An Investigation into the Barriers to Female Education in Link Ethiopia Schools

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Executive Summary

Educational Gender Gap

- Nationally there is a gender gap at all levels of the education system
- In rural areas there is a more pronounced enrolment gender gap at all levels of the system
- The gender gap is wider after grade 8, and widens with progression through secondary and preparatory school
- The gender gap in enrolment is greater in Oromiya than Amhara, and only manifests itself in urban Amhara after grade 9
- In rural areas in Amhara and Oromiya the transition from grade 8 to grade 9 widens the enrolment gender gap
- There is a wider gender gap in enrolment when we only consider overage students
- There is little evidence of a gender gap in attainment at primary school level
- There is a significant gender gap in attainment in secondary school

Barriers to Female Education

Economic

- Costs of schooling are a significant factor in the enrolment decision making process for families
- Where costs are equal parents do not appear to be favouring male education over female
- The lack of female employment opportunities serves as a disincentive to female education
- Child labour should be understood in the wider context of child work both inside and outside the home, income-generating or otherwise

Cultural

- Amongst schools and children there is a strong belief in gender equality in education, but traditional values in some communities and families still prevail

- Although the burden of household chores affects boys and girls it is more disruptive to girls' education than to boys'
- Practice of early marriage and abduction is still present in Ethiopia and has the potential to significantly hinder female education

School

- The increased distance to school from primary to secondary education creates both financial and social problems for females with many having to relocate from rural to urban areas
- A combination of cultural factors and a lack of female role models have a negative impact on girls' motivation in school
- Poor facilities impact on both boys' and girls' education, however during menstruation girls are more reliant on them
- Menstruation can have a negative impact on both female attendance and attainment at school

Recommendations

Beneficiaries

- Support for girls facing the range of problems they encounter transitioning from primary to secondary school
- Support for girls in all areas (except urban Amhara) to encourage their enrolment in secondary school
- Interventions to improve the retention of girls enrolled in secondary school
- Interventions that focus on improving female attainment at secondary school
- An emphasis on supporting the retention of overage girls in the education system

Overcoming Barriers'

Economic

- Ensuring that interventions do not increase the financial burden of female education on families
- Ensuring that the financial cost of interventions is not borne by schools
- Increasing awareness of and access to female opportunities

Cultural

- Increasing both free/study time outside of school for girls by alleviating or changing the nature of the burden of household chores
- Working with rural communities to reduce the impact of early marriage and abduction on female education

School Factors

- Reducing the impact of the increased journey to secondary school, primarily in rural areas, through the provision of accommodation and/or transport
- Further resourcing and supporting existing 'Girls' Clubs', and widening their scope
- Implementing a 'Sister-to-Sister' mentor scheme within schools where girls support each other in their studies
- Educating communities to be more open about menstruation and educating girls in female health
- Implementing low-cost practical solutions to female hygiene such as the Mooncup

Key Issues for Further Research

- Further information from secondary schools about the support they provide for female students
- Further information from female secondary school students about attainment and motivation in secondary school
- Engagement with secondary schools and students concerning journey distance to school and possible solutions
- Understanding why boys have more free time than girls outside of school in spite of the significant amount of time dedicated to farming
- Evaluation of different tested female hygiene schemes

Chapter 1

Overview and Objective

Link Ethiopia is a charity working to strengthen the quality of education in Ethiopia through building partnerships with school communities in Ethiopia to deliver projects and training in schools which positively impacts young peoples' lives.

The study will contribute to the design of a new Link Ethiopia project aimed at helping girls in education within the schools it supports across the Amhara and Oromiya regions. The vision of Link Ethiopia is to improve the retention and attainment of girls in education by initiating a project, providing support to girls, their families and communities, which address various barriers to girls' education.

This study has been conducted with the aim of gaining an in-depth understanding of the barriers to female education in Ethiopia. The objective of the study is to investigate barriers to education including cultural, economic and school factors, which specifically or disproportionately affect girls. The study has a focus on the Amhara and Oromiya regions and, more specifically, on Link Ethiopia schools within these regions. It is hoped that with the contribution of this study, Link Ethiopia is better equipped to develop a girls' education project, which is informed, focused and effective.

The paper is organised into 4 main Sections. Chapter 2 provides the background and literature review. Chapter 3 describes the method and limitations of the study. Chapter 4 is the analysis of the barriers to girls' education section of the study. Chapter 5 presents some recommendations.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

According to the World Bank Publication, Girls' Education in the 21st Century, educating girls is not only a women's issue it is a development issue. According to their sources girls' education is 'positively correlated with increased economic productivity, more robust labour markets, higher earnings, and improved societal health and well-being.'[1] Studies have shown that educating women and increasing women's control over family resources benefits the wellbeing of the household as it helps them escape poverty and more resources are allocated to food and children's health care. Especially in developing countries, women often represent an unutilised resource. Countries that have adopted policies focused on the promotion of gender equality in education, can expect to reap higher social and economic benefits.[2] With this said one can also view girls' education as primarily a women's issue. It is an avenue through which women are empowered, both economically and socially and an important means through which gender inequality is addressed.

A case study developed by the Millennium Development Goals Achievement Fund contends that Ethiopia, despite making significant progress in several of the Millennium Development Goals, is lagging behind in MDG 3, the promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment. The Global Gender Gap report 2010 ranks Ethiopia 121 out of 134 countries

[1] Mercy Tembon and Lucia Fort, 'Girls' Education in the 21st Century: Gender Equality, Empowerment, and Economic Growth' (2008, The World Bank) xvii

[2] ibid

in terms of the magnitude and scope of gender disparities. Women and girls in Ethiopia are strongly disadvantaged compared to boys and men in several areas, including literacy, health and livelihoods. They experience discrimination, low status in their society and lack social support networks.[3]

The issue of gender equality has become an area of concern in development planning during the last few decades. The concept of bringing gender issues into the mainstream of society was clearly established as a global strategy for promoting gender equality in the Platform for Action adopted at the United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing in 1995. It highlighted the necessity to ensure that gender equality is a primary goal in all areas of social and economic development.[4] Gender mainstreaming in development, i.e. the integration of gender issues into every aspect of development programs, is aimed at empowering women to enable them to participate in and benefit from the programs equally as men.[5] The Ethiopian government has explicitly expressed political will and commitment to address gender inequality.

2.2 Policy Overview

Ethiopia's constitution and national policies are consistent with international legal instruments on gender equality, including the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Platform of Action (BPA), the African Charter on Human and People's Rights, and the Convention on the Rights of the Child. The Ethiopian Constitution provides women with the enjoyment of all constitutional rights and protections on an equal basis with men.[6] Article 35(8) specifies women's right of access to education.[7]

The key commitment of governments, including the government of Ethiopia, set in the MDGs includes gender equality and women's empowerment. The education specific commitments include ensuring universal primary education for both boys and girls and elimi-

[3]Millennium Development Goals Achievement Fund, 'Advancing Gender Equality: Promising Practices, Case Studies fromt he Millennium Development Goals Achievement Fund' (2013 United Nations) p. 98

[4]International Labour Organisation, 'Definition of Gender Mainstreaming' (1996-2013) ILO¡http://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/gender/newsite2002/about/defin.htm¿ accessed 29 July 2014

[5]Ethiopian Society of Population Studies, 'Gender Inequality and Women's Empowerment: In-depth Analysis of the Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey 2005' (October 2008, Addis Ababa) p.19

[6]Constitution of Ethiopia 1995, art 35

[7]Constitution of Ethiopia 1995, art 35(8)

nating gender disparity at all levels of education by 2015.[8] The Education for All (EFA) targets includes achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education.

Over the years Ethiopia has adopted various national policies as a means to implement these global agreements. In 1993 The National Policy on Women was introduced aimed at facilitating conditions conducive to the speeding up of equality between men and women. The 1994 Education and Training Policy affirmed the importance of girls' education. The policy included gender equality issues such as increasing girls' school enrolment, preparing a gender sensitive curriculum, and reducing girls' dropout and repetition rates. The National Cultural Policy enacted in 1997 was aimed at ensuring equal participation in and benefit from cultural activities, and to abolish traditional harmful practices that violate the rights of women such as early marriage, female genital mutilation and abduction. In 2005 the government upgraded the Office of Women's Affairs in the Prime Minister's office to the level of a full Ministry of Women's Affairs with the mandate to ensure that due consideration was given to gender issues across all policies.[9]

The Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) was initiated in 1994 and was created from the 1994 Education and Training Policy. It is the national strategic framework for achieving the goals of EFA as well as the education components of the MDGs.[10] The programme has led to significant progress in education in Ethiopia, including addressing the gender gap in education.

[8] Website of the United Nations, 'Millennium Development Goals' (UN Department of Public Information)¡www.un.org/millenniumgoals¿ accessed 29 July 2014

[9] Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 'Ethiopia: 2010 MDGs Report', Trends and Prospects for Meeting MDGs by 2015 (September 2010 Addis Ababa) p.17

[10] Karin Hyde, Dehab Belay, Asegedech Beyene, Anbesu Biazen, Nuri Kedir, 'Taking Stock of Girls Education in Ethiopia: Preparing for ESDP III' (2005) UNICEF, UNESCO and Save the Children Alliance, p.9

2.3 Gender and Education in Ethiopia

2.3.1 ESDP

According to the Ministry of Education's ESDP IV Action Plan document the gender parity index (GPI) has considerably improved in favour of females as a result of overall expansion in gender equality efforts and affirmative action. At first cycle primary level the female gross enrolment rate (GER) increased from 87% to 93%. At second cycle primary level the female GER increased from 69% to 92% between 2004/05 and 2008/09. Girls' completion rate at grades 5 and 8 has increased from 49.5% in 2004/05 to 78.4% in 2008/09 for grade 5, and from 26.3% in 2004/05 to 40.5% for grade 8.[11]

Despite these improvements, the gender gap in education prevails at all levels of the system. The gender disparity becomes wider at higher levels of the educational system. Only about one third of those admitted to preparatory education (year 11 and 12) are girls. At the level of higher education, the gap is very visible. Among those enrolled in government institutions for a 2 or 3 year diploma 16% were women. For the Masters Degree program only 9.2% were women and for Ph.D. programs only 6.4% were women. It is noted that educational gender gaps are larger in rural areas than in urban areas.[12]

2.3.2 Statistical Analysis

Every year the Ethiopian Federal Ministry of Education produces the 'Educational Statistics Annual Abstract', which allows for extensive analysis of the educational data for Ethiopia. The most recent edition available at the time of writing is the 2005 Ethiopian Calendar (2012/13 Gregorian Calendar) edition. From this a certain amount can be discerned about the current situation and recent trends in the Ethiopian education system. The abstract provides a variety of educational data that is categorised by sex. Throughout this analysis, when seeking to compare data between the sexes, a Gender Parity Index (GPI) is calculated and applied to a variety of data; here GPI is defined to be the female statistic divided by the corresponding male statistic. The interpretation of GPI is expressed in the table below.

[11] Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, Ministry of Education, Education Sector Development Program IV 2010/1011-1014/1015 (August 2010, Addis Ababa) p.69

[12] ibid. p. 70

GPI	Interpretation
$= 1$	Gender Parity
< 1	Higher Male Enrolment
> 1	Higher Female Enrolment

National Trends (2008/09- 2012/13)

The abstract provides a variety of data to illustrate the trends in the Ethiopian education system from 2008/9 to 2012/13. On a national level at primary school in both the first cycle (grades 1-4) and the second cycle (grades 5-8), there has been a steady increase in the number of both male and female students. For both sexes the Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) remains steady throughout this time period.

The GER is calculated by dividing the number of students enrolled in the given grades, by the total population of the appropriate age range and is expressed as a percentage. GER includes overage students and therefore can be a larger figure than 100%. In the first cycle of primary school the GPI for GER remains relatively constant (0.92 to 0.93) for the first cycle, and has improved slightly for the second cycle (0.92 to 0.98) over the five-year period, as seen in the graph below. However, a small gender gap persists.

In the first cycle of secondary school (grades 9-10) the number of male students has remained largely constant, however there has been a significant increase in female enrolment. There has been a significant narrowing of the gender gap as shown on the graph, with the GER GPI improving from 0.74 to 0.92. It is worth noting that this has happened in the context of a decreasing GER by 3.9% for males (from 43.8% to 39.9%) between 2008/9 to 2012/13. The female GER has only increased by 4.4% (from 32.5% to 36.9%) across the same time period.

The second cycle of secondary school (preparatory school, grades 11-12) has experienced increased enrolment from male students; over the five-year period the male GER has increased by 2% from (8.5% to 10.5%). The number of female students enrolling at this stage has increased even more dramatically by 5% (from 3.5% to 8.5%); therefore the gender gap has narrowed significantly, with the GPI for GER increasing from 0.41 to 0.81.

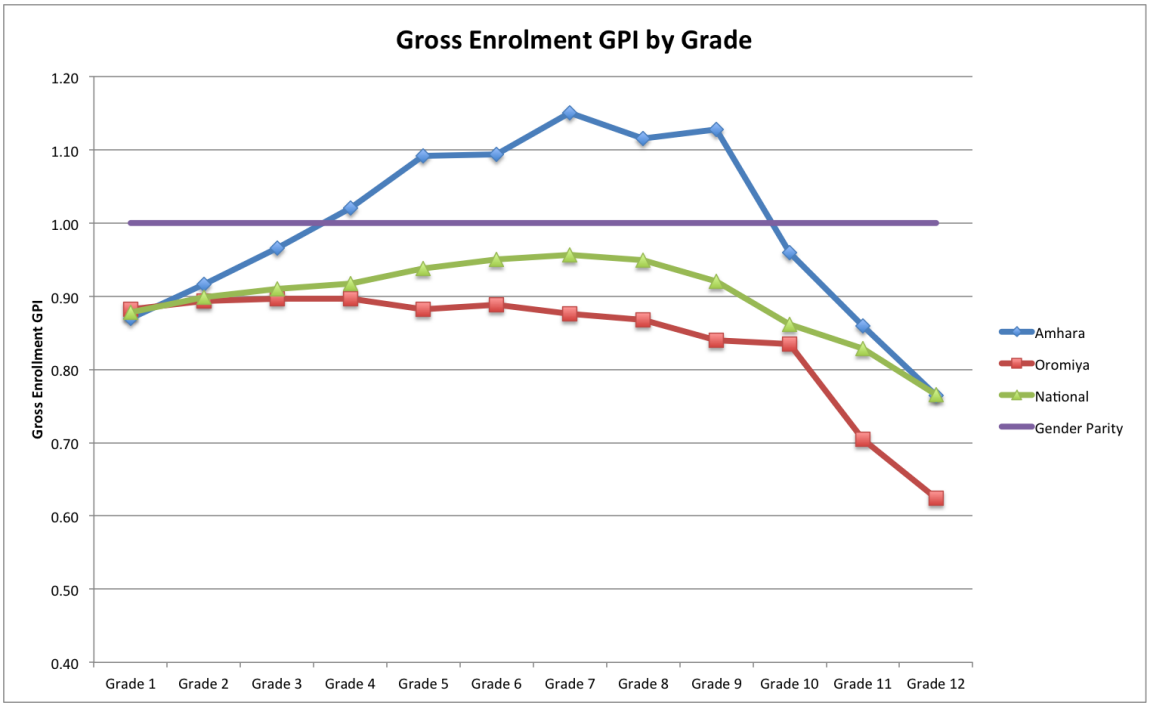

Figure 2.1: National GER GPI 5 Year Trend

Figure 2.1 shows that a gender gap persists at all levels of education in Ethiopia, which widens with progression through the system. At a primary school level the gender gap is the smallest, however the gender gap has not decreased over the past five years, suggesting that this gap is relatively entrenched. The gender gap at secondary school is only slightly larger than at the second cycle of primary school. Moreover, the gender gap at secondary school has been reduced significantly over the past five years, indicating progress. Preparatory school appears to not only have the largest gender gap, but also the greatest widening of the gender gap.

Regional Trends for Amhara and Oromiya (2008/09-2012/13)

Link Ethiopia operates in two regions of Ethiopia, Amhara and Oromiya, and therefore the corresponding regional data is equally important. Across all stages of education we see that the national trends mentioned above in relation to the gender gap are matched in both Amhara and Oromiya, as shown in the graphs. However, whilst the trends are similar, the actual size of the gender gap varies with regional differences.

At primary level, over the five year period, Amhara has had a GER GPI above the national

GER 2012/13	Grade 1-4			Grade 5-8		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	132.1	125.0	**0.95**	66.5	75.4	**1.13**
Oromiya	127.0	115.7	**0.91**	59.5	53.4	**0.90**
National	129.7	119.8	**0.92**	63.5	62.2	**0.98**
GER 2012/13	Grade 9-10			Grade 11-12		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	41.4	45.0	**1.09**	12.2	10.1	**0.83**
Oromiya	39.3	33.4	**0.85**	8.9	6.0	**0.67**
National	39.9	36.9	**0.92**	10.5	8.5	**0.81**

Figure 2.2: 2012/13 GER

average, with no apparent gender gap, whereas Oromiya's GER GPI is slightly below. The pattern is similar in relation to secondary school, with Amhara consistently above the national average, and Oromiya below. Both regions reflect the national trend of increasing female enolment. In Amhara there is no apparent gender gap by 2010/11 and the GER for girls is higher than for boys in 2011/12-2012/13. In Oromiya, the gender gap is narrowing but still not closed by 2012/13. In relation to preparatory level, the gender gap in Amhara follows the national average, with Oromiya again performing below the national average but following the same progressive trend.

The prevailing trends are very promising, illustrating in recent years the impact of various initiatives designed to increase female enrolment in Ethiopia. This is encouraging as it suggests that there is capability of reducing and potentially eradicating the gender gap in Ethiopia. This and the aforementioned policy framework suggests that any Link Ethiopia project is likely to be well received and supported by schools and the various stakeholders. However, a gender gap still persists and thus it is important to further analyse the nature of the gender gap to inform any future project.

Current Situation- Gross Enrolment

Table 2.1 shows the GER for 2012/13 at the different stages of education for Oromiya, Amhara and at a national level, and the respective gender parity indexes. For both sexes there are significant decreases in the GER between all cycles of education, however the biggest decreases are between Grade 1-4 and Grade 5-8, and between Grades 9-10 and Grades 11-12.

