a school in the Somali region reported that female genital mutilation (FGM) at the age of 8-12 is still a harmful practice in Somali society. The pain and wounds that result from FGM last from three to six weeks, and this increases female dropout. On the other hand, male circumcisions were common traditional practices among Somali communities. This takes place at the age of 7-15 years and the pain was found to last about a week. Hence the ritual of male circumcision as a barrier to educational participation is minimal since the pain only lasts a week. Here, it was also stated that girls were likely to drop out of school than males.

From the above data it is possible to conclude that various socio-cultural issues had been hampering the effectiveness of education in the Afar and Somali regions. In both regions very similar socio-cultural factors were constraining educational provision. These included lack of peace due to tribal conflicts in both regions and illegally moving groups called terrorists in the case of the Somali region, problems with health, attaching more importance to females’ marriage than education, fear of change in the native culture, and higher illiteracy rates of parents greatly affected the provision of primary education in both regions. There are some research results that coincide with these findings. A study conducted by UNESCO (2002), has shown consistency with the results of this study that health problems and tribal conflicts were the major socio-cultural barriers influencing the provision of education for pastoralists in Tanzania. Other studies (Dyer & Choksy, 1998; Larssen & Hassen, 2001) also indicated that frequent tribal conflicts, cultural conservativism, and greater importance attached to females’ marriage than education and greater
concern for males’ education than for girls’ education were some of the major socio-cultural factors detrimental to the provision of and participation in education among the pastoral communities of Rabaris, West India and Hawawari in Northern Sudan respectively.
5. Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

The main objective of this research was to investigate the status of the provision of primary education in the Afar and Somali regions of Ethiopia and how the children of pastoralists participated therein. Accordingly, the status of educational delivery aiming at education for all and the constraints were analysed and investigated using pertinent data gathered from various primary and secondary sources. The research was intended to answer the following two major research questions.

- What is the status of educational provision of and participation in selected primary school of pastoral regions of Ethiopia?
- What are the major constraints hindering the attainment of EFA/UPE in the targeted research areas in the regions?

In order to answer the research questions and achieve the objective of the research, a qualitative research approach was applied. Ten primary schools were selected as research settings, using research interview, FGD, document review and observations to collect data from state ministers of federal affairs and the Ministry of Education, experts and directors from the MoE, the education bureau heads of the regions, experts from regional bureaus, zone education heads, woreda education officers, school leaders (directors), teachers, PTAs, and university students.

5.1. Summary of the Major Findings

The study yielded various findings. In order to present the major findings in a better way I used a table. This will help interested parties including policy-makers to easily grasp the existing realities related to both the status of the provision of and participation in primary education and the constraints on the achievement of EFA in the pastoral regions of Afar and Somali.
Table 20. Status of provision of and participation in primary education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pillars</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Status of Educational Provision and Participation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>Afar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access</td>
<td>NIR</td>
<td>32.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GER</td>
<td>96.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NER</td>
<td>81.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equity</td>
<td>Gender Parity</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportions of Urban and Rural Schools</td>
<td>86.85% primary schools found in rural parts</td>
<td>86.82% of primary schools found in rural parts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportion of Urban and Rural Students</td>
<td>59.25% in rural</td>
<td>76.17% in rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>Pupil Teacher ratio</td>
<td>On average 102 students have one qualified teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>Pupil Section Ratio</td>
<td>There are about 105 students in one section</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>Certified Teachers</td>
<td>40.1% certified teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational governance</td>
<td>Predominantly male leaders and frequently changing position holders</td>
<td>Predominantly male and extremely unstable educational leadership with little or no competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogical centres</td>
<td>Only 0.4% of primary schools had pedagogical centres, and even these schools did not use the pedagogical centres</td>
<td>9.5% of primary schools had pedagogical centres. However, most of the observed schools were not effectively using pedagogical centres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library</td>
<td>1.37% of had a library</td>
<td>13% had a library</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated instruction</td>
<td>Classroom instruction is not integrated with the real life of pastoral communities</td>
<td>Classroom instruction is not integrated with the real life of pastoral communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medium of instruction</td>
<td>Somali language, which is the mother tongue of almost all children.</td>
<td>Amharic language, which is the working language of the federal government, Afar language which is the mother tongue of almost all children is not used</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approach or method of instruction</td>
<td>Teacher centred</td>
<td>Teacher centred</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment and evaluation practices</td>
<td>No continuous assessment</td>
<td>No continuous assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td>Dropout rates</td>
<td>About 9.4% of primary school students dropped out of schools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td>Repetition rates</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td>Completion rates</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 21: Constraints of educational provision and participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories of Constraints</th>
<th>Constraints</th>
<th>Reflection(explanation)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Somali</td>
<td>Afar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-school constraints</td>
<td>Irrelevant curriculum content</td>
<td>Not as problematic as in Afar though, more is expected from it relevant to society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional delivery process</td>
<td>Teacher centred instruction and poor application of continuous assessment which impair the provision of quality education</td>
<td>Teacher centred instructional approach, absence of continuous assessment, and absence of mother tongue as medium of instruction impair the provision of quality education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instructional delivery process</td>
<td>Teacher centred instruction and poor application of continuous assessment which impair the provision of quality education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Facilities</th>
<th>Somali was found to be relatively good in facilities, but libraries &amp; pedagogical centres are poor.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In Afar region, problems of facilities are very serious.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generally poor facilities in schools in both regions, but this is more serious in Afar region.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Commitment of teachers</th>
<th>Lack of support, incentives and absence of desert allowance to teachers impaired commitment and motivation of teachers, which in turn impaired the achievement of EFA goals.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absence of compensation for teachers working under unfavorable conditions impaired commitment and motivation of teachers, which in turn impaired the achievement of EFA goals.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Out of school factors</th>
<th>Students were learning according to national academic schedule.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inflexibility of academic calendar and programme delivery</td>
<td>Students were learning according to national academic schedule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of commonly agreed and flexible programme for education delivery impaired access and success of primary education in both regions particularly during movement of parents due to harsh climate.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance from home to school</td>
<td>Long distance inhibited access and efficiency of education in rural parts of the region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decentralized educational management</td>
<td>Relatively fair but there is frequent change of educational leaders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic issues</td>
<td>Parents’ low economic status prevents them from helping their schools and their children’s education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural issues</td>
<td>Some parents were found to attach more importance to girls’ marriage than education due to immediate economic gains. Some parents’ lack of awareness about the short and long-term values of education affected the participation of mainly girls in primary education. Some parents also tend to see girls’ education as cost ineffective business.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.2. Conclusion