At a national level the GPI from grade 1-4 (0.92) is lower than for grade 5-8 (0.98), suggesting that at this stage more girls are retained for the second cycle of primary school

than boys. Such a trend is also seen in Amhara but to an even greater extent, but in Oromiya the GPI remains constant. Primary dropout rates provide supportive data for this trend. Dropout rates are equal in Oromiya for boys and girls (18.6%), whereas nationally the male dropout rate (15.9%) is higher than the female (15.4%) dropout rate. In Amhara there is a greater difference in the dropout rates between the boys (15.4%) and girls (12.8%). Despite this, nationally at primary school there is a gender gap, it is a relatively small one. This gap is slightly more exaggerated in Oromiya, in Amhara the GER data shows little evidence of a gender gap at primary level.

From the second cycle of primary school to secondary school, we see a fall in GPIs nationally and within both Amhara and Oromiya. Nationally and in Oromiya, this represents an increase in the gender gap, however in Amhara for grades 9-10 the female GER is still higher than the male GER. Nevertheless, the fall in the GPI in all three areas of examination means that as a proportion of those enrolled in Grade 5-8 there are fewer females enrolled in grade 9-10. At a preparatory school level we see a further widening of the gender gap, with the national GER GPI falling from 0.92 to 0.81. Large decreases in the GER GPI in both Oromiya and Amhara are also present, and despite Amhara's GPI for grade 9-10 of 1.09 showing more females than males enrolling, at preparatory school this falls close to the national average of 0.83. It is at preparatory school level that we see the largest gender gap in the education system, and it is between secondary school and preparatory school that we see the greatest widening of the gender gap.

Current Situation- Net Enrolment

Another measure of enrolment is the Net Enrolment Rate (NER) as opposed to the Gross Enrolment Rate (GER). The NER only considers enrolled students who are of the prescribed age, and unlike the GER excludes overage students. In theory, unlike the GER, the NER cannot exceed 100, although estimation errors can result in this case. The NER is more reflective of how well the system is functioning for students who do not dropout and return or who do not start school late etc.

Figure 2.3 summarises the NER and GPI by level, region and sex. The NER, in all areas, sees a greater gender parity in all regions at all ages. Therefore the higher GER for males compared to females suggests that the education system has been more effective at retaining boys who have to repeat grades or reintroducing boys who have previously dropped out, than compared to girls. Hence any project should place an emphasis on supporting girls who have either dropped out, repeated a grade or are starting school at a later age, due to the gender gap being emphasised in this situation. At secondary school level 45% of enrolled female students are overage, and for preparatory school this figure is 38%, illustrating that this is not a marginal issue.

NER 2012/13	Grade 1-4			Grade 5-8		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	103.0	101.4	**0.98**	47.8	58.5	**1.22**
Oromiya	98.5	91.5	**0.93**	44.3	41.9	**0.95**
National	98.2	92.8	**0.95**	46.5	48.1	**1.03**
NER 2012/13	Grade 9-10			Grade 11-12		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	17.0	21.9	**1.29**	5.6	5.6	**1.00**
Oromiya	16.7	17.1	**1.02**	4.0	3.4	**0.85**
National	18.8	20.1	**1.07**	5.4	5.2	**0.96**

Figure 2.3: 2012/13 NER

Grade-by-Grade Breakdown

To develop an informative picture of the widening of the gender gap with progression through the education system, it is necessary to look at a grade-by-grade breakdown. Graph 2.4 shows the GPI for gross enrolment by grade breakdown. Despite not being a flawless statistic due to assumption error, the changes in GPI can serve as a proxy for the relative dropout rates for boys and girls. Again, the gender parity in Amhara is above the national average and Oromiya performs below it. Both at a national level and in Oromiya we see two common trends; a relatively consistent GPI from grade 1 to grade 8, and a decreasing GPI at each grade from grade 8 to grade 12, representing an ever widening gender gap. In Amhara gender parity improves markedly between grade 1 and grade 5, remaining relatively consistent until grade 9, where GPI is greater than 1 before dramatically declining until grade 12. Thus, more boys are being enrolled than girls from grade 10-12. Therefore we can conclude that across all regions there is marked and increasing gender gap in secondary and preparatory school, with the trend commencing at differing stages; for the national level and Oromiya, this trend begins between grade 8 and 9, whereas in Amhara this trend manifests itself a year later.

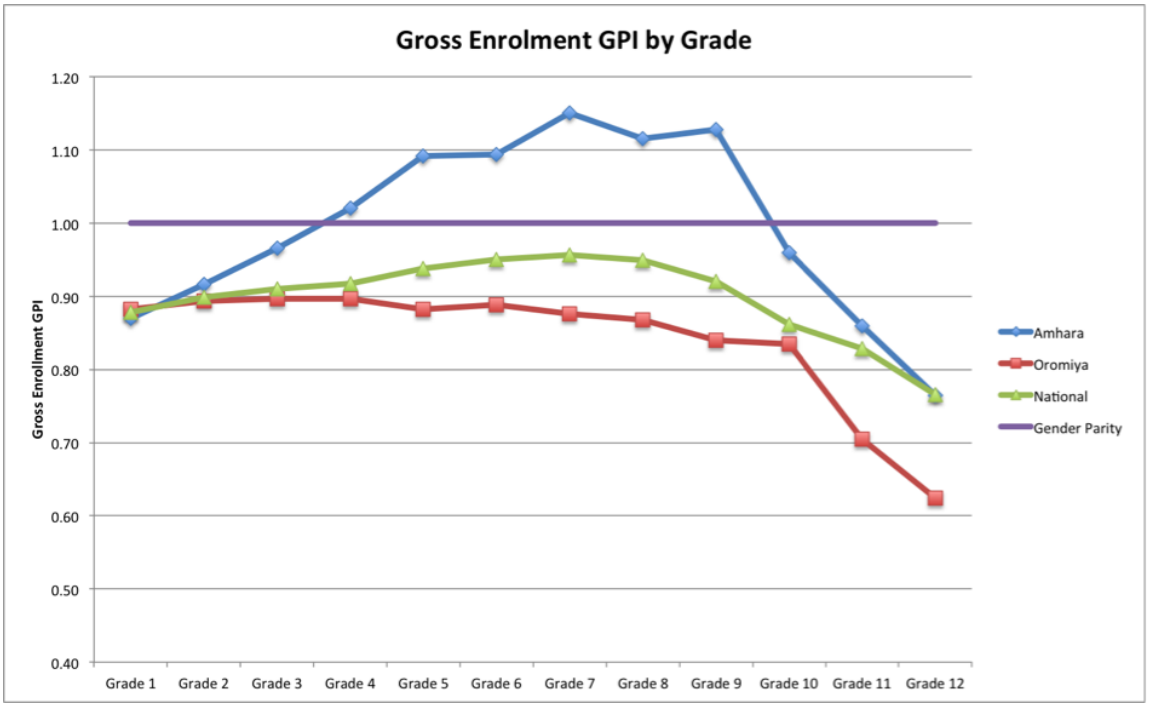

Figure 2.4: Gross Enrolment GPI by Grade

Urban and Rural Differences

Both regional and national data sets are also categorised by area; urban and rural so any similarities or differences between areas in each region can be analysed and compared to the complete data set.

Within urban areas, the national, Amhara and Oromiya data shows a similar trend to the complete data set. However, the GPI at the start of Grade 1 in urban areas is higher than the complete data set. In Amhara, we still see higher enrolment for girls compared to boys until grade 9, and then for the consequent years, there is a dramatic decline in gender parity. Nationally and for Oromiya, the gender parity is fairly constant from grade 1-8, followed by an exaggerated decline in gender parity during secondary and preparatory school.

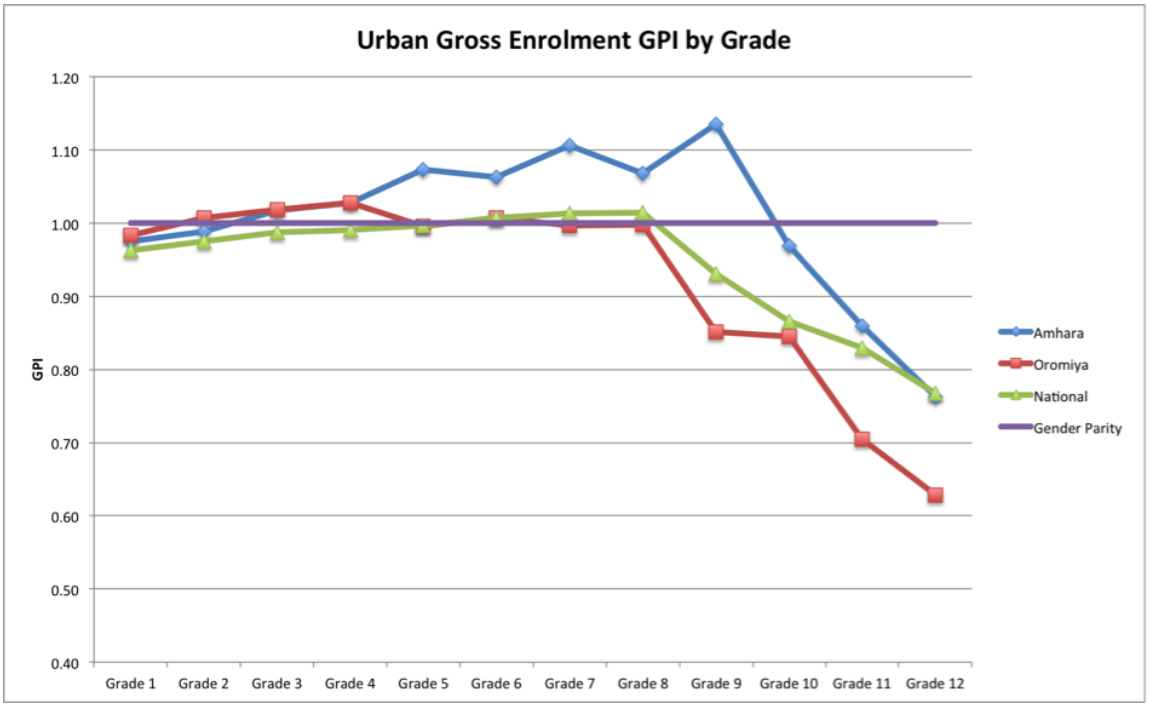

Figure 2.5: Urban Gross Enrolment GPI by Grade

The rural trends are very similar to the overall trends, with the national trend barely changing. In rural Amhara, the trend is the similar to the overall Amhara trend, up to grade 8, however there is a fall in the gender gap between grades 8 and 9, which is one year earlier than in urban areas. There is then an improvement in gender gap to again favour girls at preparatory level, however this data set is small so we should be wary of inferences. In Oromiya the trend is the same in rural areas as in the overall Oromiya data, however there is a wider gender gap at all stages of education.

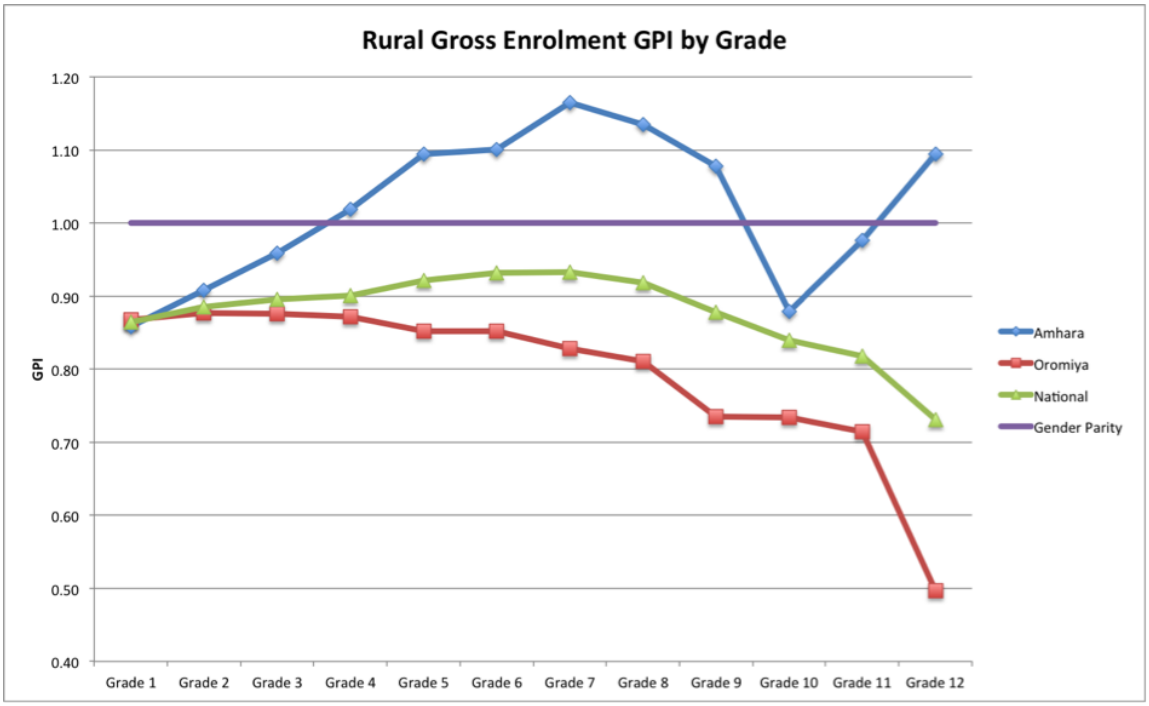

Figure 2.6: Rural Gross Enrolment GPI by Grade

Attainment Data

Finally, it is important to not only analyse enrolment data, but also performance data broken down by sex, as it is reasonable to assume that attainment at school is a major contributing factor in retention, dropout and enrolment statistics. It has already been observed that dropout rates for boys and girls at primary level are similar, and this is reflected in the grade 8 completion rates as shown below. The completion rates are similar for boys and girls at a national level, however at regional level, Amhara has a greater proportion of girls completing primary education, compared to Oromiya where a higher proportion of boys do so.

Grade 8 Completion Rate %	Male	Female
Amhara	53.2	60.5
Oromiya	46.3	40.7
National	53.4	52.2

Figure 2.7: Grade 8 Completion Rates

A more specific measure of attainment at grade 8 is the proportion of boys and girls who pass the grade 8 regional exam and are promoted to secondary school. The table below shows that in 2012/13 at a national level, in Amhara and Oromiya the percentage of students promoted is similar for both males and females. This suggests that there is not a gender gap in attainment terms in primary school.

Amhara	M	M%	F	F%	T
Registered	123630	**47.26**	137953	**52.74**	261583
Exam Taken	118190	**95.60**	129293	**93.72**	247483
Promoted	96319	**81.50**	106918	**82.69**	203237
Dropped Out	5440	**4.40**	8660	**6.28**	14100
Promotion/Registered		**77.91**		**77.50**	
Oromiya	M	M%	F	F%	T
Registered	178998	**53.53**	155391	**46.47**	334389
Exam Taken	168237	**93.99**	148288	**95.43**	316525
Promoted	158009	**93.92**	140759	**94.92**	298768
Dropped Out	10761	**6.01**	7103	**4.57**	17864
Promotion/Registered		**88.27**		**90.58**	
National	M	M%	F	F%	T
Registered	555645	**50.00**	555645	**50.00**	1111290
Exam Taken	523887	**94.28**	501163	**90.19**	1025050
Promoted	432107	**82.48**	407167	**81.24**	839274
Dropped Out	31758	**5.72**	54482	**9.81**	86240
Promotion/Registered		**77.77**		**73.28**	

Figure 2.8: Grade 8 Promotion Rates

However, when the results of the grade 10 examinations are studied, there is clear evidence of a gender gap in attainment. Nationally and in both regions, more male students are registered to take the exam than females and the percentage of male students who achieve the pass mark of 2.00 on their GPA is 15-20% more than the percentage of female students. Failure to meet this pass mark prevents students from enrolling in preparatory school. These results help to explain the widening gender gap in enrolment, between secondary and preparatory school.

Amhara	M	M%	F	F%	T
Registered	96293	**52.06**	88655	**47.94**	184948
Exam Taken	93084	**96.67**	86458	**97.52**	179542
Promoted (GPA ≥ 2.00)	67287	**72.29**	46463	**53.74**	113750
Dropped Out	3209	**3.33**	2197	**2.48**	5406
Promotion/Registered		**69.88**		**52.41**	
Oromiya	M	M%	F	F%	T
Registered	140694	**56.20**	109640	**43.80**	250334
Exam Taken	132774	**94.37**	105272	**96.02**	238046
Promoted (GPA ≥ 2.00)	90732	**68.34**	52519	**49.89**	143251
Dropped Out	7920	**5.63**	4368	**3.98**	12288
Promotion/Registered		**64.49**		**47.90**	
National	M	M%	F	F%	T
Registered	436317	**55.57**	348863	**44.43**	785180
Exam Taken	417941	**95.79**	338696	**97.09**	756637
Promoted (GPA ≥ 2.00)	283783	**67.90**	179478	**52.99**	463261
Dropped Out	18376	**4.21**	10167	**2.91**	28543
Promotion/Registered		**65.04**		**51.45**	

Figure 2.9: Grade 10 Promotion Rates

Conclusions

In respect to gross enrolment we can draw some fairly sound conclusions about the nature of the gender gap in Ethiopia. Nationally there is a gender gap at all levels of the education system, however this gap widens significantly after the completion of primary school. The small gender gap at primary school has been consistent for grades 1-4, and slightly narrowed between grades 5-8 from 2008/9 to 2012/13. The gender gap at secondary and preparatory level has also narrowed over this period. In Oromiya there is also a gender gap at all levels of the education system, however in Amhara the gender gap is only really apparent at preparatory school.

Both nationally and in Oromiya we see a significant widening of the gender gap between grades 8 and 9, however in Amhara this widening occurs a grade later between grade 9 and 10. In urban areas in all regions there is less of a gender gap than in rural areas at all stages of education. In urban areas nationally and in Oromiya we see a significant widening of the gender gap between grade 8 and grade 9, whereas in Amhara again this widening comes a grade later. However in rural areas, both nationally and in all regions this gap widens between grade 8 and 9. The smaller gender gap in relation to net enrolment as opposed to gross enrolment suggests that the gender gap is greater in relation to overage students

compared to those progressing through the system at the correct age.

The equal promotion rates of boys and girls at grade 8 suggest that little gap in attainment in primary school. However in secondary there is clear evidence of an attainment gap as shown by the grade 10 promotion rates.

2.4 Framing the Study

A combination of the statistical evidence and other secondary research has informed the nature of the study. It has identified the nature of the gender gap in the education system, and informed which barriers to female education this report seeks to gain a better understanding of.

The statistical evidence suggests that one main area that the investigation should focus on is the transition between primary school (grade 8) and secondary school (grade 9). All areas except urban Amhara show a widening of the gender gap at this stage of the education system. The equality of achievement at primary school suggests that this is not a factor for girls in determining enrolment in secondary school, and thus suggests that external pressures are responsible for greater dropout of girls than boys in this transition. However, this study does recognise that there is not statistical evidence for this particular problem in urban Amhara.

A problem that is common nationally, and in both Oromiya and Amhara, in urban and rural areas alike, is the higher dropout of both girls compared to boys in secondary school. This report seeks to understand what the differences are between primary and secondary school that cause this higher dropout rate in secondary school. Whilst some girls may enrol in secondary school, they may encounter greater problems than boys, forcing them to dropout. The large attainment gap between boys and girls at secondary school is also worthy of further investigation. Not only may this explain higher female dropout during secondary school, it may also help to explain the further widening of the gender gap at preparatory school level.

The statistics also show that at all levels of education there is a greater gender gap in rural areas compared to urban areas. Some secondary research supports this and suggests that the rural problem is not only different in scope but also in nature. This report seeks to understand this difference better.

According to the Ministry of Education in Ethiopia women's participation in education is constrained by economic, socio-cultural, familial, personal and school factors. These three areas provide the framework for the chief areas of investigation. Within these three categories, cost, traditional labour divisions in the home, school distance, harassment and lack of confidence, early marriage and abduction are all mentioned by the government as

barriers to female education.[13] Further secondary research on barriers to female education is explored in the analysis section of this study.

[13]Federal Ministry of Education, Education Sector Development Program IV 2010/1011-1014/1015 (August 2010, Addis Ababa) p. 69

Chapter 3

Method and Limitations

The main research strategies adopted were review and analysis of: existing literature, previous studies, national educational statistics and both quantitative and qualitative information collected during fieldwork. Fieldwork consisted of the collection of information through questionnaires and focus groups were conducted with selected stakeholders.

3.1 Method

3.1.1 Literature Review

Selected literature, both international and national, relevant to girls' education in Ethiopia was studied. This included previous studies on girls' education, documents produced by international organisations and national ministries on educational development, as well as national educational statistics. The purpose of the review was firstly, to determine the existence of and the extent and nature of the problem of gender disparity in education in Ethiopia. Secondly, the aim was to collect information about what is already known about the barriers to girls' education. It helped inform the design of our qualitative fieldwork in both content and sample. Secondary research was also integrated into the analysis.

3.1.2 Qualitative Fieldwork

The research conducted during the literature review process laid the basis for the design of the qualitative fieldwork. The purpose of the fieldwork was to gain a more detailed and nuanced understanding of the barriers to female education, especially as they bear upon girls' retention and attainment in secondary school.

Questionnaires

Questionnaires were developed and distributed to female and male students, parents and teachers. They were distributed to five Link Ethiopia primary schools in the northern Amhara region and four in the southern Oromyia region. The questionnaires were given to 30 girls and 10 boys in grade 8 in each school. The boys' sample was smaller as the information was only intended as a point of comparison for the girls. 120 parents were given the questionnaires, 60 from the Amhara region and 60 from the Oromyia region. 2-3 parents/guardians from each family were selected. The parents were not selected based on their relationship with the female and male students, they were a random sample from the region. 4 teachers from each school were also given questionnaires. The results from the Link Ethiopia questionnaires were studied and used to inform our focus groups. They also informed a substantive part of the analysis.

Focus Groups

In the context of this information a decision was made to conduct focus groups with all stakeholders, female and male students, parents and teachers. Focus groups were conducted at a rural Link Ethiopia primary school, as the problem appeared more pronounced in rural areas. The sample that was requested was grades 8-9. This represents the last year of primary school and the first year of secondary school. This sample was requested because secondary research shows aggravated gender disparity moving up the educational ladder and in rural schools an exaggerated decrease in gender parity is detected between grade 8 and 9. However, as the focus group was conducted during summer holidays the lack of availability of students meant that our grade sample was changed. The girls' focus group consisted of 14 girls ranging from grades 5-8. The boys' focus group consisted of 13 boys ranging from grades 5-8. 9 parents and 5 teachers were present during the parent/teacher focus group.

The results from the Link Ethiopia questionnaires also informed the focus group questions that were devised. Some questions were aimed at gaining a better understanding of the areas in which distinctive trends were discernible. Others were aimed at clarifying areas, which the questionnaires failed to sufficiently answer. Most of the questions were open-ended and encouraged the stakeholders to share personal opinions and experiences.

Each focus group was conducted with one speaker/communicator, one note taker and one consultant. An attempt was made to create an environment in which the stakeholders felt comfortable to speak freely. The focus groups were carried out on the school premises. An informal approach was used and refreshments were provided. Only females were present during the girls' focus group and only males were present during the boys' focus group. Teachers and parents were grouped together in one focus group, however certain ques-

tions were directed at them separately. A prepared document with questions was used to guide the focus groups. The focus groups were used to provide greater nuance to the analysis.

3.2 Limitations

3.2.1 Time Restraints

The study is hoped to contribute to the preparation of a new Link Ethiopia project aimed at helping girls in education. This has meant working within the time limit for the commencement of the girls' education project. All stages of the process of the study were therefore affected by time constraints. Time constraints especially affected the amount of time that was able to be dedicated to qualitative fieldwork, in particular the number of focus groups that were conducted.

3.2.2 Data Collection

There remains uncertainty surrounding some of the quantitative data collected through questionnaires. There is reason to question the accuracy of the numerical information supplied by some of the schools as the numbers provided seemed at times like mere estimates rather than accurately recorded information. This data was therefore discarded.

An attempt was made to collect statistics from the four woreda education offices where Link Ethiopia operates in Amhara. However, there was no consistent availability of information between woredas and therefore this data was discounted. In spite of this it was noted that the anecdotal data collected was consistent with the Amhara data from the Educational Statistics Annual Abstract.

There are therefore reservations as to the usefulness of this data and is as such, not heavily relied upon in the report. Detailed statistical data on education has been collected by previous government initiatives. It was considered useful and efficient to treat our own data collection efforts as supplementary to these resources.

3.2.3 Qualitative Fieldwork

Questionnaires were distributed to a limited number of students in a limited number of schools. Although the schools selected only represent a small number of the schools Link Ethiopia works with, the limited sample was considered necessary taking into consideration the size of the areas in which Link schools are located. A more extensive exercise would

have been expensive in terms of time, financial and human resources. Studies have been done on girls' education in Ethiopia by other organisations and much has been written about it through local government initiatives. It was considered useful and efficient to supplement our research with these resources.

Regarding the qualitative information collected through questionnaires, an attempt was made to design open-ended questions, which would bring about uninfluenced answers. However, due to the age group questioned and the nature of the subject discussed, example answers were at times necessary as a means of clarification. This can have meant that some answers were less personally reflected. It is also possible that the exact meaning of certain responses was slightly altered in the process of translation from Amharic to English.

Time and resources could not be allocated to extensive travelling for the purpose of focus groups. Therefore only the Gondar area in Amhara was within reasonable reach for this activity. Statistics indicate that the problem of gender disparity in education is much more pronounced in the Oromiya region whereas there is much less of a problem in Amhara. Conducting a focus group in Oromyia was not possible. It is noted that this can impact the relevance of the qualitative information collected from the focus groups. The focus groups took place in the beginning of July. Schools are closed during this time because of summer holidays, which meant that it was very difficult to get in contact with students, parents and teachers. This was a contributing factor in the decision to only undertake focus groups in one school. The timing also made it very difficult to get the exact school grades that were requested. The compromise made was to accept a wider grade range in order to ensure a large enough sample.

The focus groups were conducted in Amharic and later translated into English. This means that the exact meaning of some of the responses might have been slightly altered in the process of translation.

Chapter 4

Barriers to Girls' Education

4.1 Economic Factors

It is generally understood that Ethiopia still faces several challenges in relation to poverty. 'Ethiopia started the fight against poverty from very high levels with close to 49.5% of the total population under the poverty line in 1994/95' [1], however this figure currently stands at 30.7%[2], showing that some progress has been made in this area. Needless to say these limited resources have an impact on the Ethiopian education budget. Ethiopia spends 17.2% of its national budget on education; the target being 19% for 2004/05 [3]. However, 'While this is quite a high proportion, still poverty and high population mean that this translates into less than a dollar per child per year' .[4] Poverty and lack of resources is the context to Ethiopia's educational challenges, and gender inequality is one of these. Poverty impacts on all aspects of the education system in Ethiopia and 'poverty is a major cause of insufficient schools, shortages of textbooks, hesitation or unwillingness of parents to send their children to school and government's budgetary limits all contribute to these

[1] Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 'Ethiopia: 2010 MDGs Report, Trends and Prospects for Meeting MDGs by 2015' (September 2010, Addis Ababa) p.5

[2] *www.unicef.org/infobycountry/ethiopia_statistics.html*

[3] Ministry of Education, Ethiopia, 'Education Sector Development Program II (2002/3 - 2004/2005): Joint Review Mission Report', (2003, Addis Ababa)

[4] Karin Hyde, Dehab Belay, Asegedech Beyene, Anbesu Biazen, Nuri Kedir, 'Taking Stock of Girls Education in Ethiopia: Preparing for ESDP III' (2005) UNICEF, UNESCO and Save the Children Alliance, p.15

impediments'.[5]

4.1.1 Financial Means

The lack of a financial means to send children to school in Ethiopia affects a significant proportion of families, and affects both boys and girls. Despite the fact the schooling is free, families encounter other costs such as stationery, uniform, and reference books. The cost of educational materials is one of the barriers to education for many poor parents. It is frequently quoted as a cause for school dropout.[6] It is suggested that in parts of Oromiya, there are many poor parents who cannot afford stationery and clothing for their children, even if they would like to send them to school.[7] Link Ethiopia questionnaires supported this, with 28% of parents answering at a score of over 90/100, that costs prevented schooling for their children.

There is a general sense that this problem is greater in rural areas compared to urban ones as, 'Poverty and large family sizes are interwoven in rural areas. Parents with large families do not send all their children to school'.[8] In reference to the same scale, 16% of rural children felt that costs impacted on their schooling, compared to 8% in urban schools. The transition from secondary to primary school also has financial implications for families as many children have to move away from home to attend and this bears accommodation costs.[9]

However, issues of poverty only become critical to gender equality in education when combined with backwards attitudes, leading to priority given to boys in education as suggested in ESDP IV. The report also suggests that this problem is more serious in rural areas.[10] Yet, Link Ethiopia questionnaires found that both girls (11%) and boys (12%), felt that costs impacted on their own education, using the same scale mentioned above. (See Appendix B.3 and B.4).

[5] Ibid, p.35
[6] Ibid, p.15
[7] Ibid, p.21
[8] Ibid, p.21
[9] bid, p.24
[10] Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, Ministry of Education, Education Sector Development Program IV 2010/1011-1014/1015 (August 2010, Addis Ababa) p.69

4.1.2 Cost of Educational Materials

One educational cost is school uniform, which is understood to be more expensive for girls than it is for boys. [11] In spite of this, data from Link Ethiopia questionnaires shows that only 33% of girls suggested that financial support for uniform would be helpful, compared to 52% of boys. It is also suggested that 'In many woredas the textbook shortages were observed in some classrooms, affecting girls more than boys (perhaps because parents give preference to boys)' .[12] However, Link Ethiopia questionnaire research found that only 41% of girls felt that financial aid for subject books would be beneficial, compared to 58% of boys. Whilst this may be a matter of perception, this seems to contradict the idea that families in schools where Link Ethiopia operates resource boys better with educational materials than girls. Link Ethiopia focus groups also suggested that both boys and girls felt equally supported/unsupported by their families in terms of provision of educational materials.

However in relation to accommodation costs associated with the transition to secondary school, it was alluded to that the increased distance to walk was manageable for boys, however girls would need to find accommodation nearer the school, increasing the cost of female education in relation to males.

4.1.3 Child Labour

Another potential impact of poverty on education is the requirement of children to take part in income generating activities to support the family income. Lexow notes that child labour is in high demand, both inside and outside the home, nation-wide whatever the diverse forms of economic activity.[13] Coffee production, gold digging, and pastoralism were identified as modes of production that demanded a lot of child labour. According to the Child Labour Survey Report 2001 (prepared by the Ethiopian Central Statistics Authority and ILO), 49.03% of children aged 5-14 are engaged in productive work outside the home and work on average 3 to 4 hours per week. Two-thirds of these working children do not attend school and 92% remain unpaid. [14]

[11] Karin Hyde, Dehab Belay, Asegedech Beyene, Anbesu Biazen, Nuri Kedir, 'Taking Stock of Girls Education in Ethiopia: Preparing for ESDP III' (2005) UNICEF, UNESCO and Save the Children Alliance, p.25

[12] Ibid, p.21

[13] Lexow.Janne. 2003. Gender Issues in Education in Ethiopia.

[14] Taking Stock of Girls Education in Ethiopia: Preparing for ESDP III, p.15

'The problem of child labour is more pronounced in rural areas, particularly in reference to the renting out of children for farming. It is a common practice for parents in rural areas to earn money through child labour and the practices concern children from poor families, rented out to herd cattle for wealthier families, who send their own children to school. The practice is unfair, because the children from poor families are denied the opportunity to go to school'.[15] However it is unclear whether child labour impacts more on girls or boys, as according to Link Ethiopia questionnaires a similar proportion of girls (36%) and boys (39%) said that compensation for lost income would support their education. Moreover, girls face a heavy burden of chores within the home, and this should also be accounted for. Labour that is income-generating should be considered within the context of this wider definition of work. A fuller discussion of the burden of work is found under 'cultural factors', as the division of work between the sexes is not simply an economic problem, but is socially conditioned and reflective of cultural attitudes.

4.1.4 Labour Market Opportunities

Another reason that is attributed to the educational gender gap is the lack of labour market opportunities for females. A lack of labour opportunities represents a disincentive to investment in schooling, and for girls there is a lack of formal employment opportunities after school.[16] This may also be exaggerated in rural areas as jobs are likely to be concentrated in urban areas, however this may be equally true for both boys and girls.

Data from urban areas fully supports the notion that there are more labour market opportunities for boys than girls. Nationally the labour force participation rate is significantly higher for males (67.9%) than for females (53.5%), and this gap is reflected in Amhara (68.0%, 55.1%) and Oromiya (69.3%, 53.7%), and the unemployment rate nationally is 11.4% for males, and 25.3% for females. A similar gap persists in Oromiya (8.3%, 21.0%) and Amhara (12.6%, 26.1%). Moreover, nationally, youth unemployment is 16.6% for boys and 31.6% for girls. Even within the workforce, formal employment opportunities are far greater for males, nationally 28.0% of males in work, work in the informal sector, compared to 48.4% of the female working population. In high socio-economic jobs, only 20% of 'Legislator Senior Officials' are female and only 33% of 'Professional, Technical and Associate Professionals' are female.[17] This shows that at all levels there is a gender gap in the labour market, even more so for jobs with high socio-economic status, and this serves as a strong

[15] ibid, p21
[16] ibid, p15
[17] Key Findings On 'The 2011 Urban Employment Unemployment Survey

disincentive to females investing in their education.

Without a doubt, poverty is certainly the context in which barriers to education in Ethiopia take place for a significant proportion of the population. However, within the localities and schools that Link Ethiopia works in there was little to suggest that the direct impact of poverty on education was significantly greater for girls than boys. However, any potential intervention should be understood in the context of the limited resources of both families and schools. The gender gap in the labour market helps to explain the gender gap in education due to the smaller returns to education for girls. This may therefore limit the long-term aspirations of girls in education and affect their motivation to remain and perform in education.

4.2 Cultural Factors

4.2.1 Attitudes Towards Girls' Education

According to an Analysis of the Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey of 2005, women in Ethiopia suffer from low socio-economic status. Gender differences persist at all levels of society. Education, employment, private life, media access and decision-making at regional and government level, are some of the major areas marked by gender differences. Women also face exposure to harmful traditional practices such as Female Genital mutilation (FGM), abduction and early marriage. In Ethiopia:

- 74% of women have undergone FGM[18]
- 41% of girls are married before they are 18[19]
- 8% of all married women have been abducted into marriage[20]
- 68% of women believe their husbands have a right to beat them[21]

[18]Statistics from UNICEF, $< http : //www.unicef.org/infobycountry/ethiopia_statistics.html >$ accessed 5 August 2014

[19]ibid

[20]Central Statistical Agency (Ethiopia) and ORC Macro, Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey 2005 (Addis Ababa, Ethiopia and Calverton, Maryland, USA, 2006)

[21]Central Statistical Agency (Ethiopia) and ORC Macro, Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey 2011(Addis Ababa, Ethiopia and Calverton, Maryland, USA, 2012)

- 59% of women have experienced sexual violence from a partner[22]
- Among students enrolled in government institutions for a 2 or 3 year diploma program, only 16,2% are women[23]

Traditional attitudes towards gender roles are manifest in the socialisation process of many young boys and girls. Certain traditional values are so entrenched in society that, although outward rhetoric may imply that traditional attitudes have been overturned, this does not mean that this has been fully internalised. According to an MDG progress report produced by the Ethiopian Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, addressing gender equality and empowering women is an ongoing challenge in Ethiopia. This is because of the deep-rooted nature of the challenge, which depends on changing the attitudes and cultural values of the society. 'These types of changes take a significant amount of time to evolve and bring society's consciousness to one level of understanding.'[24] As Ethiopia is a large country with diverse populations, cultures and traditions, it must be noted that there are significant differences in attitudes towards girls' education. Differences in attitude can also be manifest in the urban/rural divide.

With this said, the results derived from the questionnaires indicate that girls, boys as well as parents did not express these traditional values towards girls' education and the role of women in society. Boys and girls alike attach much value to their education. In general both boys and girls expressed an intention to continue their education in the near future as well as expressing prospects for attending preparatory school and university. Quite consistently parents also seem to highly value the importance of educating their children, boys and girls alike (see Appendix

The vast majority of girls expressed ambitious life aspirations, such as getting a job, being educated and helping their family and country. Many girls mentioned a wish to enter specific professions such as medicine, engineering or journalism. Parents, in general, also seemed to express ambitions for their sons and daughters alike to succeed in life through receiving a good education and attaining a job. Many parents said they wanted their sons as well as daughters to be successful in whatever job they wish to pursue. Only a very few, anomalous answers expressed any gender bias.