Based on the above findings of the study the following conclusions were drawn.

*Females and children at early school age are more affected by in-school and out-of-school factors*

Among the children registered in grade one and retained in primary schools the number of overaged children was found to be greater than of early school-age (official school age) children due to the fact that children at the age of seven were unable to withstand the numerous hardships including travelling long distances and absence of food and water for many hours in a day. These conditions severely affected their participation in primary education and thereby the achievement of the goals of EFA. However, this does not mean that overaged students do not face problems. For instance, when children cannot start education at the official school age, there are potential psychological and social side effects at later developmental stages. This may discourage students from continuing their learning and result in dropout.

Most of the overaged pupils in primary schools were male, possibly because most overaged females were married. Moreover, it is less likely for females who dropped out at an early age to resume their education with their counterparts. Such unfavorable conditions and practices endanger the region by excluding half of the population workforce from future regional developmental endeavours.

The uneducated preponderance of mothers may also harm the total population dynamics by high birth rates and creating a population explosion beyond what the lagging economy can sustain. Since half of the driving forces of economic development were made to be ‘disabled’, the rate of economic development is expected to continue to be lower than the rapidly increasing population, due to lack of knowledge on the part of mothers to limit family members. This imbalance between fast growing population and slowly developing economy in pastoral regions, has been seen as likely to amplify the existing poverty in the regions. The socioeconomic disparity between pastoralists and other regions will persist if problems related to females’ education are not solved in the best possible way.
Administrative decentralization in educational management was more detrimental to education provision in Afar than in Somali

Self-governance was needed based on the assumptions that local governors are more concerned and can readily demonstrate more commitment and sense of belongingness in sustaining efficient and effective leadership practices. These assumptions hold true when competent and committed local individuals are assigned to such responsibilities. In the case of Afar, in the name of self-governance, incompetent and unqualified leaders were entitled to lead the qualified teachers. Although there is a similar problem in the Somali region the situation is better than that of the Afar region.

If less qualified and less competent individuals are assigned to lead qualified and experienced professionals, it is expected that the education system will create twofold problems. The first problem is that it will demotivate qualified and experienced teachers, which in turn affects the teaching and learning process. The second problem is that assigning incompetent individuals as leaders over more competent subordinates may gradually result in a sense of loss of self-efficacy and self-confidence and ultimately psychosocial problems that may lead them to develop inferiority complex.

Lack of belief in the long-term benefits of education and overemphasis on short-term economic gains from girls’ marriages affected participation in primary education and thereby attainment of EFA in both regions

Most parents in Afar and some parents in the Somali regions failed to comprehend the prospects and value of education. Because of this they seem to develop negative attitudes toward formal education, which is an instrument that brings unwanted behavioural change such as losing the cultural values among their children. Moreover, some of the parents also maintain that marriage has more immediate economic returns than educating girls. Hence they attach more importance to their girls’ marriage than to educating them. This again leads to the conclusion that such pastoral communities in the two regions were focusing on the two timely advantages of marriage. The first is the monetary benefit that the family of the girls gets as opposed to temporal [direct and indirect] costs incurred by education. The second is the social respect that the family of the male gets
because their son becomes mature and ready for fatherhood. However, in the rural parts of the regions, society pays more attention to the education of males than of females.

Similarly, parents of male children tend to attach more importance to the preservation of their cultural norms and traditions through marriage than education. Therefore, both parents may open their doors to education only if they can surely see the non-contradictory roles between their cultural preservation through their children and behavioural reconstruction that may result from educating the children. Accordingly, focusing on the timely and short-term economic benefits of girls’ marriage and lack of awareness of the long-term benefits of girls’ education inhibited participation in primary education and thereby attainment of EFA in both regions.

**Frequent mobility and health and peace related problems affected children's participation in primary education in both regions**

Afar and Somali pastoralists frequently move from place to place, mainly to riverbanks and marshy areas to find grazing land. These places are not only far from health services and schools but also expose pastoralists and their children to malaria. As a result, many students dropped out of school. The conflicts between different clans and presence of groups considered terrorists made parents feel insecure about sending their children to school. Sometimes the situations oblige them to leave and move somewhere where they feel more secure. Hence, it can be concluded that frequent mobility and health and security related problems in pastoralist regions are among the major factors impairing student participation in primary schools in both regions.
5.3. Recommendations

Low participation rates, inequality in education, low quality education and high internal inefficiencies are surface problems or symptoms of the underlying root causes that affect educational provision. Unless the root causes are investigated, and possible interventions initiated, the problems will continue to be barriers to the right of children to education in particular, and to the socioeconomic development of the regions and the nation in general. The following recommendations are directly and closely linked with the underlying factors found to inhibit the provision of and participation in primary education in pastoralist regions. The recommendations are assumed to be remedial solutions to reduce or avoid the identified problems. Moreover, it is hardly reasonable to assume that a single study could resolve all the evils of educational delivery in the primary schools of the regions. The recommendations put forward below take due note of this and the research settings.