[22]UN Women, 2011-12 Progress of the World's Women, (UN Women 2011) < *http* : *//progress.unwomen.org* >

[23]ESDP, p. 70

[24]Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, Ministry of Finance and Economic Development, 'Ethiopia: 2010 MDGs Report, Trends and Prospects for Meeting MDGs by 2015 (September 2010 Addis Ababa) p. 20

However, notably 79% of the girls and 79% of the boys were of the opinion that it is more difficult for girls than for boys to succeed and progress in education. The reasons given for this was a mixture of socio-cultural factors, which indicates a level of understanding of the gender differences in society. Both boys and girls also expressed an understanding of the benefits of educating girls. The trend does not show an attitude that male education is more beneficial than female education. Opinions of the benefits of educating girls included, important for the country's development, for women's economic self-sufficiency, for families and for gender equality. Parents were also asked about male or female priority when it comes to education and the vast majority of parents prioritised equally the education of their male and female children. A few answers gave priority to the female. A general sense of gender awareness can be deduced from this. There were no conclusive indications that there was a rural/urban divide on this issue.

With the number of government initiatives dedicated to education and female empowerment, it is not unexpected that gender awareness is being taught in school and certain values have spread to communities. However, on further investigation of attitudes towards girls' education through focus groups in a rural school, a slightly more nuanced picture is detected.

Girls and boys were asked what they understood by the term gender inequality. In general this term was understood as females being inferior to males and females and males having set roles in society. However, the girls seemed to be of the opinion that this was more a problem of the past. One girl said, 'nowadays, in schools, civic and ethical education is being given so I think this will decrease gender inequality in the country.' One boy stated that in school, boys and girls are equal. There seemed to be general consensus among the boys that the education of their sisters is equally important to their own. 11 out of the 14 girls expressed an intention to go to university. There seemed to be a general consensus among the girls that to work was an ambition and priority in life. They expressed an intention to continue working even after marriage. These opinions reinforce the trends detected from the questionnaires. There is not a lack of aspiration among the girls. However, it was expressed that rather than themselves it is their families who make choices about their education.

The attitudes of the parents in the focus group, although varied and inconsistent, indicate a shift from the questionnaire trend, which shows equal dedication to the education of girls and boys. Parents, although recognising this as a problem, stated that girls spend more time out of school and studies because of household chores. There was an attitude of acceptance toward the fact that traditionally, most household chores are performed by girls. One parent stated, 'Girls spend their time on chores rather than in school. We know this is inappropriate but culturally, boys do not want to do domestic chores, so the only option is to give the chores to girls'. Another agreed; 'Dividing chores is easy but since the girls respect what parents tell them, the burden falls on them.' One teacher expressed

that 'The community is half-hearted about teaching girls ... and still much has to be done to change community awareness.'

These findings provide some support for the conclusions that previous studies have made regarding the attitude of parents to their daughters' education. According to an analysis done of the Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey of 2005, parents do not believe that girls' education is as useful as boys'. There is an attitude that the goal for women is to get married and care for their families. Young girls are expected to share the workload of their mothers at home, which lead to school absences and dropping out of school. This study found that in most societies girls' main role is thought to be learning household activities and taking care of the family rather than going to school. This was particularly found to be the case in rural communities.[25] Especially in rural areas the lack of labour market opportunities can be contributing to the attitude that girls' education is not useful.[26]

Boys and girls, although they express an awareness of the challenges facing girls in education, do not seem to share the belief that society should be characterised by traditional gender roles. They are taught in school that the education of boys and girls are of equal value and this young generation seems on a whole, determined to counter backwards attitudes. It appears that the attitudinal resistance to girls' education, in varying degrees, is coming from the older generation; the parents and families.

4.2.2 Household Chores

In Ethiopia, children are expected to help support and contribute to their families in their everyday life. Traditionally, girls help out with household chores such as cooking, cleaning, fetching water and looking after children, while boys help out primarily with farming. Studies point to this being a contributing factor to the absence and dropout of girls from school.[27]

[25] Ethiopian Society of Population Studies, 'Gender Inequality and Women's Empowerment: In-depth Analysis of the Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey 2005' (October 2008, Addis Ababa) p. 33-34

[26] Karin Hyde, Dehab Belay, Asegedech Beyene, Anbesu Biazen, Nuri Kedir, 'Taking Stock of Girls Education in Ethiopia: Preparing for ESDP III' (2005) UNICEF, UNESCO and Save the Children Alliance, 15

[27] Ethiopian Society of Population Studies, 'Gender Inequality and Women's Empowerment: In-depth Analysis of the Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey 2005' (October 2008, Addis Ababa)

Are girls doing more chores than boys? An analysis of numerical data from questionnaires

Link Ethiopia questionnaires asked girls and boys to state how many minutes they spend per day performing various tasks at home, such as cooking, cleaning, childcare, water collecting and farming. The results were compiled into graphs disaggregated by school and gender. Urban and rural schools were also kept separate for further analysis of this factor.

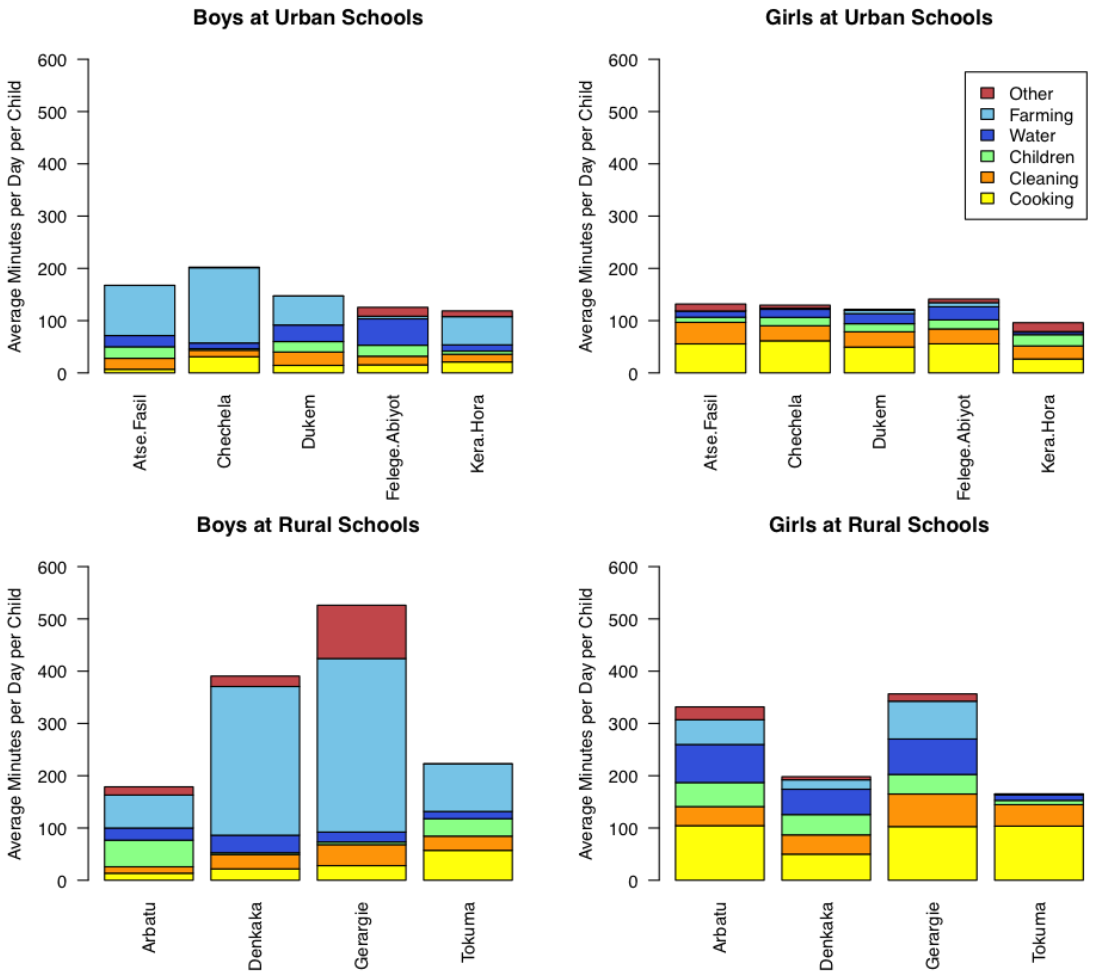

Figure 4.1: Time Spent on Chores by Area, School and Sex

Urban Schools

• **Girls** The graph shows a quite a steady trend between schools among girls. A relatively moderate amount of time is spent on tasks in total. Cooking and cleaning appears to be the most time consuming task, amounting to approximately 120 minutes per day. Hardly any time is devoted to farming.

• **Boys** Also for the boys, the graph shows quite a steady trend between schools. Farming takes up a disproportionate amount of time when compared to the other chores.

• **Comparison** When farming is included in the assessment of the boys, the amount of time boys spend on chores is on par with the girls. However, when excluded, they are spending significantly less time than the girls.

Rural Schools

• **Girls** The graphs show great variations between the rural schools when comparing the total amount of time spent on chores. Girls except from Tokuma are contributing to farming. The amount of time spent on chores is notably high in Arbatu and Gerargie, amounting to over 300 minutes per day, around 5 hours. Cooking appears to be the most time consuming chore.

• **Boys** The rural boys have the largest quantity and greatest range between schools in this area of our research. Farming dominates in comparison to the other chores. Especially in Gerargie and Denkaka a very large amount of time is spent on farming, more than 300 minutes per day, around 5 hours.

• **Comparison** In total, boys are spending more time on chores than girls, except for in Arbatu. However, if farming were to be excluded from the assessment of the boys, the girls would be spending significantly more time on chores than boys.

Conclusions

In general, both boys and girls are spending significantly more time on chores in rural schools compared to urban schools. For rural girls the average time ranges between 200 and 300 minutes per day, which differs from the rural boys, whose range is larger; their average time ranges from under 200 in Arbatu to over 500 in Gerargie.

There are some similarities between Urban and Rural schools in comparing the differences between genders. In general, girls do less farming than boys. For the boys, farming is the most time consuming activity in all schools, except for Felege Abiyot. Nevertheless, the

girls also spend some time on farming in rural schools, in addition to cooking, cleaning, childcare and water fetching.

Overall, despite the big differences between all individual schools, the graphs show that generally boys and girls in rural areas are spending more time on chores than boys and girls in urban areas. Boys are spending more time in total on chores than girls. However, if farming were to be excluded from the assessment, boys would be spending significantly less time on chores than girls.

Are chores affecting schooling?

Our focus groups with girls and boys in Gerargie School shed more light on how chores affect the lives of young boys and girls. Four girls expressed that they spend most of their time doing chores. One estimated 6-7 hours per day, another stated over 6 hours. Interestingly one girl said that her brothers do not spend their time on tasks. She said that when her brothers are keeping cattle, this actually allows them free time to study in the field. This suggests that in terms of how chores affect schooling, the home tasks such as cooking, cleaning and fetching water are more disruptive. Farming, although time consuming might not require the full attention of the boys at all times. Some of this time might be considered free time.

As stated above, if farming was excluded from the assessment the graphs would show that girls are spending more time on chores than boys. Cooking, cleaning and water fetching are all activities, which require full attention and energy. This could mean that girls' chores are more disruptive to their education as they have less time to study. It can also mean that girls are generally more exhausted than boys from doing their chores, which can impact on their energy and concentration in school. Statements made in the boys' focus group reinforce this inference. When asked whether they spend as much time working as their sisters, one boy stated, 'Girls spend more time, as girls also work during the night.' Another boy stated that boys have more free time than girls.

Qualitative information from the Link Ethiopia questionnaires supplements these findings. Out of the 211 girls that were of the opinion that it was more difficult for girls than boys to succeed in education, 68 girls gave domestic chores as a reason for this. This is about one third of the answers. The vast majority of boys were also of the opinion that it was more difficult for girls to succeed in education, however a variety of socio-cultural reasons were given and domestic chores did not stand out as a particularly recurrent answer.

Notably, there did not appear to be conclusive differences between the number of school days missed between boys and girls in a particular month. Both boys and girls were asked to give reasons for missing school and the results show more boys in proportion to their sample, giving work at home as a reason for missing school, although it was mentioned by

both boys and girls. One reasons may be that farming at times requires attention during school time, while traditional girls' chores more easily takes place before and after school time. Overall, however, neither boys nor girls reported particularly high numbers of missed school days.

This suggests that chores and family work, if affecting schooling, is affecting the well being and performance of girls during school time rather than school attendance. It is affecting the amount of time spent on studying outside of school and their energy levels when in school.

All parents in the Southern Oromiya region were of the opinion that it was more difficult for girls to succeed in education, while in Amhara most were of the opinion that it was equally difficult for both. Among the Oromiya parents, 11 out of 60 mentioned household chores as a reason for why success in education was more difficult for girls. Parents were also asked to rate whether it was more important for their children to do tasks or go to school. They were asked to rate this on a scale from 0-100.

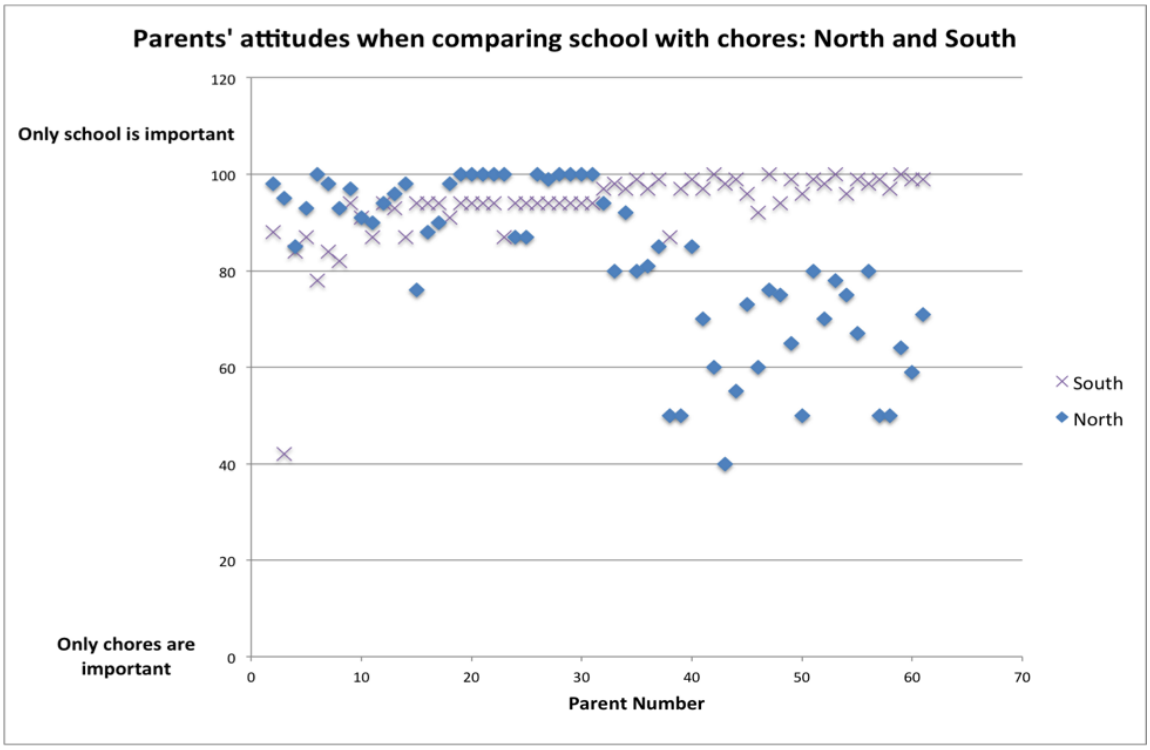

Figure 4.2: Parents' Attitudes when Comparing School with Chores: North and South

In general the graph shows that parents do consider it more important for their children

to go to school than perform tasks. Most answers range between 80 and 100. However, a considerably large number of responses range between 40 and 80, which is relatively low. This is especially among the parents from the Northern region. This suggests that in certain families chores are given stronger priority and at times outweighs the children's education.

The Performance of Chores In Connection with Economic Factors

There can be a variety of reasons why chores are given stronger priority in certain families. The economic factor can be one main reason. Children's contribution to family work can also be considered as an economic activity and as such may affect disproportionately children in families of lower income.

It is difficult to classify different types of work as economic or otherwise, as child work and economic factors are often indirectly linked. Some children simply work to generate additional income for the family while others might be contributing to facilitating economic income by doing chores. For other families children doing chores does not amount to more than a reasonable contribution to the family's everyday life.

Qualitative studies on child work on the Ethiopian Rural Household Survey[28] and the ILO 2001 Child Labour Survey[29] finds a high number of children are involved in work. According to a Young Lives study in 2005, 52 per cent of children between 5 and 17 are involved in paid or unpaid work and a much higher proportion do significant amounts of chores. The proportion of children of primary school age who work is much higher in rural than urban areas and much higher among lower income parents.[30]

It is therefore reasonable to infer from this that child work and chores as a disruption to education is likely to be a bigger problem in rural than in urban areas and in poorer or larger families.

[28] Admassie, A., 'Child Labour and Schooling in the Context of a Subsistence Rural Economy: Can They Be Compatible"(2002) International Journal of Educational Development 23, 167-85

[29] Guarcello, L. And Rosati, F. 'Child Labour and Youth Employment: Ethiopia Country Study'(2007) World Bank Social Protection Working Paper Series 704, 1-74

[30] Tassew, W., et al. Child Labour, Gender Inequality and Rural/Urban Disparities' Young Lives Working Paper 20, 1-70

4.2.3 Early Marriage and Abduction

According to the International Centre for Research on Women (ICRW), Ethiopia ranks among the top 10 countries for child marriage. Child marriage or early marriage is defined as marriage before the age of 18. This practice is most common in poor, rural communities. Most often, child brides are pulled out of school, which deprives them of an education and meaningful work.[31] Abduction is, at its most violent, forcible marriage through kidnapping and rape. It can also take the form of elopement, i.e. when the parents are not in agreement. Although some studies suggest that this practice is decreasing, the violent nature of the practice suggests why it is still considered a prominent barrier to girls' education.[32] According to the 2005 Demographic and Health Survey 8% of all married women have been abducted into marriage.[33]

In Ethiopia the legal age for marriage is 18 years. Article 34 of the Ethiopian Constitution secures matrimonial contractual rights for 'women attaining the legal age of marriage.' It mandates that 'Marriage shall be based on the free and full consent of the intending spouses.'[34]Yet, for various cultural, religious and economic reasons, child marriages are still practiced.

In the study conducted by the Ethiopian Society of Population Studies (a study sponsored by the United Nations Population Fund), early marriage was found to be the single most important reason mentioned in all focus group discussions and interviews with key persons, as to why girls' education is undermined in almost all regions in Ethiopia.[35]

Certain responses from Link Ethiopia questionnaires also flagged this up as a major issue. This is particularly evident from the responses of parents and teachers. Early marriage and abduction was mentioned a few times by girls and boys as a reason why it is more difficult for girls than boys to succeed and progress in education. However, out of 40 teachers, 22 teachers included early marriage or abduction as a main reason why more girls drop out of school than boys. 60 parents were asked the same question and early marriage or

[31]Website of the International Centre for Research on Women, 'Child Marriage' ¡http://www.icrw.org/what-we-do/adolescents/child-marriage¿ accessed 5 August 2014

[32]Karin Hyde, Dehab Belay, Asegedech Beyene, Anbesu Biazen, Nuri Kedir, 'Taking Stock of Girls Education in Ethiopia: Preparing for ESDP III' (2005) UNICEF, UNESCO and Save the Children Alliance, p.11

[33]Central Statistical Agency (Ethiopia) and ORC Macro, Ethiopia Demographic and Health Survey 2005 (Addis Ababa, Ethiopia and Calverton, Maryland, USA, 2006)

[34]Ethiopian Constitution, art 34(2)

[35]Ethiopian Society of Population Studies, 'Gender Inequality and Women's Empowerment: In-depth Analysis of the Ethiopian Demographic and Health Survey 2005' (October 2008, Addis Ababa) p.33

abduction was mentioned 32 times.

The issue was explored further through a focus group with parents and teachers in a rural school outside of Gondar. It was expressed by a parent that early marriage is decreasing when compared to the past. It was mentioned that 6 girls under 18 were married in the community this year, but emphasis was put on the fact that the marriage was based on the consent of both parties. A challenge to this claim was presented by one of the teachers, who said that the 6 girls who got married this year had not consented to the marriage. This suggests that some communities still lack awareness about the harmfulness of early marriage and the importance of girls' education.

The issue of early marriage and abduction is still a present problem in Ethiopia. There is reason to suggest that heightened awareness of the harmfulness of these practices could be an effective means of addressing this problem and could impact on girls' retention in school.

4.3 School Factors

4.3.1 Journey to School

According to statistics from the Ministry of Education, a quarter of the population lives four or more kilometres away from primary schools. A Young Lives study found distance to school to be one of the most common explanations for non-attendance in schools. This is due to the time it takes, costs of transportation and the risks associated with children travelling long distances on their own.[36]UNESCO's report on girls' education in Ethiopia also points out the lack of sufficient numbers of schools. The study suggests that the long distances children have to travel to school can have a number of effects including delayed school enrolment, exposure of girls to rape and abduction, reduction in the time available for study and household chores.[37]

Statistics from the Ministry of Education show that there are surprisingly few secondary schools when compared to number of primary schools. Statistics from 2012/13 show that

[36]Tassew Woldehanna, Alemu Mekonnen, Nicola Jones, Bekele Tefera, John Seager,Tekie Alemu and Getachew Asgedom , 'Educational Choices in Ethiopia: What determines whether poor children go to school"(2006) Young Lives Policy Brief 2, 3

[37]Karin Hyde, Dehab Belay, Asegedech Beyene, Anbesu Biazen, Nuri Kedir, 'Taking Stock of Girls Education in Ethiopia: Preparing for ESDP III' (2005) UNICEF, UNESCO and Save the Children Alliance, 12

there are nationally, in total over 30,000 primary schools but less than 2,000 secondary schools. In Amhara, there are just under 8,000 primary schools and only slightly over 200 secondary schools. In Oromiya, there are just over 12,000 primary schools and just over 700 secondary schools.[38] Nationally, there is a reduction of 94% in number of schools from primary to secondary. This means that distances increase significantly and it becomes a difficulty for more people in the transition from primary to secondary school.

Is the journey between home and primary school a barrier?

Link Ethiopia questionnaires asked girls and boys how many minutes they spend walking to school. They were also asked to rate on a scale how dangerous they consider their journey to school; 0 being not at all dangerous and 100 being very dangerous. The results were plotted on graphs disaggregated by gender, schools and marked as urban and rural. The orange and green represent the rural schools and the purple and yellow represent the urban schools. Duration of journey is plotted on the x-axis and the rating of danger is plotted on the y-axis. The graphs are analysed below.

[38] Ethiopian Federal Ministry of Education, Education Statistics Annual Abstract (2012/13)

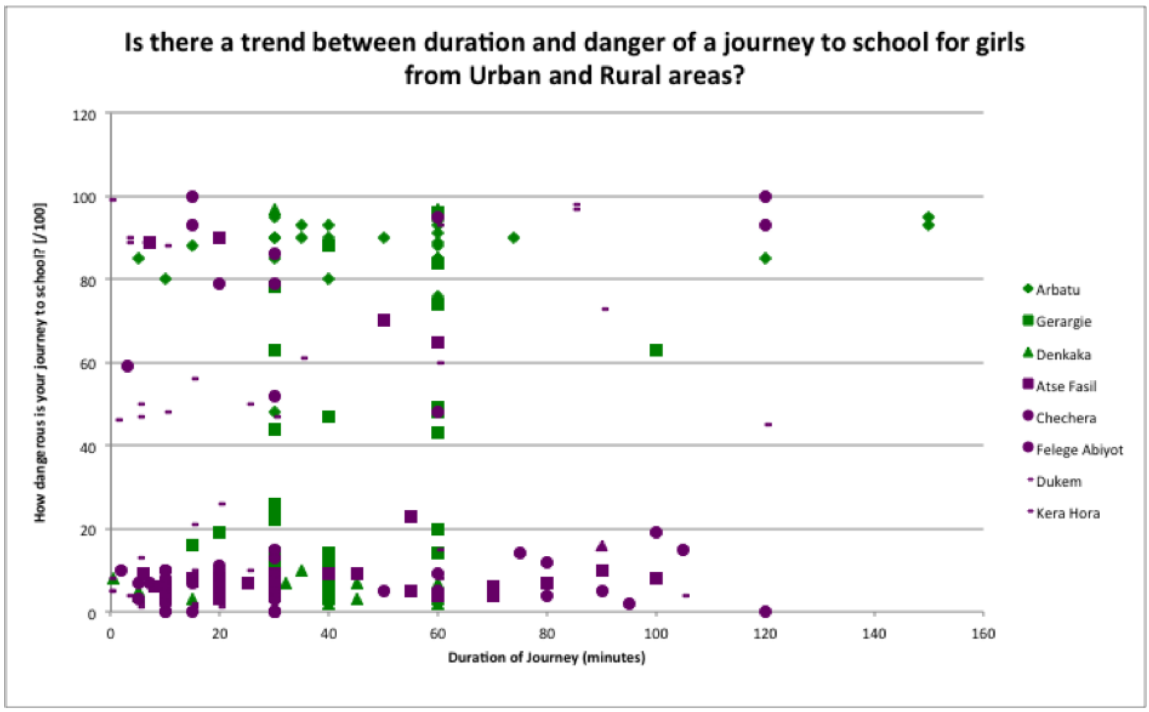

Figure 4.3: Girls Questionnaire Results: Danger vs Duration

• **Girls** There is generally a large spread of journey duration for both urban and rural girls. Urban girls mostly walk 30 minutes or less to school while rural girls mostly walk between 30 and 60 minutes.

The urban data is clustered at the bottom of the y-axis along the x-axis, showing that for all journey durations, there is a relatively low level of danger. The majority of urban girls give a danger rating of 20 or under. Only 13% give a danger score of 70 or higher.

On the other hand, the rural data shows 39% of girls give a danger rating of 70 or higher, which is 3 times higher than the urban girls. Hence, from our research, 3 times more rural girls felt that their journey was dangerous than urban girls.

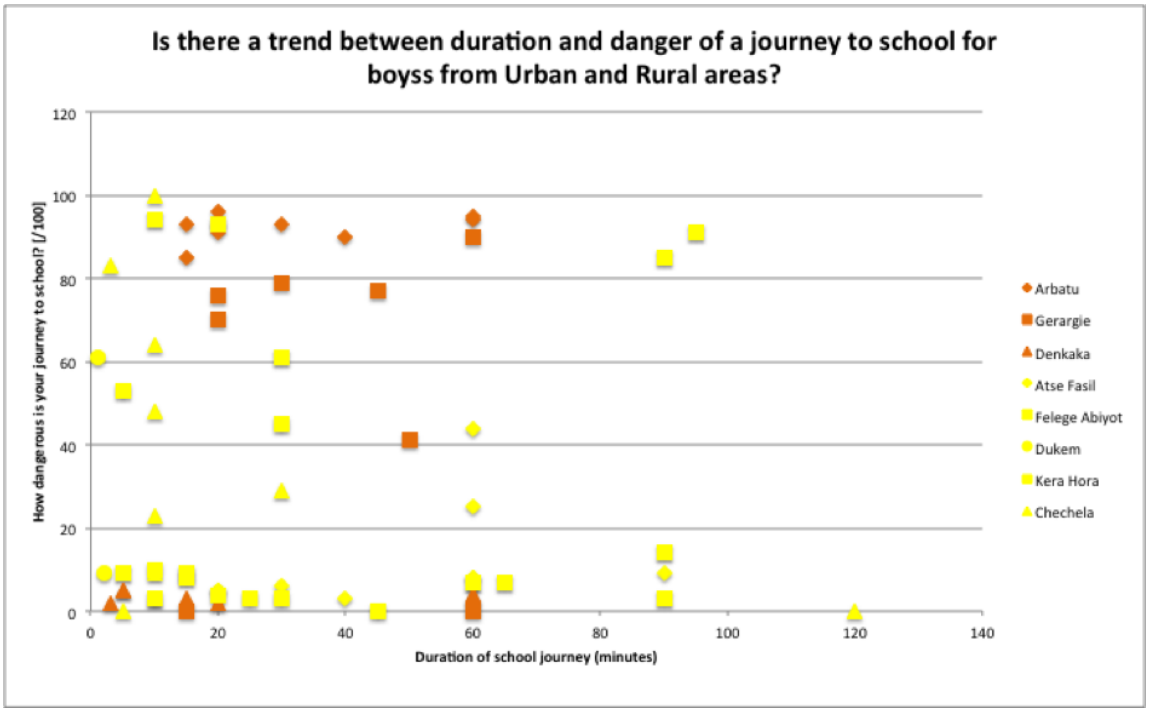

Figure 4.4: Boys Questionnaire Results: Danger vs Duration

• **Boys** Similar to the data for urban girls, the data for urban boys also clusters at the bottom of the y-axis, along the x-axis. This shows that regardless of the duration of a journey, there is a similar low level of danger.

48% of rural boys gave a danger score of 70 or more. Of the urban boys only 18% gave a danger score of 70 or more.

Conclusions

On average, urban schools, regardless of the duration, have a lower danger score than the rural schools. This shows that rural schools have a more dangerous journey than the urban schools.

The rural boys travel a maximum of 60 minutes to school every day, which is interesting when compared to the rural girls at the same schools, as some girls walk more than 60 minutes. This suggests that at rural schools, girls take longer on the same journey when compared to boys.

With respect to gender, urban girls have the safest journey and rural boys have the most dangerous journey.

Analysis

There seems to be conclusive indications that the journey to school is in general more dangerous in rural areas, however, the data does not suggest that it is more dangerous for girls. On the contrary, boys rated the journey more dangerous.

This data alone, can however, be misleading. There might for example be differences in the way boys and girls rate danger. Considering the girls' and boys' questionnaire answers regarding what the specific dangers are on their journey to school, there is reason to suggest that it is more dangerous for girls. This is because a high proportion of girls list threats that are specific to their gender, while boys list dangers that affect both boys and girls alike.

For example, 72 girls out of 270 identified specific dangers on their journey to school. 44% of these girls mentioned threats such as abduction, sexual harassment and rape. This indicates that for girls, threats of a sexual nature are a dominant danger. Boys mainly listed traffic accidents as a danger, which can be considered equally a threat for both boys and girls.

Notably, however, there was no conclusive evidence that the journey to school was particularly disruptive to their education. Only a few anomalous answers from boys and girls gave journey to school as a reason for missing school days. It appears that the problem worsens in the transition from primary to secondary school.

Is the journey between home and secondary school a barrier to girls' education'

The focus groups were used to gauge a better understanding of the problems caused by the journey to school. An effort was also made to find out whether there was a difference and what the difference was, between the journey to primary and to secondary school.

When asked about their current journey to school, many girls said they did not feel safe on their way to school. One girl said that this is because of the distance they have to walk, two girls commented on the dangers of crossing farmland on their way to school and another girl mentioned fear of abduction. The boys mentioned danger from traffic when children cross the main road. However, from the discussions, it appears that the journey to school becomes a much more disruptive problem when they transition to secondary school. The distance between home and school increases significantly.

There was consensus among the girls and boys that the journey to secondary school is much worse than the journey to primary school. When asked questions in relation to their prospects for secondary school, it is suggested that most girls will have to move away from

home and rent a place to live closer to the school. This was mentioned several times. There are indications that it is more necessary for girls than for boys to move. One boy expressed that it is especially difficult for girls to go on foot to Koladiba Secondary School. Moving away from home was only mentioned once during the boys' focus group. Overall answers indicated that most boys would walk to secondary school.

This move involves significant economic strain for families. Housing in secondary school is very costly, especially if there is more than one child to pay rent for. When asked about costs related to sending their children to secondary school, one parent replied, 'Costs will be heavy, especially when you have more than two children. Housing rent is difficult.' Two girls expressed that their families would not be able to afford the rent.

Some children will therefore walk despite the distance being very long. In Gerargie primary school some of the girls said they would have to move to Koladiba to attend secondary school and some said that because of economic reasons they would have to walk. One girl who would have to walk said, 'I may be exposed to sexual harassment on my long journey to school. This may make me tired and I'm afraid this means I will not attend secondary school.' Boys also expressed problems related to the long journey. One boy stated, 'when we go to secondary school we will miss the first and second period when we arrive late.'

The girls also expressed some non-economical concerns in relation to moving away from home. One girl expressed that she was worried about moving from home and being exposed to negative influences in the town. She was of the opinion that this was one of the reasons why many girls fail their exams in secondary school.

There is thus reason to suggest that the distance between home and school becomes a very big problem for many children in secondary school for these reasons. It is reasonable to suggest that this is a bigger problem for children living in rural areas, as most secondary schools are located in or near towns.

For a variety of reasons, it is likely that this affects girls more than boys. Girls are exposed to threats such as rape, abduction and early marriage, which could make them particularly vulnerable during this time. Girls, more so than boys, expressed concerns and anxiety in relation to moving away from their families and taking on the challenge of secondary school in an unfamiliar environment. This can be connected with family attitudes towards female education and their confidence in taking on the challenges of secondary school in a new environment. Some answers from our focus group suggest that there is a general attitude that boys perform better academically than girls. This can also contribute to girls' apprehension about secondary school. Many do not feel confident about this transition.

4.3.2 Motivation

Although girls as well as boys value their education highly and express ambitions to get a job, earn a living and reach a good standard of living in future, there is reason to suggest that girls could benefit from help with their motivation in school.

Link Ethiopia questionnaires asked girls what they think would help them remain in and progress in education. Many answers were related to educational support, such as tutorials, special support for girls' education and specifically help with motivation. General attitudes towards girls' education is another reason to suggest that girls in particular would benefit from schemes that help their motivation.

There seems to be a general attitude that boys perform better in school than girls. Link Ethiopia questionnaire results show that most boys and girls were of the opinion that it was more difficult for girls to succeed in and progress in education due to a variety of socio-cultural factors.

In the focus groups, one parent stated that on the most part, boys score better than girls. Girls expressed anxiety about going to secondary school because they had heard that many girls do not score well. Two girls expressed that the burden of household chores leaves them demotivated about school because they do not have enough time to study. Another girl expressed that she feels less self-confident about school because her family does not support the idea that girls go to school. Teachers expressed that girls struggle with their self-confidence and that they lack support for their education at home.

Lack of Female Role Models

Many girls expressed through the questionnaires that they would benefit from the presence of female role models in their lives. A female teacher may often be the only example of an educated female that either girls or boys may come across in rural areas.[39] Female teachers provide an important example of how girls have the ability and possibility to better themselves through education.

Statistics from the ministry of education show that at a national level, at primary school there is general gender parity in the number of certified teachers, with slightly more female

[39]Karin Hyde, Dehab Belay, Asegedech Beyene, Anbesu Biazen, Nuri Kedir, 'Taking Stock of Girls Education in Ethiopia: Preparing for ESDP III' (2005) UNICEF, UNESCO and Save the Children Alliance, 12

than male teachers.[40] However, in secondary school there are significantly more male teachers. Nationally there are almost 51,000 certified male teachers in secondary schools, compared to fewer than 9,000 female teachers. This disproportion is also reflected in Amahara and Oromiya. In Amhara there are almost 14,000 certified male teachers in secondary school, compared to fewer than 3,000 female teachers. In Oromiya there are almost 17,000 male teachers compared to fewer than 3,000 female teachers.

4.3.3 Facilities

The UNESCO study, 'Taking Stock of Girls' Education in Ethiopia' identifies the lack of satisfactory basic facilities, such as toilets, as one of the challenges to girls' education. The study found that the distance between male and female toilets, the location of the entrances, the state of cleanliness and the lack of proper locks contributed to whether or not toilets were used. It found that the absence of toilets affects performance, due to girls missing school during their menstrual cycle, as well as missing classes if they have to walk long distances to the nearest toilet.[41]

Our research suggests that poor facilities can affect children's attendance in school, however it does not suggest that poor facilities present a particularly significant barrier to female education. It is a problem for both boys and girls.

Results from Link Ethiopia questionnaires shows that the vast majority of boys and girls use the toilet facilities in school. However, there are still quite a few students, both boys and girls, who said that they do not use the school toilet because it is not in good condition. The majority of girls stated that poor facilities do not prevent them from going to school. However, 63 out of the 270 girls (23%) said that it did sometimes prevent them from going to school. Yet, this is roughly the same for the boys. Poor facilities seem to be affecting both boys and girls in a similar way.