Assessing the gaps in skills and providing short training and continuous professional development for educational leaders

It was found that application of decentralization before capacitating the stakeholders was making incapable individuals to shoulder responsibilities requiring special experience and skills they lack. As the result of such practices, the quality of educational planning and management suffered a lot. This was because majority of the educational leaders at woreda education office level lacked the necessary educational background or experience in educational planning and management. Moreover, such unqualified educational leaders, particularly the woreda education officers in the Afar region, were trying “to lead” the schools where there were more qualified school principals and teachers. As the findings show, this affects both the individuals and the system. Thus it is necessary first to assess the gaps in the skills of the individuals “leading” the education system at different levels, then to prepare tailor-made short-term training to help to minimize the problem, and provide them with continuous professional development to fill the gap of skills which enable them to be competent leaders. At the same time, the regional education bureau needs to stipulate the knowledge, attitude, skills and competences required for educational leadership at different
levels. The regional education bureau should use universities and colleges located in their respective regions to enhance the attitudes, knowledge and skills of educational leaders. This strategy can have advantages of sustainably solving the problem by capacitating incompetent leaders or other target groups. However, it may still have the disadvantage of incurring costs on the part of the organizers of the capacity building programmes if the skill and knowledge gaps are not appropriately identified by participating in the target groups. Additionally, unless the rate of turnover of the trained individuals is controlled or avoided, it can also create wastage of resources on the part of the organizers of the programmes, on the one hand, and could cause perpetuation of the problem in the system on the other hand. Therefore, it is advisable that such training programmes should be devised in a goal-oriented manner and only offered to those individuals who will remain in the same system and transfer the training to solve the problems experienced in that particular system.

**Adapt /develop/ a strategic planning and management system in education to achieve EFA goals**

It is said that provision of education for all might be literally easy to talk but a very complex and tiresome business that needs not only the commitment of governmental organizations but also the full participation of all stakeholders. This means that unreserved and active participation and provision of various resources that directly and indirectly support the achievement of the goals of EFA is very important to solve the identified problems in areas where different socioeconomic conditions have been recognized as major factors affecting the provision of and participation in primary education.

Here, I stress that the participation of the stakeholders should never be limited to commenting on the planned initiatives of the governments and to finger on the attempts done by the MoE. Rather, I propose that all stakeholders must be given sufficient room and recognitions to sit together and review major problems and their root causes, then prioritize the problems, set the goals, craft the best alternative strategies to solve the problems, schedule the work and take their own proportional share for its implementation. I would further like to extend my recommendations that those who planned the work aimed at promoting integrated educational leadership, should put their feet on the first line of controlling, monitoring and evaluating the implementation of the
ongoing educational plans throughout the year and re-planning the plan for the upcoming academic year.

In the Somali region the society was trying to surmount the problem of children’s participation in primary education by applying quick-win strategies manifested in the form of sporadic campaigns (e.g. mobilizing people to send their children to school). Nonetheless, since there are long-lasting complex and interwoven social, political, cultural and economic causes underlying low participation, applying participatory and strategic planning and implementation would be more effective than quick-win strategies. Such strategic leadership practices should include making school maps showing the locations of both permanent schools and temporary learning sites and related local educational problems in order to integrate them with the planning and implementation of the strategies towards achieving EFA in the regions.

Creating awareness among parents on the value of education

The shortest means to solve the underlying causes of educational problems in such culturally conservative societies is to thoroughly examine and understand the prevailing value system. This means that one of the impediments to the provision of and participation in primary education and thereby EFA is the society’s deep value system manifested in the form of commonly accepted norms, traditions and customs. Understanding the value system of the targeted society would be one of the means for selecting feasible solutions. A society has the right to preserve these value systems. Thus the major strategy should be to shed light on the advantages and disadvantages of the existing value systems. This in turn needs not one attempt but continuous and professionally guided discussions and debates with and among members of the society until at least majority of them support and believe that educating children offers many more benefits than marriage at early ages.

It was inferred that achieving the fifth goal of EFA, equal enrolment ratio between girls and boys was a challenge that increased with the grade level of primary school. This was because in the higher grades of primary schools, where girls seem to reach puberty, most parents prefer marriage for their children over education. Therefore, the regional educational bureau particularly in Afar ought to develop training and sensitization programme to help create positive attitudes and
perceptions among parents to support education in general and girls’ education in particular. This can be achieved by creating transformational thoughts over the harmful cultural ideas and practices based on commonly agreed content, methodologies, time and place for the training. Sensitizing community members to change their negative attitudes towards modern education needs to be effective using different modes of communication including social structures (e.g. indigenous institutions and their leaders), radio programmes in their languages, and educated relatives of the pastoralists. The advantage of these strategies is that they foster ownership of the parents over the school system. Moreover, the strategies have the advantage in making sustainable some educational projects developed and implemented to solve some of the education problems with the assistance of some funders. Here, when the parents achieve awareness and own the project, they can avoid acts of reluctance that might cause them to discontinue the project in a particular community. However, the strategy requires a well thought-out approach that should never undermine the existing culture and beliefs of pastoralists. In a locality where rejection of modern education is supported by religious leaders it could be time consuming to solve problems through awareness creation. Therefore, applying an awareness creation strategy necessitates a profound examination and understanding of the existing culture of the resisting parties and the reasons for that resistance.