However, our research suggests that menstruation is a more significant barrier to female education. As females are during this time more dependent on school facilities, the poor condition of toilets along with other difficulties associated with menstruation is likely to affect girls more than boys. Menstruation as a barrier to female education is discussed

[40] see table 4.12, Ethiopian Federal Ministry of Education, Education Statistics Annual Abstract (2012/13) (Addis Ababa 2013)

[41] Karin Hyde, Dehab Belay, Asegedech Beyene, Anbesu Biazen, Nuri Kedir, 'Taking Stock of Girls Education in Ethiopia: Preparing for ESDP III' (2005) UNICEF, UNESCO and Save the Children Alliance, p.13-14

below.

4.3.4 Menstruation

Menstruation is another possible barrier to girls' education. The World Bank suggests that 'If a girl misses 4 days of school every 4 weeks due to her period, she will miss 10 to 20 percent of her school days.'[42]Missing school due to menstruation causes girls to fall behind boys and even drop out, resulting in a gender gap with respect to school performance and attendance.

It is worth noting that these arguments have an anecdotal foundation; 'there is little or no rigorous evidence quantifying the days of school lost during menstruation'. Research done by UNICEF suggests that because menstruation is a sensitive topic and because girls, and especially boys, are embarrassed to discuss and voice their opinions on it, there is a lack of detailed research on this topic; 'From when we are young, we are told to avoid discussing menstruation.'[43]

Combining the Link Ethiopia questionnaires and focus groups, there are some indications that schools provide support for girls during menstruation. We found that 7 out of 9 Link Ethiopia Schools provide the girls with sanitary towels and most schools even run a 'Girls' Club' where many have a trusting relationship with the chairwoman of the club. The girls feel comfortable letting the chairwoman know if they begin their period when at school. The girls also said that they are able to dispose of sanitary towels at toilets both at school and at home.

However, many problems the girls encountered during menstruation were raised which impact upon their schooling; the focus group indicates that some girls lacked knowledge when they got their first period and were frightened. Some girls felt ashamed to tell their teachers if they started menstruating during school hours and would often go home. Some stated that their families do not purchase sanitary pads; the girls or their parents prepare sanitary towels themselves. Home made sanitary towels can be problematic in term of hygiene and can result in gynecological problems, yet purchasing the sanitary products is not an option because of financial constrictions and limited access to such products [44]

[42]Emily Oyster and Rebecca Thornton, 'Menstruation, Sanitary Products, and School Attendance: Evidence from a Randomized Evaluation' (2011) American Economic Journal: Applied Economics 3, 91'100

[43]Deepti Rani Devi (teacher in a high school based in a rural village in Northern Bangladesh), 'Simple solutions to keep girls in school in Bangladesh' accessed 13 August 2014

[44]Vibeke Venema, 'The Indian Sanitary pad revolutionary'(4 March 2014) ¡

This suggests that menstruation is an issue that can be disruptive to girls' education. According to Water Aid; 'If girls are to stay in school and complete their education, they need private, hygienic facilities which relieve the need to skip school, boosting their attendance and providing free time to study.'[45]

http://www.bbc.com/news/magazine-26260978¿ accessed 13 August 2014

[45]Bethlehem Mengistu, Empowering Women and Girls: How water sanitation and hygiene deliver gender equality (2012) Water Aid, 10

Chapter 5

Recommendations

5.1 Overcoming Economic Barriers

As previously mentioned, this study finds that within the localities and schools that Link Ethiopia operates there is little to suggest that the issues of poverty in Ethiopia have a direct impact in aggravating the gender gap. This is not to say that girls' education is not affected by matters of poverty for individual families, rather that poverty is negatively impacting both boys and girls equally in their education. Therefore in terms of proposing solutions, it is not recommended to introduce interventions in relation to providing financial support to individual families who enrol their girls in school. However, given that poverty impacts on many families' decisions to send their children to school, any intervention that seeks to increase female enrolment at school should not increase the financial burden on families. The context of poverty also impacts on the resources available to any schools that Link Ethiopia works with, and likewise any scheme introduced in schools will require sources of funding external to the school.

The one economic barrier that did seem to be contributing to the gender gap in education was the fewer and lower quality labour market opportunities available to females in relation to males, and the possible impact this could have on the decision of families to enrol their female children in education and the possible impact this could have on their motivation. Whilst Link Ethiopia cannot expect to make an impact on the labour market, any solution that seeks to raise girls' aspirations for their careers, and families expectations for their female children's careers may be effective. Furthermore, a project aimed at helping girls to find work after completing their studies may not only provide girls with career opportunities but may also increase the incentives for girls to remain in education. Again, the greater lack of job opportunities in rural areas suggests that such an intervention may be more beneficial in rural areas.

5.2 Overcoming Cultural Barriers

5.2.1 Overload of Household Chores

This study has found that household chores are more disruptive to the education of girls than boys. Findings suggest that it is not school attendance that is particularly affected; rather it is affecting school performance. Chores take up most of girls' time. Firstly, this leaves them with very little free time to spend on studying outside of school time. They are therefore more likely to fall behind. Secondly, the household work often leaves them tired at school, which can affect their concentration and ability to absorb knowledge. This can be one of the reasons why girls are struggling with attainment in secondary school, as statistical data suggests.

Our own data as well as secondary sources indicate that this is a bigger problem in rural areas and in particular for economically disadvantaged families who are more likely to be reliant on their children's day-to-day labour.

A solution aimed at alleviating girls' chores, allowing them more free time to study but also to relax and recuperate could be very beneficial. One way of alleviating girls' chores could be for boys to help their sisters with some of their work. Both results from the Link Ethiopia questionnaires and from the focus groups suggest that boys would be receptive to such a solution. When asked in the questionnaires what they could do to help their sisters in education, many mentioned sharing the burden of domestic chores. In focus groups boys were positive to helping their sisters with their chores. It is clear that some boys already do help their sisters to some extent.

However, in rural areas, boys spend much of their time farming. Even though, during farming, boys perhaps spend a lot of their time idle, it might be difficult to engage them in other household tasks as they might be out of the home for several hours a day.

There is reason to believe that parents would be receptive to a solution that alleviates girls' chores. Results from the questionnaires show that most parents consider that it is more important for their children to go to school than to perform tasks.

A few parents attached more importance to the duty to perform chores. This is likely to be due to economic necessity. Families that depend on their children's day-to-day labour are arguably in strongest need of help in this area, as these girls are likely to be spending a lot of time on chores. It is therefore important that a potential solution does not compromise the work that gets done within the home. The solution must be beneficial to the girls without any negative impact on the household.

5.2.2 Early Marriage

This study identifies early marriage as a major reason why girls drop out of school. Secondary research suggests this is mostly practiced in poorer, rural communities. Our focus group suggested that there is a lack of awareness of the harmful effects of early marriage in rural communities. Media access and literacy rates are lower in these communities. Therefore, although general awareness raising campaigns may have a positive impact in urban areas, this does not have the same affect in rural areas.

There is reason to believe that a scheme aimed at raising awareness in rural communities about the harmfulness of early marriage and the benefits of keeping girls in school could be beneficial. Such a scheme would primarily be aimed at reducing girl drop-out rates at all levels of education.

It is advised that such a scheme should be developed in cooperation with the local community in question. As it is a problem of awareness and attitudes it involves all members of the community. A scheme should involve all stakeholders. This means engaging, religious and community leaders, schools and their teachers, children and their families.

5.3 Overcoming School Barriers

5.3.1 Journey from Home to Secondary School

This study identified the distance between home and secondary school as one of the major barriers to girls' education. When secondary schools are located far away from homes, it is often necessary for children to move away from home in order to attend secondary school. This is a bigger problem for families living in rural areas, as most secondary schools are located in and around towns. There is reason to deduce from this research that when the secondary school is still within walking distance, but the journey is very long, boys will still be able to walk but girls must still move, due to various risks. There are also indications that girls find the transition in moving away from home to attend secondary school more difficult than boys. Thus, it is likely that this is a problem, which affects girls more than boys.

There are several difficulties faced by girls and their families in relation to this. Firstly, as housing rent is very expensive, this puts heavy economic strain on families. Some families will not be able to afford this at all. Their children will either not be able to attend secondary school or they will have to walk very long distances, which will affect their schooling in a number of ways. Other families might be able to afford this for some time but not the entire duration of their children's education. Some families with several children will only be able to send some of their children to school. The long distance

between home and secondary schools is thus a bigger problem for families who struggle to provide for their children financially.

Other families will be able to afford the housing rent but there were several concerns expressed by girls in relation to moving away from home to attend secondary school. These concerns are both in relation to schoolwork and lifestyle, but this seems to be interlinked. Many girls lack confidence in their academic abilities to cope with the demands of secondary school. The prospect of living in a new environment away from their families increases this anxiety. The study has identified sexual harassment, rape, abduction and early marriage as causes of worry for many girls. Although it is unlikely that these risks are more pronounced in urban areas, it is likely that girls might feel more vulnerable to these threats when they move away from their families and live on their own in towns.

All Girls' Accommodation

For many students, the best option may be to move away from home to attend secondary school. Solutions should be aimed at addressing both problems posed by the economic load of housing rent and the problems associated with the difficulty of adapting to living separately from their families. A potential proposal would be the provision of an all girls accommodation block for girls attending secondary school. It should be an environment where girls feel safe and supported. The involvement of someone to follow up on their wellbeing and progress in school would also be beneficial. This could give girls, who would not otherwise have the financial means, the opportunity to attend secondary school. It could also encourage girls to feel more confident about this transition. This would hopefully impact on girls' retention and attainment in secondary school.

Link Ethiopia Host Families

Another option for accommodation could be initiating a Link Ethiopia host family scheme in secondary school towns. Girls may find the more familiar family environment more supportive than accommodation blocks. Host families could be assessed and carefully chosen on the basis of their ability to provide a supportive environment conducive to their education. This could involve ensuring that girls do not face an unfair burden of chores and that the family already has a relationship with the relevant secondary school.

Shuttle Bus

For other students, a shuttle bus from their home to secondary school may be the best option. A potential proposal could be to run a shuttle bus to and from secondary school.

For example secondary school students who attended Gerargie primary school could take the shuttle bus between Gerargie primary school to Koladiba secondary school. This would allow children to continue living with their families throughout secondary school. Providing that it is convenient for students to walk to a meeting point for the shuttle bus, this could be effective. This would be hoped to impact on girls' retention and attainment in secondary school.

5.4 Motivation

This study suggests that many girls struggle with motivation in their schoolwork. Taking into consideration the very low number of female teachers in secondary schools, it is likely that girls do not have many female role models in their lives during this time.

A scheme aimed at inspiring girls through helping them with their schoolwork, developing their confidence and teaching them about career opportunities would benefit many girls.

Mentor Scheme

Statistical data and qualitative research shows that girls struggle with attainment in secondary school. A 'Sister to Sister' mentor scheme aimed at helping girls' academically as well as providing pastoral care and guidance could be very beneficial. Girls in more senior grades could be designated as mentors for girls in lower grades. The mentors would in this way be able to help the girls with their schoolwork. The idea behind a girls helping girls scheme is that in this way girls are provided with female role models to look up to. They will also feel more comfortable talking about personal matters and better female guidance can be given. This provides girls in secondary school with a female support network primarily aimed at improving girls' attainment in school.

Support Existing Girls' Clubs

Most schools involved in the study have an established girls' clubs. The activities of girls' club mentioned included, education on female health and counselling service. Girls' clubs could be used to organise study groups, training sessions and careers advice. Girls' club could also be responsible for promoting gender awareness in schools. The clubs would benefit from the involvement of boys and teachers in such activities. Promotional activities could include assemblies, guest speakers and student presentations. Link Ethiopia could help the resourcing of such activities. The appointing of a Link Ethiopia Gender Awareness

officer to liaise with girls' club chairpersons in Link schools could be in charge of following up the progress of gender awareness activities in schools.

5.5 Menstruation

A recent instance of change occurred in Ethiopia on June 10 2014, which marked the celebration of Ethiopia's first National Menstruation Hygiene Day. Stakeholders including The WASH Movement Ethiopia, Tiret, WaterAid and SNV Netherlands Development Organisation collaborated in radicalising how adolescent girls are taught how to manage menstruation. The purpose of the National Menstruation Hygiene Day is to 'stimulate discussions and minimise silence around the issue'[1] resulting in immediate change for The Education Bureau, who after 'realising that lack of information on menstruation has impact on quality of education, enrolment and gender disparity, has included the issue into the primary and secondary schools' curriculum.'[2]

SNV launched its multi country two-year initiative, (also implemented across Tanzania, South Sudan, Uganda and Zimbabwe), in Ethiopia called 'Girls in Control Menstrual Hygiene Management Project' with aims to 'increase girls' school attendance through sustainable access to improved menstrual hygiene management in schools'. This project will educate more than 32,000 Ethiopian girls with menstrual hygiene education by working with school leaders, the media and policy makers to 'reduce stigma around menstruation'.[3]

Another solution present in developing countries for girls managing menstruation is the MoonCup brand reusable menstrual cup, which is instilled in four schools in Chitwan, Nepal. 'The product is a small, silicone, bell- shaped cup which is inserted in the vagina to collect menstrual blood. With proper care, the cup is reusable for up to a decade' which is a solution to combat the unhygienic nature of home made sanitary products. Despite apprehensions regarding that there would be a limited number of girls willing to try an unfamiliar, insertable, menstrual product, a study carried out showed that 'most of the

[1]Haile Selassie Abreha, Director of Tiret, 'Celebrating Ethiopia's first national menstruation hygiene day' (2014) accessed 13 August 2014

[2]Tadessa Duressa, WASH focal person in the Regional Educational Bureau Celebrating Ethiopia's first national menstruation hygiene day' (2014) ¡http://www.snvworld.org/en/countries/ethiopia/news/celebrating-ethiopias-first-national-menstruation-hygiene-day'¿accessed 13 August 2014

[3]ibid.

girls experimented with the cup; if they successfully used it once, they switched away from traditionally used rags and continued using the cup. Half a year later, 60 percent of girls were using the cups'.[4]

However, the impact of investment into menstruation products may have limited results directly upon girls' education. This is supported by the Nepal MoonCup study where the 'girls in the comparison group, who did not receive a menstrual cup, had only slightly lower attendance during their periods.'[5]

Nevertheless, despite the lack of direct impact of the menstrual products, it is worth noting that in the same Nepal MoonCup research, that there were indirect impacts; 'these products seemed to impact girls' lives in terms of convenience and mobility in managing their periods'.[6] This included reduced time spent on laundry during period days, which suggests that this time could be channelled towards education.

Therefore, investment into menstrual education and products has both direct and indirect impact on girls' education. Educating girls about hygiene and why periods happen reduces gynecological problems and the stigma attached to menstruation. If girls realize the normality of a period, they may feel less prone to going home every time they get their period at school, increasing attendance. Indirectly, economically sound solutions like the MoonCup means girls can save time on laundry and frees up time to study.

[4] Abdul Latif Jameel Poverty Action Lab, 'Menstruation as a barrier to education" (2011) Massachusetts Insitute of Technology, 3

[5] bid

[6] ibid

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Appendix A

Literature Review

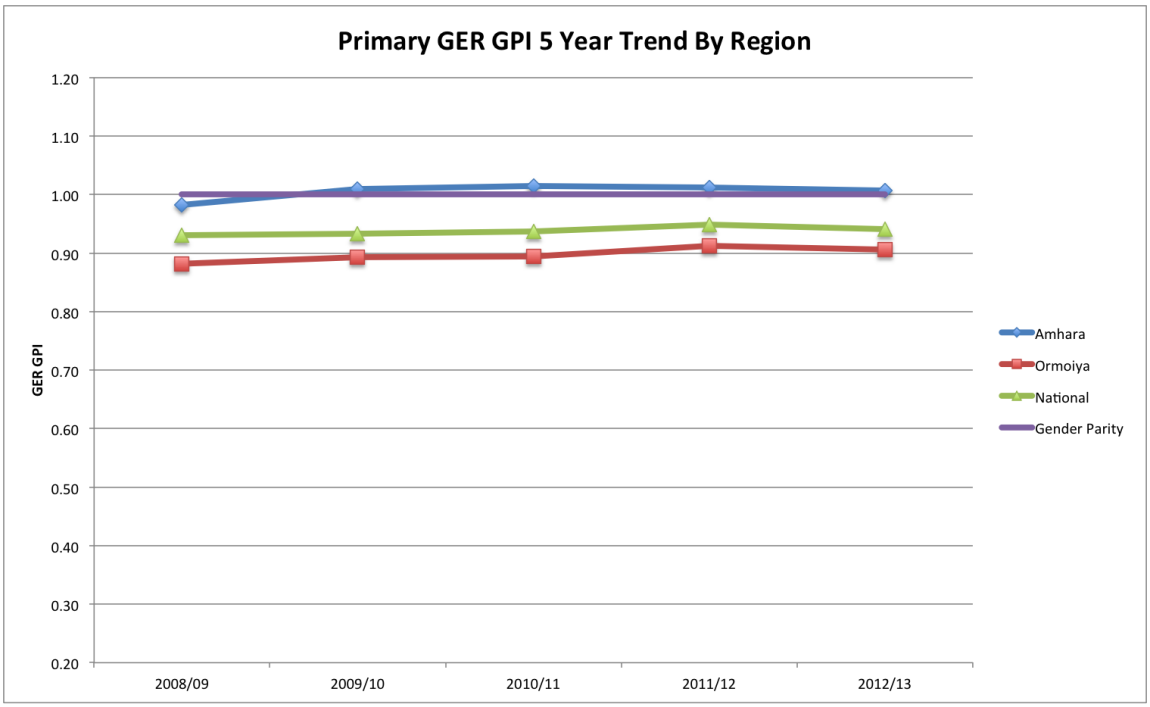
A.1 5 Year Trends

5 Year Trends 2008/9

National Gross Enrolment	Primary											
	First Cycle						Second Cycle					
	Enrolment			GER %			Enrolment			GER %		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2008/09	5570497	5018155	**0.90**	126.7	118.4	**0.93**	2626001	2338489	**0.89**	65.6	60.5	**0.92**
2009/10	5545577	4966962	**0.90**	123.2	114.3	**0.93**	2764312	2515253	**0.91**	67.4	63.5	**0.94**
2010/11	5947467	5307229	**0.89**	128.8	119.1	**0.92**	2831621	2631794	**0.93**	67.4	64.8	**0.96**
2011/12	6022357	5402698	**0.90**	127.0	118.1	**0.93**	2843134	2721595	**0.96**	65.9	65.3	**0.99**
2012/13	6320632	5630825	**0.89**	129.7	119.8	**0.92**	2812742	2666095	**0.95**	63.5	62.2	**0.98**

National Gross Enrolment	Secondary											
	First Cycle						Second Cycle					
	Enrolment			GER %			Enrolment			GER %		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2008/09	803389	578936	**0.72**	43.8	32.5	**0.74**	146547	58713	**0.40**	8.5	3.5	**0.41**
2009/10	818280	634570	**0.78**	43.5	34.7	**0.80**	156194	86886	**0.56**	8.9	5.0	**0.56**
2010/11	807251	654667	**0.81**	41.8	34.9	**0.83**	169571	118645	**0.70**	9.4	6.7	**0.71**
2011/12	775440	666786	**0.86**	39.1	34.6	**0.88**	184193	138872	**0.75**	10.0	7.6	**0.76**
2012/13	811867	729662	**0.90**	39.9	36.9	**0.92**	198539	158770	**0.80**	10.5	8.5	**0.81**

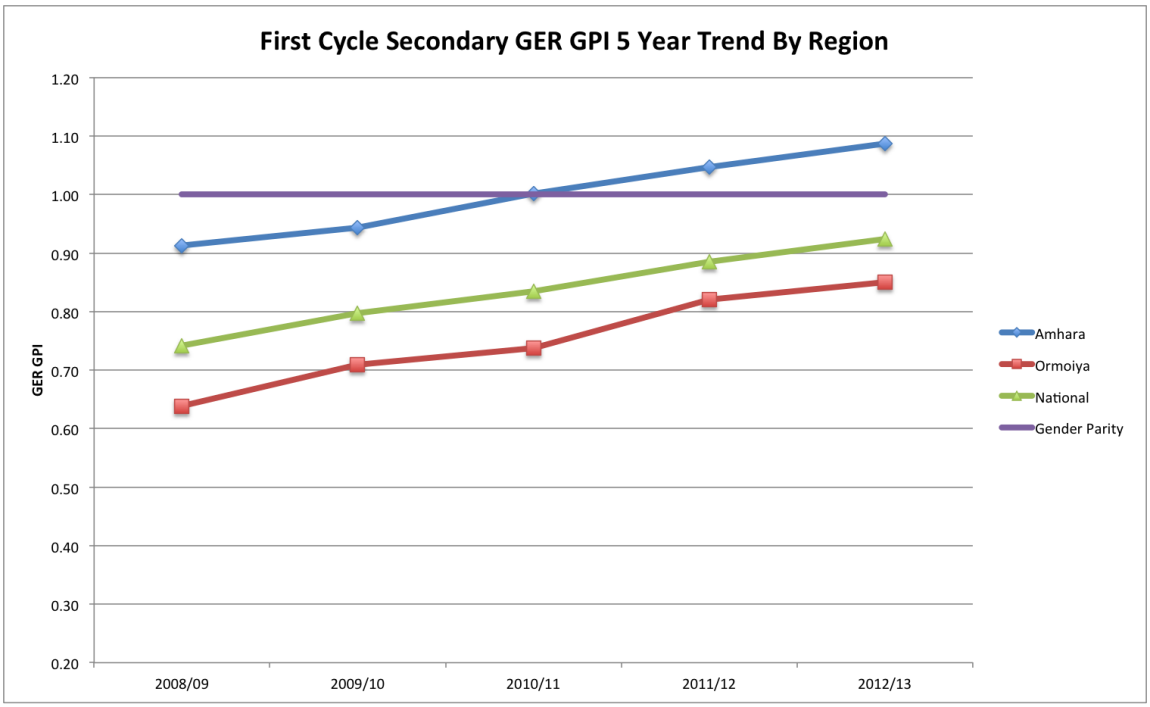
A.2 Primary Trends



A.3 Regional Primary Trends

Primary Gross Enrolment	Amhara - Primary (1-8)					
	Enrolment			GER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2008/09	2119905	2036494	**0.96**	113.8	111.8	**0.98**
2009/10	1982265	1956954	**0.99**	104.4	105.4	**1.01**
2010/11	1996658	1981540	**0.99**	103.4	104.9	**1.01**
2011/12	2010251	1991917	**0.99**	102.4	103.7	**1.01**
2012/13	2006040	1976546	**0.99**	100.4	101.1	**1.01**
Primary Gross Enrolment	Oromiya - Primary (1-8)					
	Enrolment			GER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2008/09	2993143	2577485	**0.86**	94.9	83.7	**0.88**
2009/10	3043351	2653117	**0.87**	93.4	83.4	**0.89**
2010/11	3352420	2929706	**0.87**	100.0	89.4	**0.89**
2011/12	3421727	2959947	**0.87**	96.2	87.8	**0.91**
2012/13	3403316	3011011	**0.88**	95.6	86.6	**0.91**
Primary Gross Enrolment	National - Primary (1-8)					
	Enrolment			GER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2008/09	8196478	7356664	**0.90**	97.8	91.0	**0.93**
2009/10	8087469	7355732	**0.91**	96.6	90.1	**0.93**
2010/11	8779088	7939023	**0.90**	99.5	93.2	**0.94**
2011/12	8865491	8124293	**0.92**	97.9	92.9	**0.95**
2012/13	9133374	8296920	**0.91**	98.2	92.4	**0.94**

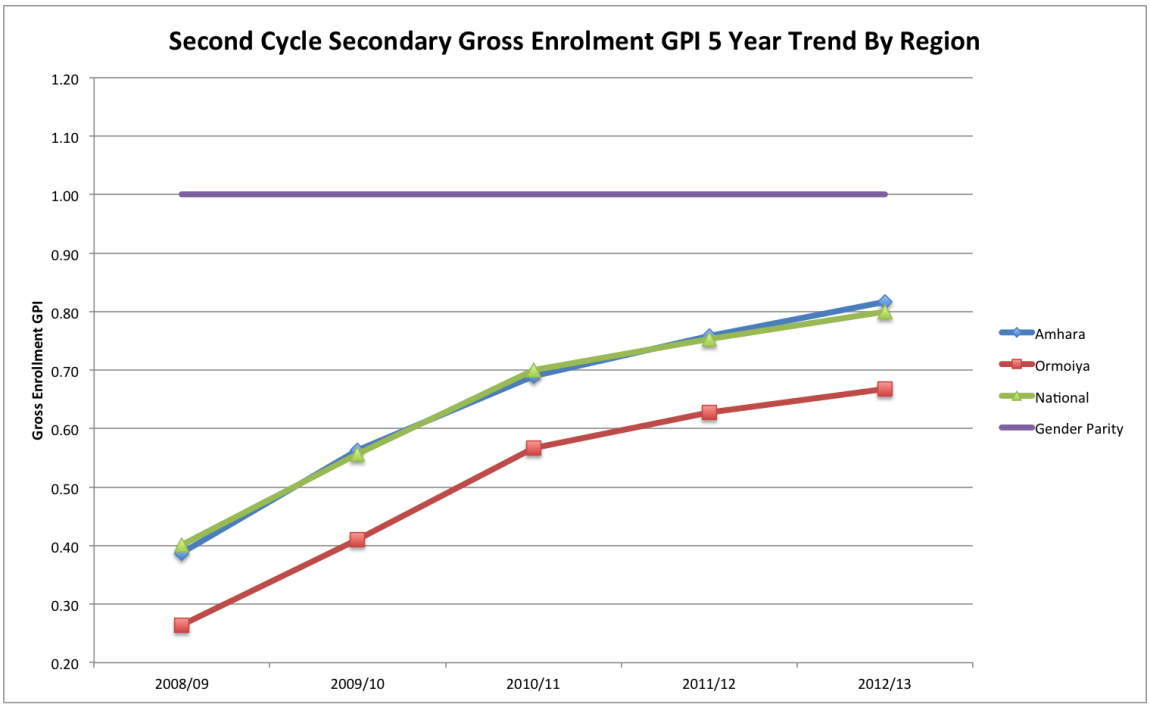
A.4 Secondary Trends



A.5 Regional Secondary Trends

Secondary (9-10) Gross Enrolment	Amhara - Secondary (9-10)					
	Enrolment			GER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2008/09	187661	168279	**0.90**	44.9	41	**0.91**
2009/10	183586	170378	**0.93**	43.1	40.7	**0.94**
2010/11	176066	173223	**0.98**	40.6	40.7	**1.00**
2011/12	167692	172269	**1.03**	38	39.8	**1.05**
2012/13	185825	198289	**1.07**	41.4	45	**1.09**
Secondary (9-10) Gross Enrolment	**Oromiya - Secondary (9-10)**					
	Enrolment			GER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2008/09	324539	203736	**0.63**	49	31.3	**0.64**
2009/10	322198	224763	**0.70**	47.1	33.4	**0.71**
2010/11	310961	225925	**0.73**	44.2	32.6	**0.74**
2011/12	286993	231571	**0.81**	39.6	32.5	**0.82**
2012/13	293364	245695	**0.84**	39.3	33.4	**0.85**
Secondary (9-10) Gross Enrolment	**National - Secondary (9-10)**					
	Enrolment			GER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2008/09	803389	578936	**0.72**	43.8	32.5	**0.74**
2009/10	810967	629533	**0.78**	43.5	34.7	**0.80**
2010/11	807251	654667	**0.81**	41.8	34.9	**0.83**
2011/12	775440	666786	**0.86**	39.1	34.6	**0.88**
2012/13	811867	729662	**0.90**	39.9	36.9	**0.92**

A.6 Preparatory Trends



A.7 Preparatory Regional Trends

Secondary (11-12) Gross	Amhara - Secondary (11-12) Enrolment		
	Male	Female	GPI
2008/09	38040	14747	0.39
2009/10	41486	23372	0.56
2010/11	44694	30840	0.69
2011/12	47563	36106	0.76
2012/13	51422	41982	0.82
(11-12) Gross Enrolment	Oromiya - Secondary (11-12) Enrolment		
	Male	Female	GPI
2008/09	46918	12407	0.26
2009/10	50384	20651	0.41
2010/11	54598	30942	0.57
2011/12	58018	36455	0.63
2012/13	61865	41357	0.67
(11-12) Gross Enrolment	National - Secondary (11-12) Enrolment		
	Male	Female	GPI
2008/09	146547	58713	0.40
2009/10	156194	86886	0.56
2010/11	169571	118645	0.70
2011/12	184193	138872	0.75
2012/13	198539	158770	0.80

A.8 Primary Gross Enrolment

Primary Gross Enrolment	First Cycle					
	Enrolment			GER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	1363522	1264336	**0.93**	132.1	125.0	**0.95**
Oromiya	2417296	2145254	**0.89**	127.0	115.7	**0.91**
National	6320632	5630825	**0.89**	129.7	119.8	**0.92**
Primary Gross Enrolment	**Second Cycle**					
	Enrolment			GER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	642488	712210	**1.11**	66.5	75.4	**1.13**
Oromiya	986020	865757	**0.88**	59.5	53.4	**0.90**
National	2812742	2666095	**0.95**	63.5	62.2	**0.98**
Primary Gross Enrolment	**Primary Total**					
	Enrolment			GER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	2006010	1976546	**0.99**	100.4	101.1	**1.01**
Oromiya	3403316	3011011	**0.88**	95.6	86.6	**0.91**
National	9133374	8296920	**0.91**	98.2	92.4	**0.94**

A.9 Primary Dropout Rates

Primary Dropout Rate	Male	Female
Amhara	15.4	12.8
Oromiya	18.6	18.6
National	15.9	15.4

A.10 Secondary Gross Enrolment

Secondary Gross Enrolment	First Cycle					
	Enrolment			GER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	185825	198289	**1.07**	41.4	45.0	**1.09**
Oromiya	293364	245695	**0.84**	39.3	33.4	**0.85**
National	812314	729928	**0.90**	39.9	36.9	**0.92**
Secondary Gross Enrolment	**Second Cycle**					
	Enrolment			**GER%**		
	Male	**Female**	**GPI**	**Male**	**Female**	**GPI**
Amhara	51422	41982	**0.82**	12.2	10.1	**0.83**
Oromiya	61865	41357	**0.67**	8.9	6.0	**0.67**
National	199147	159346	**0.80**	10.5	8.5	**0.81**
Secondary Gross Enrolment	**Secondary Total**					
	Enrolment			**GER%**		
	Male	**Female**	**GPI**	**Male**	**Female**	**GPI**
Amhara	237247	240271	**1.01**	27.3	28.0	**1.03**
Oromiya	355229	287052	**0.81**	24.7	20.2	**0.82**
National	1011461	889274	**0.88**	25.7	23.1	**0.90**

A.11 Primary Net Enrolment

Primary Net Enrolment	First Cycle					
	Enrolment			NER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	1062898	1024817	**0.96**	103.0	101.4	**0.98**
Oromiya	1874882	1695714	**0.90**	98.5	91.5	**0.93**
National	4782800	4361662	**0.91**	98.2	92.8	**0.95**
Primary Net Enrolment	**Second Cycle**					
	Enrolment			NER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	461732	552834	**1.20**	47.8	58.5	**1.22**
Oromiya	734573	679565	**0.93**	44.3	41.9	**0.95**
National	2060887	2058748	**1.00**	46.5	48.1	**1.03**
Primary Net Enrolment	**Primary Total**					
	Enrolment			NER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	1524630	1577651	**1.03**	90.3	93.1	**1.03**
Oromiya	2609455	2375279	**0.91**	87.2	80.6	**0.92**
National	6843687	6420410	**0.94**	87.7	84.1	**0.96**

A.12 Secondary Net Enrolment

Secondary Net Enrolment	First Cycle					
	Enrolment			NER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	76197	96303	**1.26**	17.0	21.9	**1.29**
Oromiya	124855	125692	**1.01**	16.7	17.1	**1.02**
National	382758	397828	**1.04**	18.8	20.1	**1.07**
Secondary Net Enrolment	**Second Cycle**					
	Enrolment			NER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	23624	23404	**0.99**	5.6	5.6	**1.00**
Oromiya	27634	23037	**0.83**	4.0	3.4	**0.85**
National	102306	96264	**0.94**	5.4	5.2	**0.96**
Secondary Net Enrolment	**Secondary Total**					
	Enrolment			NER%		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
Amhara	99821	119707	**1.20**	11.5	14.0	**1.22**
Oromiya	152489	148729	**0.98**	10.6	10.5	**0.99**
National	485064	494092	**1.02**	12.3	12.9	**1.04**

A.13 Gross Enrolment Grade by Grade Breakdown

	Total	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
Amhara	Male	475506	372292	296692	217027	207805	171778	137702	123630	115143	68528	28045	23377
	Female	413800	341094	286396	221443	226764	187890	158409	137953	129868	65760	24117	17865
	GPI	**0.87**	**0.92**	**0.97**	**1.02**	**1.09**	**1.09**	**1.15**	**1.12**	**1.13**	**0.96**	**0.86**	**0.76**
Oromiya	Male	852137	600804	488530	383904	321636	256901	219653	178998	179904	109947	34045	27505
	Female	751370	537062	437778	344266	283626	228350	192414	155391	151098	91811	23994	17162
	GPI	**0.88**	**0.89**	**0.90**	**0.90**	**0.88**	**0.89**	**0.88**	**0.87**	**0.84**	**0.84**	**0.70**	**0.62**
National	Male	2096283	1512210	1250841	1010485	881276	726362	613613	555645	485963	311246	109881	88357
	Female	1839543	1358892	1138265	926958	826429	690006	586608	527199	447385	268058	91014	67613
	GPI	**0.88**	**0.90**	**0.91**	**0.92**	**0.94**	**0.95**	**0.96**	**0.95**	**0.92**	**0.86**	**0.83**	**0.77**

A.14 Urban Enrolment Grade by Grade Breakdown

	Urban	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
Amhara	Male	48002	36945	33098	29378	34657	32079	33203	35089	100823	61227	27833	23282
	Female	46810	36508	33667	30203	37199	34085	36721	37469	114435	59345	23910	17761
	GPI	0.98	0.99	1.02	1.03	1.07	1.06	1.11	1.07	1.14	0.97	0.86	0.76
Oromiya	Male	105759	78120	69328	60956	67384	60495	62239	54748	162939	99965	32805	26505
	Female	103997	78687	70614	62649	67121	60914	62050	54646	138623	84486	23108	16665
	GPI	0.98	1.01	1.02	1.03	1.00	1.01	1.00	1.00	0.85	0.85	0.70	0.63
National	Male	280083	219468	200132	183707	189797	173772	177540	174829	396384	259247	102590	82855
	Female	269644	213976	197588	181982	189188	174920	179837	177322	368726	224385	85053	63590
	GPI	0.96	0.97	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.01	1.01	1.01	0.93	0.87	0.83	0.77

A.15 Rural Enrolment Grade by Grade Breakdown

	Rural	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6	Grade 7	Grade 8	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12
Amhara	Male	427504	335347	263594	187649	173148	139699	104499	88541	14320	7301	212	95
	Female	366990	304586	252729	191240	189563	153805	121688	100484	13433	6413	207	104
	GPI	0.86	0.91	0.96	1.02	1.09	1.10	1.16	1.13	1.08	0.88	0.98	1.09
Oromiya	Male	746378	522684	419202	322948	254252	196406	157414	124250	16965	9982	1240	1000
	Female	647373	458375	367164	281617	216503	167436	130364	100745	12475	7325	885	497
	GPI	0.87	0.88	0.88	0.87	0.85	0.85	0.83	0.81	0.74	0.73	0.71	0.50
National	Male	1816200	1292742	1050709	826778	691479	552590	436073	380816	89579	51999	7291	5502
	Female	1569899	1144916	940677	744976	637241	515086	406771	349877	78659	43673	5961	4023
	GPI	0.86	0.89	0.90	0.90	0.92	0.93	0.93	0.92	0.88	0.84	0.82	0.73

A.16 Grade 10 Exam Trends

Grade 10	Take Exam			GPA ≥ 2.00			% GPA ≥ 2.00		
Examination	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2008/09	292201	207665	0.71	145928	66827	0.46	49.94	32.18	0.64
2009/10	296629	229279	0.77	206641	120860	0.58	69.66	52.71	0.76
2010/11	311247	252193	0.81	229087	145689	0.64	73.60	57.77	0.78
2011/12	283711	236235	0.83	212521	137093	0.65	74.91	58.03	0.77
2012/13	291315	256476	0.88	225432	158771	0.70	77.38	61.90	0.80

A.17 Grade 10 Exam Summary

Table 5.24 Ethiopian General School Education Certificate Examination (EGSECE) Grade 10 Score by Region and Sex: 2005 E.C. (2012/13)