**Develop/adopt and implement participatory, strategic, integrated and sustainable settlement and development programmes in pastoral societies**

One of the reasons for the high rate of educational wastage is long distances because of the dispersed settlement of pastoralists. It is known that educational wastage could have a marked effect on the current and future socioeconomic life of the communities (Evangelou, 1984). In this regard, repetition has more disastrous effects than dropout, because when one repeats a grade all the educational direct and indirect (opportunity) costs become wastage. Therefore, to minimize wastage of public and private educational finance and to increase opportunities for achieving the goals of EFA, devising and implementing sustainable strategies to reduce or avoid repetition rate are mandatory in the education system (Shahshahani, 1995).
Furthermore, it is understood that students were dropping out from and repeating in their schools mainly because of the temporary migration of their parents and malnutrition. Here, long-term and sustainable solutions may be needed. These include fully supporting the society to start sedentary settlement. However, since the issue is profound and pervasive such a strategy requires extensive discussions and commitments on the part of all responsible bodies in allocating sufficient resources that might help the society to overcome or tolerate the negative effects of the stated problems. In this regard, my recommendation goes directly to the responsible federal ministries mainly the Ministries of Education, Agriculture, Health, and Federal Affairs to take the lead in planned and strategic initiatives in mobilizing all bodies concerned including regional, local, governmental and non-governmental as well as private organizations and civic associations to implement resettlement programmes to facilitate integrated and sustainable development in pastoral societies. On the other hand, applying this alternative strategy has both advantages and disadvantages. The advantages include that it may solve not only educational but also other social and economic problems like ensuring security and promoting economic growth through the application of modern technologies. Nonetheless, it has some drawbacks that include converting the socio-economic system of the pastoralists from long existing nomadic to a sedentary lifestyle which entails both resource implications as well as cultural transformation. It also requires fully and practically convincing the pastoralists that a sedentary life is more useful than a nomadic lifestyle. It also needs strongly committed and sustainable supporting responsible bodies, particularly from the side of government. Therefore, application of the strategy should be supported by well-organized resource provision where sufficient resources are allotted to establish and provide basic infrastructure for the community who will be settling.

I also want to point out that the socioeconomic strengths of pastoral society should nationally be seen as one of developmental opportunity for the people of the nation. Conversely, the socioeconomic weakness of pastoral society must be considered as one of the future risks for the developmental endeavours in the regions in particular and all regions in the country in general. This is because the national growth rate is the aggregate sum of the total development efforts made by all national regional states. Hence, uncontrolled socioeconomic disparity may lead the nation to a skewed political system whereby national integrity and security falls into the hands of very few people.
Developing and implementing relevant and flexible academic programmes related to medium of instruction, content and methodologies in the classroom

One of the underlying or root causes of less participation of primary education is the problem of quality in education. This has been partly witnessed in the form of the application of instruction in languages that pupils cannot understand in their early grades of primary school, where they need to be supported to quickly adjust to the school and its environment. In such conditions, not only the right of children to be taught in their mother tongues has been negated but also the quality and speed of educational delivery were seriously constrained. In a country where other students have been given the chance to be taught through their own language for more than twenty years, denying this opportunity to the children of Afar seems unfair.

Moreover, the disparity of the medium of instruction in the non-formal (Alternative Basic Education) and formal education in primary schools in Afar is forcing pupils to go back to grade one after completing four years in Alternative Basic Education. This has impaired the morale of the children and exposed their parents to unwelcome direct and indirect costs of education. This in turn discouraged parents from sending their children to school. Here, I would like to present my strong recommendation to all federal, regional and woreda education heads to get together and identify the opportunities and challenges related to the use of vernacular languages in Afar.

Another barrier to the provision of education in pastoral regions is the irrelevance of the content of the curriculum. Here, the subject matter that the students were taking from the instruction, with excessive difficulties, was moreover irrelevant for their personal, social, economic and ecological development to the extent that it seems that they are learning for ‘others’.

The Ethiopian education and training policy states that the curriculum of primary education should be linked to local realities. Accordingly the education provided to children from pastoralist societies is expected to be linked to the knowledge and skills required to change the lives of the learners and the pastoralist society. Therefore, based on future and present societal human capital demands among pastoral societies, a review of the curriculum including textbooks should be made using the outputs of intensive studies. Thus, education bureaus of the two regional states are
strongly advised to formulate clear and relevant educational programmes specific to the societal, economic and environmental needs of the pastoralists based on a preliminary assessment of the real ongoing and future needs of the societies with regard to education.

It is also necessary to propose that since the harshness of the environment cannot be totally handled by artificial intervention, the adoption of a flexible academic calendar would be important to minimize dropout and maintain educational continuity. Furthermore, teachers should be aware that instructional interactions need to be planned and implemented by taking into consideration pupils’ interests and learning styles. Therefore supervisors and professionals should provide training for all teachers in teaching methodology in general and benefits continuous assessment in particular.

Students tend to learn more when the learning process is supported by teaching aids. Therefore, responsible bodies like woreda education officers and supervisors are required to train the teachers on how to produce and use teaching aids and integrate theory with the real life practices of the learners. Each of the above strategies of solving the problem has its advantages and disadvantages and understating the balance of the two is critically important for the effective implementation of the strategies. Flexible programmes have the advantage that they are adaptable to the interests of the learners and their parents. However, developing and applying flexible programmes may be ineffective when the climate is very variable in nature. In an environment where the weather and climatic conditions are less predictable, the flexibility of the instructional programme could be more frequent to the extent that extreme delay in the completion of the contents and related problems of quality of education could occur. Therefore, application of flexible scheduling strategy should be executed by carefully examining the unexpected climatic variations in the locality.

Similarly, application of the mother tongue has the advantage of addressing the right of children to learn in his or her first medium of communication. This also has the advantage of maintaining quality of education so that the strategy reduces confusion on the part of the learners and then also speeds up the instructional process. Nonetheless, application of the mother tongue can be effective only when there are trained teachers in the required quality and quantity. The presence of such teachers is a most challenging part of education particularly in the case of Afar. Thus, application of the strategy still requires special supportive or affirmative actions from the
government. The government should allocate sufficient resources to produce the required quantity and quality of teachers.

**Strengthening integrated alternative delivery strategies**

Education for all in countries with pastoral societies may possibly not be achieved by adapting only formal education systems. Here, adapting various delivery modalities seems important to address all citizens (Kneese & Ballinger, 2006). However, lack of smooth transition between non-formal and formal education (mainly because of language related problems) in the Afar region affects the provision of and participation in primary education in the region. Hence, in regions like Afar and Somali, where the formal education cannot address the needs of the society, non-formal education should be seen as an alternative mode of delivery for primary education. Therefore, the curriculum of non-formal education should be considered as a substitute for the curriculum for the formal education system and then the students who completed four years of non-formal education need to go to grade five rather than entering grade one of formal education. Application of diversified modalities of education has a great advantage in achieving education for all among pastoralists. Some modalities like mobile schooling are of paramount importance that they balance both the economic and educational needs of the pastoralists. However, the strategy has a disadvantage that needs due attention. The supervisory support provided for mobile schools was in most cases found to be insufficient. Hence, its application requires measuring its equivalence with its substitute programme. For example, the course content, teaching methodology, application of teaching aids, quality and quantity of teachers, class size, time span of the delivery, etc. should be carefully measured, correctly arranged and rendered equal so that diversified modalities of educational provision have systems equivalent to those of the system they are substituting or with those found in a formal setting.

**Design and implement different incentive packages for all educational actors working at grassroots level**

The competencies and commitments needed for an effective educational system can be used as inputs for teaching and learning only when the practitioners, particularly school leaders and
teachers, are motivated. Educational organizations more than other organizations require motivated actors because destroying the morale of such practitioners is directly linked with destroying the current and future prospects of the children in particular and the regions in general. Therefore, it is advisable for regional and woreda education offices and zone education departments to involve the beneficiaries and design and implement sufficient incentive packages for teachers, supervisors and school leaders to make them work with diligence. The incentive package could include medical allowances, hardship allowances, in-service training opportunities for further education, promotion, transfer, and better salary scales. Even though provision of motivating rewards and salary packages for teachers adds more cost on the part of the government and negatively affects the activities of the government for some other purposes, it has the great advantage of motivating and retaining more experienced teachers in the school system, in particular and maintaining quality of education, in general.


Lewin, K. M. (2007). *Expanded access to secondary schooling in Sub-Saharan Africa: Key planning and finance issues commissioned study for the department for international development advisors retreat*. University of Sussex: CREATE.


UNESCO. (1980).*The arithmetic of achieving universal primary education*. Paris: UNESCO.


Appendices

Appendix I: Interview Item I

School of Education, Tampere University
Instruments of the Data Collection

Interview items set for key participants selected from Federal Ministries and Regional Bureaus.

Note: These interview items were prepared not to lead the responses but to let the participants focus on pertinent or main points. Hence, the items are set to trigger participants provide in depth data. The interview will be made with State (Deputy) Ministers of Ethiopian Ministry of Education and Ministry of Federal Affairs, Director and Experts of Special Need and Inclusive Education unit at Ethiopian Ministry of Education, heads and experts of Regional Education Bureaus. The responses shall focus on the national, regional and overall approaches or conceptual matters related to policy and strategy towards educational provision and participation for achieving EFA in the regions.

1. Participant’s Personal Information

Age
Sex
Education level
Area of specialization
Years of work experience
Job title
2. Major and specific interview themes

I. What is the status of primary education in pastoralist Afar and Somali region with reference to:

A. Access to education in terms of:
   - Fostering enrolment and sustaining all school age children.
   - Devising different alternatives modes/means of educational provision.
   - Fulfilling facilities like desks, offices, house for teachers, etc.
   - Strategies used to involve different stakeholders to achieve EFA.
   - If there are other related concerns made to ensure EFA in the regions.

B. Ensuring equity to education in terms of:
   - Awareness creation among families to send their female children to formal schools.
   - Maintaining balance between quality and quantity of schools in Urban and rural areas.
   - Devising mechanism of completion of primary school of all school age females.
   - If you have any other concerns you want to raise here.

C. Ensuring quality of education in terms of:
   - Devising strategies of improving teachers’ qualification and motivation.
   - Formulating strategies that might foster sedentary life among pastorals.
   - Developing programs of capacitating education system towards achieving EFA.
   - Attempts made or to be made to fulfil school facilities like pedagogical centres.
   - Any issues done at higher level to ensure quality of primary education of both regions.