Region	Sex	Reg'd	Took Exam	Not Sat	< 1.86	GPA= 1.86	GPA= 2.00	GPA= 2.14	GPA= 2.29	GPA= 2.43	GPA= 2.57	GPA= 2.71	GPA= 2.86	GPA= 3.00	GPA= 3.14	GPA= 3.29	GPA= 3.43	GPA= 3.57	GPA= 3.71	GPA= 3.86	GPA= 4.00
TIGRAY	M	36,514	35,260	1,254	7,444	3,273	3,536	3,331	2,904	2,499	2,112	1,909	1,571	1,468	1,178	952	731	613	538	626	575
	F	35,089	34,134	955	10,975	4,145	4,100	3,458	2,719	1,992	1,546	1,275	1,021	738	577	471	315	236	208	162	196
	T	71,603	69,394	2,209	18,419	7,418	7,636	6,789	5,623	4,491	3,658	3,184	2,592	2,206	1,755	1,423	1,046	849	746	788	771
AFAR	M	3,308	3,152	156	727	273	289	306	287	268	258	223	184	157	81	57	25	11	2	3	1
	F	1,482	1,422	60	362	146	151	135	118	102	92	95	75	49	53	22	11	8	2	-	1
	T	4,790	4,574	216	1,089	419	440	441	405	370	350	318	259	206	134	79	36	19	4	3	2
AMHARA	M	96,293	93,084	3,209	17,204	8,593	9,396	8,765	7,545	6,525	5,392	4,819	4,404	3,905	3,166	2,653	2,379	2,163	2,137	2,194	1,844
	F	88,655	86,458	2,197	29,076	10,919	10,231	8,538	6,583	4,907	3,729	2,947	2,289	1,884	1,510	1,061	797	642	518	453	374
	T	184,948	179,542	5,406	46,280	19,512	19,627	17,303	14,128	11,432	9,121	7,766	6,693	5,789	4,676	3,714	3,176	2,805	2,655	2,647	2,218
OROMIA	M	140,694	132,774	7,920	28,603	13,439	14,692	14,296	11,798	9,678	7,848	6,675	5,665	4,771	3,694	2,920	2,199	1,888	1,721	1,465	1,422
	F	109,640	105,272	4,368	39,564	13,189	12,380	10,295	7,671	5,671	4,225	3,190	2,499	1,836	1,349	983	665	559	437	365	394
	T	250,334	238,046	12,288	68,167	26,628	27,072	24,591	19,469	15,349	12,073	9,865	8,164	6,607	5,043	3,903	2,864	2,447	2,158	1,830	1,816
SOMALI	M	12,790	12,375	415	939	520	702	761	911	967	981	983	1,001	924	825	750	601	536	345	347	282
	F	4,461	4,341	120	516	235	320	320	347	310	334	323	301	280	214	197	173	155	101	112	103
	T	17,251	16,716	535	1,455	755	1,022	1,081	1,258	1,277	1,315	1,306	1,302	1,204	1,039	947	774	691	446	459	385
BEN. GUMUZ	M	6,573	6,220	353	2,659	767	634	574	401	317	198	160	109	98	88	58	32	32	33	34	26
	F	5,052	4,915	137	2,215	716	624	435	294	210	137	97	62	36	36	24	10	9	3	6	1
	T	11,625	11,135	490	4,874	1,483	1,258	1,009	695	527	335	257	171	134	124	82	42	41	36	40	27
SNNP	M	94,835	91,708	3,127	23,554	9,930	10,573	9,414	7,688	5,968	4,888	4,226	3,550	2,865	2,172	1,723	1,283	1,096	988	849	941
	F	65,737	64,273	1,464	23,899	8,104	7,755	6,322	4,749	3,530	2,625	1,910	1,399	1,057	803	582	439	304	292	261	242
	T	160,572	155,981	4,591	47,453	18,034	18,328	15,736	12,437	9,498	7,513	6,136	4,949	3,922	2,975	2,305	1,722	1,400	1,280	1,110	1,183
GAMBELLA	M	5,510	5,335	175	1,702	746	654	620	468	327	210	176	139	92	56	60	30	20	21	6	8
	F	3,472	3,388	84	1,586	466	396	285	174	151	120	62	44	35	28	12	16	7	1	3	2
	T	8,982	8,723	259	3,288	1,212	1,050	905	642	478	330	238	183	127	84	72	46	27	22	9	10
HARERI	M	1,131	1,073	58	191	85	110	93	75	77	58	58	51	50	44	37	30	26	16	33	39
	F	1,023	995	28	371	86	70	60	59	45	45	38	42	29	24	17	18	21	17	22	31
	T	2,154	2,068	86	562	171	180	153	134	122	103	96	93	79	68	54	48	47	33	55	70
ADDIS ABABA	M	35,669	34,081	1,588	9,282	3,019	2,871	2,575	2,244	1,779	1,494	1,317	1,209	1,116	914	912	853	814	873	951	1,858
	F	31,781	31,096	685	8,134	3,128	2,932	2,475	2,015	1,699	1,324	1,113	1,042	954	821	786	714	734	770	906	1,549
	T	67,450	65,177	2,273	17,416	6,147	5,803	5,050	4,259	3,478	2,818	2,430	2,251	2,070	1,735	1,698	1,567	1,548	1,643	1,857	3,407
DIRE DAWA	M	2,937	2,816	121	875	331	259	264	162	139	101	114	84	85	60	61	41	48	53	64	75
	F	2,408	2,339	69	1,077	306	222	136	105	85	55	54	56	31	35	36	28	24	24	34	31
	T	5,345	5,155	190	1,952	637	481	400	267	224	156	168	140	116	95	97	69	72	77	98	106
SAUDI ARABIA /SUDAN/	M	63	63	-	1	1	1	1	6	6	6	7	5	4	10	4	2	2	3	3	1
	F	63	63	-	1	2	3	3	4	4	10	4	8	4	5	2	3	3	6	-	1
	T	126	126	-	2	3	4	4	10	10	16	11	13	8	15	6	5	5	9	3	2
ALL	M	436,317	417,941	18,376	93,181	40,977	43,717	41,000	34,489	28,550	23,546	20,667	17,972	15,535	12,288	10,187	8,206	7,249	6,730	6,575	7,072
	F	348,863	338,696	10,167	117,776	41,442	39,184	32,462	24,838	18,706	14,242	11,108	8,838	6,933	5,455	4,193	3,189	2,702	2,379	2,324	2,925
	T	785,180	756,637	28,543	210,957	82,419	82,901	73,462	59,327	47,256	37,788	31,775	26,810	22,468	17,743	14,380	11,395	9,951	9,109	8,899	9,997

SUMMARY	Reg'd	Took Exam	Not Sat	>= 0.00	>= 1.86	>= 2.00	> 2.14	>= 2.29	>= 2.43	> 2.57	>= 2.71	>= 2.86	> 3.00	>= 3.14	>= 3.29	> 3.43	> 3.57	>= 3.71	>= 3.86	= 4.00
TOTAL	785,180	756,637	28,543	756,637	545,680	463,261	380,360	306,898	247,571	200,315	162,527	130,752	103,942	81,474	63,731	49,351	37,956	28,005	18,896	9,997
PERCENTAGE	*	*	*	100	72	61	50	41	33	26	21	17	14	11	8	7	5	4	2	1

Table from: Ministry of Education (Ethiopia) Education Statistics Annual Abstract (2012/13), p.103

A.18 Grade 12 Exam Summary

Table 5.25 Ethiopian Higher Education Entrance Certificate Examination (EHEECE) Grade 12 Score by Region and Sex: 2005 E.C. (2012/13)

Region	Sex	Reg'd	Took Exam	Not Sat	<= 200	201-225	226-249	250-275	276-300	301-325	326-349	350-375	376-400	401-425	426-450	451-475	476-500	501-525	526-550	551-575	576-600	601-700
TIGRAY	M	7,692	7,545	147	36	77	145	290	618	885	1,138	1,380	1,163	848	444	251	151	69	21	20	8	1
	F	7,571	7,451	120	148	285	498	796	1,024	1,286	1,217	968	621	325	167	70	23	16	7	-	-	-
	T	15,263	14,996	267	184	362	643	1,086	1,642	2,171	2,355	2,348	1,784	1,173	611	321	174	85	28	20	8	1
AFAR	M	582	564	18	13	28	55	88	72	79	80	75	48	18	6	1	1	-	-	-	-	-
	F	270	265	5	13	22	36	54	36	36	35	20	10	2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
	T	852	829	23	26	50	91	142	108	115	115	95	58	20	6	2	1	-	-	-	-	-
AMHARA	M	24,724	24,213	511	259	416	738	1,586	2,525	3,524	3,850	3,772	2,810	1,930	1,197	760	389	265	119	50	19	4
	F	19,721	19,407	314	863	1,641	2,339	3,193	3,161	2,862	2,128	1,522	792	458	216	98	73	39	14	3	5	-
	T	44,445	43,620	825	1,122	2,057	3,077	4,779	5,686	6,386	5,978	5,294	3,602	2,388	1,413	858	462	304	133	53	24	4
OROMIA	M	30,396	28,961	1,435	319	668	1,245	2,278	3,265	4,320	4,334	4,322	3,251	2,156	1,316	733	371	213	96	44	26	4
	F	19,600	19,160	440	776	1,353	2,030	2,704	3,063	2,940	2,299	1,789	1,119	574	286	121	69	22	12	2	1	-
	T	49,996	48,121	1,875	1,095	2,021	3,275	4,982	6,328	7,260	6,633	6,111	4,370	2,730	1,602	854	440	235	108	46	27	4
SOMALI	M	3,570	3,532	38	50	72	158	310	499	581	542	499	309	281	158	62	7	2	1	1	-	-
	F	793	785	8	9	25	37	93	92	123	117	87	70	69	40	20	3	-	-	-	-	-
	T	4,363	4,317	46	59	97	195	403	591	704	659	586	379	350	198	82	10	2	1	1	-	-
BEN. GUMZ	M	1,224	1,194	30	33	56	104	186	199	205	150	139	68	25	12	10	4	2	1	-	-	-
	F	844	830	14	52	83	103	153	173	126	64	47	17	6	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
	T	2,068	2,024	44	85	139	207	339	372	331	214	186	85	31	15	13	4	2	1	-	-	-
SNNP	M	15,598	15,242	356	115	205	495	994	1,745	2,525	2,623	2,368	1,630	1,052	615	388	234	99	78	50	23	3
	F	10,288	10,176	112	213	486	868	1,395	1,732	1,839	1,386	946	549	318	187	131	55	34	24	5	7	1
	T	25,886	25,418	468	328	691	1,363	2,389	3,477	4,364	4,009	3,314	2,179	1,370	802	519	289	133	102	55	30	4
GAMBELLA	M	745	722	23	17	29	43	73	116	117	122	113	60	20	7	1	2	1	-	-	1	-
	F	162	160	2	8	14	17	23	19	21	16	15	19	4	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
	T	907	882	25	25	43	60	96	135	138	138	128	79	24	10	2	2	1	-	-	1	-
HARERI	M	386	371	15	4	6	16	31	34	47	64	41	42	25	21	19	9	6	2	3	1	-
	F	324	318	6	9	16	22	46	47	45	46	35	15	16	8	6	2	2	2	1	-	-
	T	710	689	21	13	22	38	77	81	92	110	76	57	41	29	25	11	8	4	4	1	-
ADDIS ABABA	M	10,995	10,838	157	115	162	273	484	774	1,146	1,363	1,513	1,318	1,057	807	557	427	324	280	155	61	22
	F	14,416	14,254	162	397	837	1,205	1,728	1,832	1,775	1,472	1,383	986	751	577	446	329	241	168	80	39	8
	T	25,411	25,092	319	512	999	1,478	2,212	2,606	2,921	2,835	2,896	2,304	1,808	1,384	1,003	756	565	448	235	100	30
DIRE DAWA	M	720	700	20	15	25	48	71	79	92	91	88	65	39	38	20	10	9	7	1	2	-
	F	592	581	11	40	53	91	78	90	68	50	44	26	19	13	4	3	2	-	-	-	-
	T	1,312	1,281	31	55	78	139	149	169	160	141	132	91	58	51	24	13	11	7	1	2	-
SAUDI ARABIA	M	45	45	-	-	1	4	2	4	9	10	5	7	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	F	37	37	-	-	1	-	1	1	5	6	8	10	3	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
	T	82	82	-	-	2	4	3	5	14	16	13	17	4	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
ALL	M	96,677	93,927	2,750	976	1,745	3,324	6,393	9,930	13,530	14,367	14,315	10,771	7,452	4,623	2,802	1,605	990	605	324	141	34
	F	74,618	73,424	1,194	2,528	4,816	7,246	10,264	11,270	11,126	8,836	6,864	4,234	2,545	1,500	903	557	356	227	91	52	9
	T	171,295	167,351	3,944	3,504	6,561	10,570	16,657	21,200	24,656	23,203	21,179	15,005	9,997	6,123	3,705	2,162	1,346	832	415	193	43

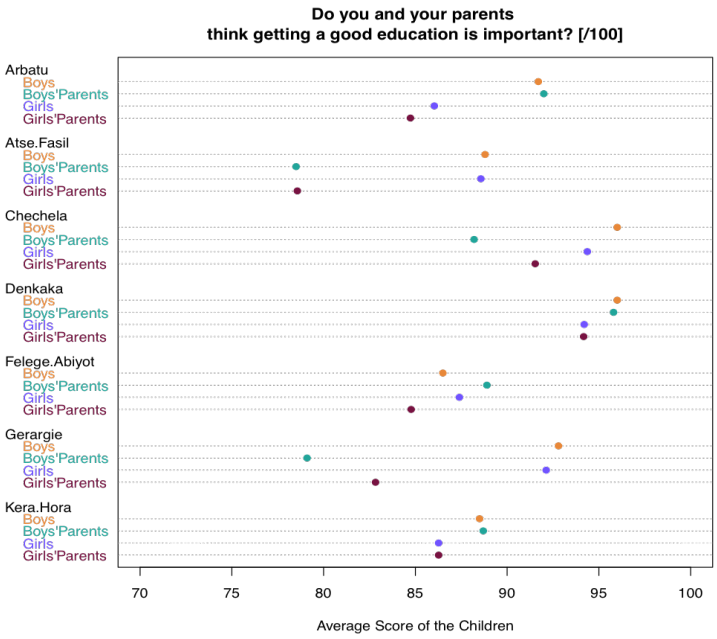
SUMMARY	Reg'd	Took Exam	Not Sat	>= 0	> 200	> 225	> 249	> 275	> 300	> 325	> 349	> 375	> 400	> 425	> 450	> 475	> 500	> 525	> 550	> 575	> 600
TOTAL	171,295	167,351	3,944	167,351	163,847	157,286	146,716	130,059	108,859	84,203	61,000	39,821	24,816	14,819	8,696	4,991	2,829	1,483	651	236	43
PERCENTAGE	*	*	*	100.00	97.91	93.99	87.67	77.72	65.05	50.32	36.45	23.79	14.83	8.86	5.20	2.98	1.69	0.89	0.39	0.14	0.03

Table from: Ministry of Education (Ethiopia) Education Statistics Annual Abstract (2012/13), p.104

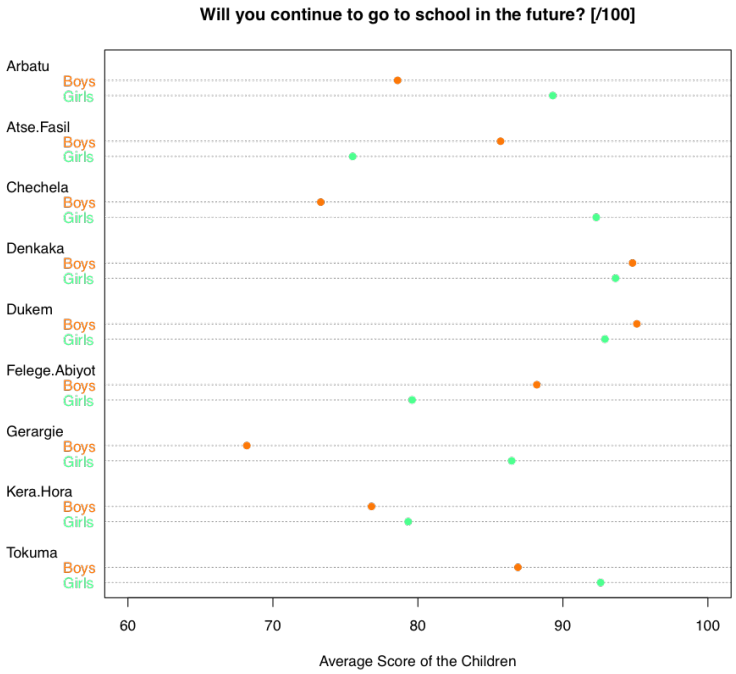
Appendix B

Barriers to Girls' Education

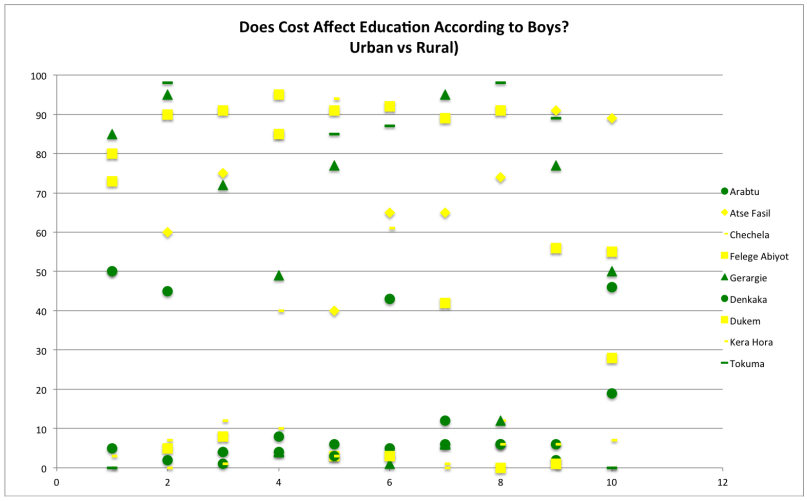
B.1 Children at Link Ethiopia Schools' Opinion regarding Importance of Education



B.2 Children at Link Ethiopia Schools' Opinion regarding Future



B.3 Boys at Link Ethiopia Schools' Opinion regarding Cost affecting Education



B.4 Girls at Link Ethiopia Schools' Opinion regarding Cost affecting Education