D. Ensuring efficiency of education in terms of:
   - Strategies for returning dropouts.
   - Techniques of improving rate of promotion.
   - Alternative means of improving rate of completion of primary schools.
   - If you have any other concern or issues done to ensure efficiency in the regions.
II. Generally how can you explain and summarize the provision of and participation in primary education in the region and related constraints with regard to:

- Access to education in the region in terms of NIR, AIR, GER and NER.
- Status of the EFA in the regions and at national level.
- In-school and out of school constraints influencing educational provision towards EFA.
- Educational equity in the regions in terms of ensuring gender parity
- Educational equity in the regions in terms of ensuring urban-rural school distribution.
- Quality of education with regard to input and process in primary education in the regions.
- Efficiency in primary education in terms of rates of dropouts, repetition and completion.
- The overall impacts of mentioned constraints in insuring EFA in the regions.

III. What are the major constraints and possible strategic solutions related to the provision and participation in primary education of pastoralists in Afar and Somali regions?

Thank you a lot for your devotion for our common goal!
Appendix II: Interview Items II

University of Tampere,
School of Education

Interview items set for the respondents selected from Zone and Woreda education offices of Somali and Afar Regions respectively.

**Note:** This interview items are prepared not to lead participants but to let them focus on pertinent or main points, and trigger participants provide in depth data. This interview item will be addressed with Zone Education department heads of Somali region, and Woreda education officers of Afar. The responses will focus on the intermediate roles of the respondents related to educational achievements and constraints towards EFA in the two regions.

1. **Participant’s Personal Information**
   - Age____________
   - Sex___________
   - Education level_______
   - Area of specialization_______
   - Years of work experience_______
   - Job title___________
   - Date of the interview___________

2. **Major and specific interview themes**
   - How do you explain the practices, achievements and constraints of the current provision and Participation of primary education in pastoralists of Afar/Somali region towards EFA?
   - Would you please give me your explanation based on the following main points?
A. Ensuring access to education with respect to:

- Coordinating with schools towards ensuring enrolment of all school age children.
- Application of different alternatives modes/or means of educational provision.
- Developing training programs for directors and teachers to capacitate them to achieve EFA.
- Synergy and integrity with directors and teachers for the realization of EFA.
- Attempts made to fulfil facilities like desks, offices, house for teachers, etc.
- Different packages of rewards designed for the directors and best teachers.
- Are there other related attempts made in relation to insuring EFA in the regions?

B. Ensuring equity to education in terms of:

- Forming a forum in the zone/woreda so as to create awareness among communities.
- Mobilizing the community to send their children, particularly female children.
- Planning to maintain balance between quantity of schools in urban and rural areas.
- Strategies of sustaining all school-age females up to their completion of primary school.
- If you have any other concerns you want to raise here?

C. Ensuring quality of education in terms of:

- Initiating strategies of improving teachers’ qualification and motivation.
- Implementation of policies that foster sedentary life among pastorals so that they shall own management of primary schools.
- Fulfilling school facilities that support quality of education.
- Training on how to use continuous assessment and student centred approach of teaching.
- If you have any more issues done to ensure quality of education in the primary schools?

D. Ensuring efficiency of education in terms of:

- Monitoring application of strategies of returning drop outs.
- Supporting primary schools in the zone/woreda to improve the existing rate of promotion.
- Improving rate of completion of primary schools.
- If you have any other concern or issues done to ensure efficiency in the regions.
II. Generally how can you explain and summarize provision and participation of primary education in the regions with regard to:

- Access to education in the region in terms of NIR, AIR, GER and NER.
- Status of the EFA in the region compared with national level.
- In school and out of school constraints influencing educational provision towards EFA.
- Ensuring educational equity in terms of gender parity and urban-rural school distribution.
- Quality of education with regard to input and process qualities in primary education.
- Efficiency by reducing rates of dropouts, repetition and completion rate so as to insure EFA.

III. What are the major constraints and possible strategic solutions related to the provision of primary education for pastoral nomads in Afar and Somali regions?

Thank you for devoting your time for our common goal!
Appendix III: Interview Items III

University of Tampere,
School of Education

Interview items set for the selected students of Samara and Jigjiga Universities and school directors of the selected primary schools.

Note: This interview items are prepared not to lead the responses but to let the participants focus on pertinent or main points and hence trigger participants to provide in depth data. The interview will be made with school directors of the selected schools and students from Samara and Jigjiga Universities. The response will focus on the operational, local or environmental issues related to educational achievements and constraints towards EFA in the two regions.

1. Respondent’s Personal Information

Age___________
Sex___________
Education level________
Area of specialization___________
Years of work experience________
Job title_________________
Date of the interview.____________

2. Major and specific interview themes

I- How do you explain the practices, achievements and constraints of the current provision and Participation of primary education in pastoralists of Afar/Somali region towards EFA? Would you please give me your explanation based on the following main points?
A. Ensuring access to education with respect to:
- Applying different mechanisms of improving enrolment and sustaining all school age children in the primary schools.
- Creating awareness among communities and working with the communities in supporting the achievement of EFA at school level.
- Implementing various means of fulfilling facilities like desks, offices, and house for teachers, etc in the primary school.
- Making school environment attractive for the children.
- Calling and involving different stakeholders so as to build school fences, latrines and houses, etc. in the school.
- Motivating and leading the school communities including the teachers, students’ and parent towards EFA goals.
- If there are other related concerns made to ensure EFA in the regions.

B. Ensuring equity to education in terms of:
- Creating awareness among pastoralist community so that the community send their children particularly females’ children to the school.
- Attracting, sustaining, motivating and counselling all school age females and other students to learn up to their completion of primary school level?
- If you have any other concerns you want to raise here?

C. Ensuring quality of education in terms of:
- Practising strategies of improving teachers’ qualification and motivation.
- Aware the teachers, students and parents about pertinent policies or strategies like fostering sedentary life among pastorals so that they shall own management of primary schools.
- Applying alternative approaches of fulfilling school facilities that support quality of education in the areas like pedagogical centres, and libraries.
- Applying continuous assessment and ensuring student centred approach of teaching method.
- If you have any more issues done to ensure quality of primary education in the regions?
D. Ensuring efficiency of education in terms of:

- Apply strategies of returning drop outs.
- Implement means of improving rate of promotion.
- Practice techniques for improving rate of completion of primary schools.
- If you have any other concern or issues done to ensure efficiency in the regions.

II. Generally how can you explain and summarize provision and participation of primary education in the regions with regard to:

- Access to education in the region in terms of NIR, AIR, NER and GER.
- Status of the EFA in the region at national level.
- In school and out of school constraints influencing educational provision towards EFA.
- Educational equity in terms of ensuring gender parity and urban-rural school distribution.
- Quality of education with regard to input ad process qualities in primary education.
- Efficiency in terms of rates of dropouts, repetition and completion as related to insuring EFA.

III. What are the major constraints and possible strategic solutions related to the provision and participation of primary education for pastoralists in Afar and Somali regions?

Thank you for devoting your time for our common goal!
Appendix IV: Initiating Items for FGD

University of Tampere,
School of Education

Items for FGD to be conducted with the selected respondents from PTA members and Teachers of the selected primary schools.

Note: These discussion items were prepared not to lead the responses of the discussants but to let the participants focus on pertinent or main points and hence trigger participants provide an in depth data. The FGD will be made with selected PTA members, and teachers of the selected primary schools of Afar and Somali regions. Focus shall be on technical aspects or the practices related to achievements and constraints of primary educational provision and participation at grass root or school level.

1. Respondent’s personal information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PTA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other participants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total participants:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Context of FGDs

Date of focus group discussion___________
Place of focus group discussion___________
Total hours devoted for focus group discussion _________

3. Major and specific discussion items

How do you explain the real practices, achievements and constraints of the current provision and participation of primary education among pastoralists of Afar or Somali region towards EFA? Would you please give your explanation based on the following main points?
A. Ensuring access to education with respect to:

- Enrolling and sustaining all school age children.
- Applying different alternatives modes/or means of educational provision.
- Creating awareness among communities that the community support achievement of EFA in sending and helping the children particularly female.
- Fulfilling facilities like desks, offices, house for teachers, etc.
- Motivating and helping students mainly females to learn in the primary schools.
- If there are other related concerns made to ensure EFA in the regions.

B. Ensuring equity of education in terms of:

- Creating awareness among pastoralist community that the community supports in sending the children particularly females children.
- Attracting and sustaining all school age females and other students up to their completion of primary school level.
- If you have any other concerns you want to raise here?

C. Ensuring quality of education in terms of:

- Devising strategies of improving teachers’ qualification and motivation.
- Fostering sedentary life among pastorals so they shall own management of primary schools.
- Fulfilling school facilities that support quality of education in areas like pedagogical centres, and libraries.
- If you have any more to tell about issues done to ensure quality of primary education in this regions?

D. Ensuring efficiency of education in terms of:

- Implementing strategies of returning drop outs.
- Practicing techniques of improving rate of promotion.
- Applying means of improving rate of completion of primary schools.
If you have any other concern or issues done to ensure efficiency in the regions.

II. Generally how can you explain and summarize provision of primary education in the regions with regard to:

- Access to education in the region in terms of NIR, AIR, NER and GER.
- Status of the EFA in the region compared with national level.
- In-school and out-of-school constraints influencing educational provision towards EFA.
- Ensuring gender parity and urban-rural school distribution.
- Efficiency in primary education in terms of rates of dropouts, repetition ad completion as related to ensuring EFA in the primary schools of the region.

III. What are the major constraints and possible strategic solutions related to the provision and participation of primary education for pastoralists in Afar and Somali regions?

Thank You for Your Devotion!
Appendix V: Checklist Items for Classroom Observation and Document Review

University of Tampere
School of Education

Items set to guide me while observing the schools, during my field survey

Note: The following items may not restrict the contents of observation of the researcher. But they will guide the researcher to remind and focus on the selected and pertinent matters related to the provision and participation of primary education in Afar and Somali regions.

- Each important detail of pertinent data related to educational provision and participation will be transcribed carefully for triangulation and verification of responses of the respondents.
- The observation will be based on the four pillars as indicated below.
- Not only the presence and absence but also details of the issues observed shall be recorded.
- Clarification will asked from the concerned bodies if some point needs clarification.
- Photos and audios will be taken after getting good will and permission.

1. Access to education:
   - Students registered at the beginning of the academic year by sex (M….. F….Total…..)
   - Students learning in the class in the mid of the academic year by sex (M….. F….Total…)
   - Application of alternatives modes of educational provision like mobile schools.
   - Facilities like desks, offices, houses for teachers, blackboard etc.
   - Other contingent and pertinent matters will be checked and recorded.

2. Ensuring equity to education in terms of
   - Proportion of females and males enrolled and sustained.
   - Proportion of females and males children promoted per grade.
   - Other related matters.
3. **Ensuring quality of education in terms of**
   - Proportion of qualified teachers.
   - Motivation of teachers and leaders.
   - Participation of parents in school management
   - Textbook-to-student ratio.
   - Pupil-section ratio.
   - Teacher-student ratio.
   - Relevance of textbooks.
   - Medium of instruction.
   - Proportion of teachers who speak vernacular language.
   - Extent to which student centred approach of instruction is going on.
   - Extent of relating classroom discussion with local realities.
   - Status of libraries and offices.
   - Other related matters will be observed.

4. **Efficiency of education**
   - Rate of dropout in each grade.
   - Rate of repetition in each grade.
   - Completion rate of grades 5 and 8 in each school.
   - Other matters will be observed and recorded.
5. Observation of physical compound of the primary school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facility</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Roof</th>
<th>Floor</th>
<th>Wall</th>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blocks</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Iron</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classrooms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Grass</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sections</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Cemented</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Soil</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>H. Block</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pedagogical centre</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Stone</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Wooden</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Store-room</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laboratory</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>V. Good</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mini-Media</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Good</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recreational rooms</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toilets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bad</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. General Remarks

__________________________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________________________
Appendix VI: Different Letters from Concerned Organizations to Get the Consent of Participants
To whom it may concern

Subject: Letter of Permission

As indicated on the subject Ministry of Education wrote a letter with reference no 12/1-5485/1-70270/35 on 23/06/05 E.C as Ato Petros W/Georgis was working in MoE and by now he is a PHD student in Finland Tampere University and want to conduct a research on provision of education in our region – based on this the regional education bureau has allowed him to collect data in different woredas in our region and finally the education bureau request the woreda educational officials to help him well.

With Best Regards,

[Signature]

CC

- Curri prep and T.L core process

Assistant Education Bureau
To Whom It May Concern

Subject: - Permission to do Research

Mr. Petros Woldegiorgis asked our permission to conduct research on provision of education that prevails in our regional state. On top of that ministry of education wrote a letter with reference no 12/1-5485/1-70270/35 on 25/06/05 E.C as mr Petros was working in MoE and by now he is PhD student in Tampere university; Finland. Based on this, the regional education bureau has allowed him to collect data in different woredas in our region.

Therefore, the education bureau request, the woreda educational officials to help him well in this regard.

Best with regards!

[Signature]

Hassan Alemu
Bureau Head
Appendix VII: Definition of Terms
It is deemed very important to avoid or minimize ambiguity and maintain clarity as well as
consistency with respect to the meanings attached with some terms and phrases by providing
operational definitions.

**Apparent Intake Rate (AIR)** is also called Gross Enrolment Ratio. It is the percentage of new
entrants irrespective of age in grade one out of the total number of children of the official admission
age (age 7 for primary education in the Ethiopian case) in a given year (MoE, 2012/13, p.23).

**Completion Rate** is the proportion of new students in grades five or eight divided by the population
of the official age in those grades (MoE, 2012/13, p.36).

**Dropout Rate** is the percentage of pupils who discontinue their learning from a given grade
compared to the previous year’s total enrolment in the same grade (MoE, 2012/13, p.34).

**Dropouts** are pupils who leave school before the end of the final year of the educational stage or
cycle in which they are enrolled (UNESCO, 1980).

**Educational Participation Rate** refers to the percentage of students enrolled at a given educational
level (Dirririsa, 1993).

**Gender Parity Index (GPI)** is the ratio of female to male whereby GPI 1 indicates perfect equality
between males and females, while GPI closer to zero indicates high disparity between the
participation of females compared to that of males (MoE, 2012/13, p. 312).

**Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)** is the percentage of pupils (irrespective of age) at a particular grade
level compared to the corresponding school-age population (MoE, 2012/13, p. 29).

**Net Enrolment Ratio (NER)** is the percentage of pupils at a particular grade level, who are within
the official enrolment age for that level compared to the corresponding school age population
(MoE, 2012/13, p.26).

**Net Intake Rate (NIR)** is the percentage of new entrants in grade 1 who are seven years old, out
of the total number of children of official admission age in a given year in the community (MoE,
2012/13, p.24).
**Pastoralism** is a mode of life which depends on natural foraging in the arid region, which requires constant or periodic movement in search of pasture (Zyin & Melese, 2013).

**Pastoralists** refers to people who primarily raise and depend on livestock and their products as their source of food and income (Markakis, 1993).

**Primary Education** in Ethiopia includes grades 1-8. Primary education has two levels - lower (grades 1-4) and upper (grades 5-8) and the official age range of the group is 7-14 years (FDRE, 1994).

**Primary School Age** is the official age by which the child is expected to enroll into primary school at the age of 7 (MoE, 2012/13, p. 312).

**Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR)** is the average number of pupils at a given education level per teacher at the same level calculated by dividing the total number pupils at a given level of education by the total number of teachers available to teach that level (MoE, 2012/13, p. 30).

**Repetition Rate** is the percentage of pupils repeating in a given grade out of the total enrolment in the same grade (MoE, 2012/13, p.32).

**Woreda** is the fourth level administrative structure in Ethiopia whereas, Federal, which is at the top of the structure is entitled to formulate policy and design curriculum, region is empowered to decide the medium of instruction and other related matters, and zonal administrations is following the actual activity of woreda are first, second and third level respectively (Author).